INVESTIGATING PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES WITH INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

BY

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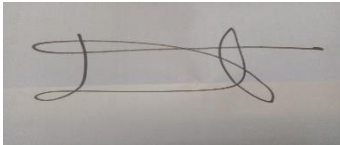**DECEMBER 2022**

DECLARATION

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Exact wording of the title of the thesis as appearing on the copies submitted for examination: **Investigating principals' perceptions and experiences with instructional leadership practices of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.**

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

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SIGNATURE   DATE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to the commemoration of those who stood for truth and equality and sacrificed their lives for justice and freedom of people across the world.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current and actual instructional leadership practices as defined by PIMRS instructional leadership model. The study was founded on PIMRS instructional leadership model. The three dimensions of the model are defining the school mission by means of framing the school goals and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme by means of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate by means of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting professional development, and providing incentives for learning.

The ten sub-cities in Addis Ababa City Administration were used as research sites and then ten sampled schools were selected using the stratified sampling technique. The study was employed mixed research approaches that guided by pragmatic research paradigm, and it was based on an explanatory sequential mixed methods design in which both quantitative and qualitative data were gathered to investigate the topic under consideration. Accordingly, 350 teachers were selected using the simple random sampling technique and 40 principals and 30 supervisors were selected using the availability sampling technique to select informants for the quantitative data gathering using PIMRS questionnaires. For interviews, 10 head principals and 10 resident supervisors were chosen using purposive sampling technique to obtain rich qualitative information for the study and to triangulate the results obtained from the survey instruments. Moreover, documents were reviewed to strengthen the outcomes of the study.

Based on the return rates of the survey instruments, the units of analysis were 331 teachers, 40 principals and 30 supervisors. Descriptive statistics like means and standard deviations and inferential statistics like t-tests were used to analyse the collected quantitative data using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, Version 27. On the other hand, qualitative data were analysed by using thematic analysis using the ATLAS ti, Version 9 programme. The results obtained from the

quantitative phase and the findings gained from the qualitative phase of the study were combined and interpreted using sequential explanatory methods. The outcomes of the study were that out of the 10 job functions of the three dimensions of PIMRS instructional leadership model, principals perceived they engaged in framing the school goals to a great extent, but in the other nine job functions, they engaged moderately as part of their instructional leadership practices, and they rated highest for defining the school mission and rated lowest for managing the instructional programme. The outcomes also showed that teachers and supervisors perceived principals in their schools engaged in all 10 job functions moderately as part of their instructional leadership practices, defining the school mission rated highest and managing the instructional programme rated lowest by teachers, and developing a positive school learning climate rated highest and managing the instructional programme rated lowest by supervisors. Managing the instructional programme rated lowest by the three group of respondents.

In addition, the results of hypothesis testing indicated that significant differences between principals' and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions on instructional leadership practices with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS instructional leadership model. Furthermore, numerous challenges which directly or indirectly impede the high engagements of principals in instructional leadership practices in their schools were indicated by interview participants. The major ones were: unclear and inconsistent meanings of instructional leadership; lack of adequate time, manuals, and guidelines to implement instructional leadership; workload of principals in administrative activities; wrong recruitment and selection criteria for principalship positions; inadequate training and training budget for principals on instructional leadership; and lack of principals' accountability requirements and autonomy and academic freedom of public schools. Accordingly, parallel possible solutions to the challenges were forwarded by the participants.

Hence, it was concluded that the three group of respondents (principals themselves, teachers and supervisors) perceived principals were engaged in the three dimensions of PIMRS instructional leadership model moderately as part of their instructional

leadership practices, and numerous challenges were directly or indirectly hindered their engagements. Lastly, recommendations were made for public secondary schools, Addis Ababa Ciy Administration Education Bureau and policy-makers with respect to high engagement of principals in their instructional leadership practices, merit-based recruitments and selection criteria and training for principals, preparation of manuals and guidelines for principals' instructional leadership practices, and principals' accountability requirements, and autonomy and academic freedom of public secondary schools were advised.

Key words: experiences; instructional leadership, instructional programme; principals, perceptions, public schools, school learning climate, school mission, secondary schools.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AACA	Addis Ababa City Administration
AACAE	Addis Ababa City Administration Education
AACAEB	Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau
ACER	Australian Center for Educational Research
AERA	American Educational Research Association
AIR	American Institutes for Research
CEEP	Civic and Ethical Education Programme
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
CPRE	Core Principles of Research in Education
CTE	Colleges of Teachers' Education
DDCA	Dire Dawa City Administration
DIF	Differential Item Function
EDRM	Education Development Road Map
EFA	Education for All
EGSSLCE	Ethiopian General Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination
EHEECE	Ethiopian Higher Education Entrance Certificate Examination
ESDP	Education Sector Development Programme
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic Ethiopia
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GE	General Education
GEQIP	General Education Quality Improvement Package
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GTP	Growth and Transformational Plans
HSPS	Hyperactive Superficial Principal Syndrome
ICT	Information Communications Technology
ICTP	Information Communications Technology programme
IL	Instructional Leadership

IT	Information Technology
LAMP	Leadership and Management Programme
MCD	Maximum Calculation of Delay
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MMR	Mixed methodologies research
MoE	Ministry of Education
NASSP	National Association of Secondary School Principals
NCPEA	National Council of Professors of Educational Administration
NCSL	National College of School Leadership
NDT	Newly Deployed Teachers
NEAEA	National Educational Assessment and Examinations Agency
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisations
NPSSP	National Professional Standard for SchoolPrincipals
OAA	Ohio Achievement Assessment
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PACCI	Pan African Chamber of Commerce and Industry
PCK	Pedagogical Content Knowledge
PD	Professional Development
PELCE	Primary Education Leaving Certificate Examination
PGDSL	Post-Graduate Diploma in School Leadership
PGDT	Post-Graduate Diploma in Teaching
PIMRS	Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale
PSR	Pupil Section Ratio
PTR	Pupil Teacher Ratio
REB	Reginal Education Bureau
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SIP	School Improvement Programme
SLA	School Leadership Academy

SNNP	South Nations, Nationalities and People
SNNPRS	South Nations, Nationalities and People's Region
SCEO	Sub-City Education Office
TDP	Teacher Development Programme
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNISA	University of South Africa
USA	United States of America
WEO	Woreda Education Office

CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Education has the power to transform lives on both a personal and societal level. The way people act can and does change as a result. Therefore, educational groups have a duty to make the "good life" known to and achievable for everyone. This does not imply that the school should serve as a model for how everyone should live, but rather that it should improve everyone's health, happiness, safety, and overall wellbeing. In fact, "the extent and quality of formal public education are dependent upon national security, economic and social security for the individual, and the well and happiness of people of a country" (Harrison, 1968:22).

As a major contributor to quality education, instructional leadership is not always understood in its fullest sense by those whose official responsibility it is. When practised at its best, it should help to release the creative abilities of teachers and to coordinate the efforts of all concerned, so that better education results. Such leadership is no small responsibility. It demands the best and most dedicated role players in education. For, if the quality of education is to be improved, all elements and conditions of the teaching and learning situation must be taken into account, and effective growth of the learner must be its only ultimate product and function. The effectiveness of IL can be measured in no other terms. According to O'Doherty and Ovando (2013), teachers' instructional practices and the resultant students' academic achievements are highly affected by principals' perceptions on their IL practices, so it is important to understand their perceptions. As a vital job function of school principals at all grade levels is the provision of IL, so it is imperative that they frequently evaluate their effectiveness in this area and deal with any shortfalls. Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current and actual IL practices as defined by the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) IL model. To realise this aim, the study was carried out using a mixed methods research approach with an explanatory sequential design.The key informants selected to respond to the research questions of this study were principals, teachers and supervisors, because they were the vital role players in IL

practices at school level in the Ethiopian education context. The researcher first collected quantitative data and then qualitative data. Three data-gathering instruments namely, PIMRS questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and document reviews were used to understand empirical data on principals' perceptions and experiences of their IL practices as defined by the PIMRS IL model from principals themselves, teachers and supervisors. Teachers' and supervisors' responses were used for comparison with the principals' responses. This comparison was used to reduce the potential impact of self-bias from the principals' responses.

This chapter familiarises the reader with the problem of public secondary school principals' perceptions and experiences with their current IL practices in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. It situates the research problem in the context of the current and actual situation of principals in public secondary schools in AACA and outlines some of the reasons the research is relevant at this time. It also sets out the components for this study by explaining the background; the motivation; the problem statement; the aim and objectives; the significance; the theoretical framework on which the study is founded; the conceptual framework that shows the relationship among variables of the study; the assumptions; the scope; and the limitations of the study. Moreover, the operational definition of key concepts, the research design and methods, the chapter division, and the chapter summary were included.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

The contributions to teachers' performance, students' learning, and academic achievement have been repeatedly addressed in the literature on educational leadership and management, despite the fact that school leadership has the second-highest impact on student learning after classroom instruction (Leithwood, 2006). IL is one of the two basic strategies for educational leadership, the other strategy being transformational leadership (Hallinger, 2003). IL is not a new concept making it no stranger to the world of research studies. The complexity that exists with IL work, even after many years, means there is still room to examine how principals practise IL (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Leithwood, 2013). In the last four decades; several studies were conducted to assess the IL of principals. The results of the studies, however,

varied depending on the contexts in which the studies were conducted. In 1983 Philip Hallinger, in his doctoral dissertation entitled "Assessing the instructional management behaviour of principals" suggests that elementary school principals tend to be relatively uninvolved in managing curriculum and instruction.

On the basis of the findings of Hallinger and his recommendations for further research, and the original research on effective schools in United States which involved only elementary schools, created the foundation for further study regarding IL (Hallinger, 2003). Based on these initiatives and their motivations, various studies have been conducted in relation to principals' IL behaviours, roles, practices and challenges (e.g., Ahmed, 2012; Ensley, 2014; Gowpall, 2015; Firmaningsih-Kolu, 2015; Masuku, 2011), the effects of principals' IL on teachers' performance (e.g., McCray, 2014; Pelzang, 2014; Trotman, 2013), and the impacts of principals' IL on students' achievement (e.g., Adam, 2012; Anderson, 2006; Buzek, 2004; Mafuwane, 2011; Mutuku, 2018; Nkoroi, 2017; O'Day, 1984, Ruzicska, 1989). Also, Blasé and Blasé (2000) revealed two themes of successful IL: discussing it with teachers to elicit suggestions for improvement and encouraging professional development (PD). However, these studies came up with diverse results based on the approaches they used, and the times and contexts at which they were conducted.

Moreover, other several studies have revealed that principals generally perform effectively in administrative leadership responsibilities and are less effective in IL practices (Brookover & Lezotte, 1982; Ensley, 2014; Geleta, 2015; Tsegaye & Moges, 2014). According to Geleta (2015:1), "principals are too pre-occupied in dealing with strictly administrative duties in their offices, leaving the instructional responsibilities in the hands of teachers alone". Moreover, high (secondary) schools differ significantly from elementary (primary) schools in organisational complexity, age and characteristics of students, size, curricular organisation and delivery and structure (Hallinger, 2005; Levin, 2012; Murphy, 1988; Sebastian & Allensworth, 2012). In their reviews of studies on IL, Printy (2010), Robinson (2011), and Southworth (2002) indicated a number of studies focused on elementary school settings alone. However, results from IL studies conducted in elementary settings are often generalised across all settings including high

schools (Heck & Marcoulides, 1993). Over again, due to structural and organisational differences, high school principals have been shown to be less actively involved in IL practices than those at the elementary level. Few studies have directly examined teachers' perspectives on principals' everyday IL characteristics and the impact of those characteristics on teachers.

Recent qualitative studies with regard to self-perceptions of principals in their IL practices (e.g., Brabham, 2017; Cumming, 2012; Poloncic, 2016; Powell, 2017; Rehman, 2019; Sharma, 2012; Sterrett, 2011) in general reported that principals practiced many of the components outlined as IL behaviours while their varied understandings on IL determined their actions. Moreover, findings of these studies suggested that principals' growth in leadership development was unfocused and unmeasured. Powell (2017:130) further forwarded that "principals' perceptions on IL affect the actual practices in their schools". He also indicated that "the three areas potentially contribute to a difference in IL practices within schools are: behaviours stemming from personal beliefs and ideas about IL; a lack of a clearly and consistently defined conception of IL demonstrated in the school system; and the principals' ability, as well as their capacity, to do the work especially when dealing with competing demands".

Quantitative survey studies conducted in relation to principals' perceptions on their IL practices and teachers' perceptions on IL practices of their principals (Atkinson, 2013; Dennis, 2009; Marshall, 2005; Tryon, 1978) revealed that principals and teachers perceive the principals' IL job functions similarly; Bellibas (2015), Lyons (2010) and Owens, 2015) stated that teachers' perceptions were different from principals' perceptions in some principals' IL job functions while Long (2008), Payne (2012) and Smith (2007) declared that a significant difference existed between teachers' and principals' perceptions of the extent to which principals demonstrated IL practices.

On the other hand, a mixed methods study conducted by Harris (2014) on instructional perceptions and practices of principals suggests that increasing principals' self-understanding about their perceptions (espoused theory) and practices (theory-in-use) and the relationship between the two is the solution to the problems of IL practices. She

concluded that focused association of principal perceptions and practices of IL could possibly be a means of enhancing leadership practice.

The government of Federal Democratic Republic Ethiopia (FDRE) has taken different actions to enhance the quality of education in general and secondary education in particular. Some of these are the capacity building of teachers, principals and supervisors to implement their roles as stipulated in the Education and Training Policy (ETP), (FDRE MoE, 1994), and in the newly prepared strategic document, Education Development Road Map (EDRM) (FDRE MoE, 2018). Furthermore, different in-service and out-of-service training and PD programmes for teachers, principals and supervisors have been introduced and implemented in almost all public universities and colleges in the country to capacitate these school actors by qualifying them with Post-Graduate Diploma in Teaching or master's degrees in subject specialisms for teachers and Post-Graduate Diploma in School Leadership (PGDSL) or master's degrees in educational/ school leadership for principals and supervisors through ESDP IV (2010/11-2014/15) (MoE, 2010). The EDRM also gives special emphasis to the training and development of the school leadership for the improvement of the quality of education in general and students' academic achievement in particular. For the execution of these critical issues, MoE developed National Professional Standard for School Principals (NPSSP), which comprises three competencies: school vision and community leadership, IL, and administrative leadership (FDRE MoE, 2013). School principals are expected to possess the three competencies to lead their schools in offering quality education. More specifically, FDRE MoE has focused on school principals' knowledge and understanding of IL practices, because it is highly related to the classroom practices of teachers and has strong direct and indirect effects on student achievement. In addition, all the principals, as instructional leaders are responsible for framing and communicating school goals, managing the instructional programme of the school, creating favourable school learning climate that promote the PD of teachers and academic achievement of students (FDRE MoE, 2010). A lot of long and short-term empowerment training programmes have been given to school principals at all levels with regard to IL practices for the enhancement of the quality of classroom instruction, and student achievement (FDRE MoE, 2010).

All the accomplishments that have been made by FDRE MoE through the ESDP IV to improve the capacity of key actors of the schools in the country also implemented in public secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration (AACA), through the direction and follow-up of AACAEB. Moreover, public secondary schools in the AACA have opportunities to improve the quality of education in general and effective practices of IL in particular. Some of improvements have been relatively better school infrastructures and facilities (buildings, classrooms, libraries, laboratories, pedagogical centres, instructional materials, etc.); a reduction in the pupil classroom ratio (average of 40 students), the pupil teacher ratio (1:21), the pupil textbook ratio (1:1); qualified and experienced teachers, principals and supervisors; further, availability of one principal and three vice-principals of different affairs (teaching and learning, teachers and leaders development, and co-curricular) in each school; and access to technologies (IT laboratories, plasma screens, internet access, etc.) (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019:96).

In spite of the efforts that have been made by FDRE MoE and AACAEB and the public secondary schools in the AACA, parents of students, community at large, higher institutions, the government itself, researcher's observations, and other stakeholders have been repeatedly complaining about the quality of education that is provided by public secondary schools. These complaints are related, among other things, to the quality of education which has been declining at an alarming rate; failures in national and school-based examinations of students; lack of accountability on part of the principals and teachers; huge amounts of principals' school time being spent on routine and administrative work, misunderstanding of their roles, lack of support for classroom teachers; lack of continuous training on IL; class absenteeism by both teachers and students; political interference in public schools; decline in teacher numbers and performance in instructional activities; teacher incompetence; and wastage of human and material resources (Fire, 2017; Gessese, 2018; Tarekegn, 2018).

With regard to failures in national examinations, the results of Ethiopian Higher Education Entrance Certificate Examination (EHEECE) of 2017/18 and 2018/19 are examples of the rate of decline in public secondary schools in the AACA which called for the principals to rethink their perceptions on IL practices. Out of 48 857 Grade 12

students who sat for 2017/18 EHEECE in the AACA, only 22 475 students (46%) passed the minimum entry requirements for Ethiopian higher institutions. In 2018/19, among 54 914 candidates that sat for EHEECE, only 23 723 (43.2%) students had the minimum requirement for admission. These figures point to problems with the quality of education in the AACA, particularly given that progress since 2011 has been very slow. So, who is responsible for the downturn? What is wrong with the current and actual engagements in IL practices of public secondary school principals in the AACA?

In supporting these complaints and failures, previous studies conducted in AACA and in its sub-cities (e.g., Atnafu, 2014; Belete, 2017; Bogale, 2018; Demissie, 2017; Haile, 2020) revealed that public secondary school principals in the AACA are generally ineffective in the IL practices although they perform effectively in administrative leadership responsibilities. In other words, principals' administrative leadership and other routine work took more of their time than IL. This means that public secondary school principals in the city are not instructionally oriented. Moreover, Demissie (2017) also showed that, since principals' efforts to facilitate teaching and learning were low in many respects, learners are not effectively learning, and teachers are not effectively teaching to improve student achievement and the school success as whole. Furthermore, the findings of the qualitative case study conducted by Haile (2020) revealed that principals pay attention to political requirements, while teaching and learning activities are ignored and an instructional or transformational leadership approach is neglected.

In addition to the above complaints and challenges, this study was conducted to address the recommendations of some scholars who suggested that researchers undertake empirical research related to perceptions of principals and other stakeholders on IL practices. These scholars also agreed that the perceptions of principals on their IL practices and perceptions of other stakeholders of IL (such as teachers and supervisors) on their principals' IL practices as emerging issues have been given limited emphasis by the researchers in the area. In supporting this suggestion, Lyng (2013:109) states that "research on the perceptions and understanding of principals in leadership practices is in its young stage and requires more and persistent study". Moreover,

Bellibas (2015:1482) agrees that "while there is great evidence concerning the impact of IL on student learning and outcomes, there is little knowledge and systematic research on how principals perceive their practices of IL". Although there is large amount of evidence regarding the direct and indirect effects of IL on student learning and academic achievement (Leithwood, 2006; Hallinger, 2012), there is less knowledge and little systematic research on how principals view their IL practices (Atkinson, 2013; Harris, 2014; Powell, 2017; Smith, 2007). Furthermore, according to the researcher's knowledge, there have been some studies conducted to examine the IL practices of principals in AACA and its sub-cities, but they did not investigate the issue of how principals perceive and experience their current and actual IL practices. Hence, the major purpose of this study was to investigate principals' perceptions and experiences with their current and actual IL practices in public secondary schools in AACA as defined by PIMRS IL model. Investigating these issues will helps principals to understand what is required, where they fall short, and recognise the importance of IL to improve teacher instructional effectiveness and student learning.

1.3 MOTIVATION OF THE STUDY

This study is motivated by the need for principals to understand their IL role. It provides understanding of the association between principals' perceptions and their IL practices. It was found in the reviewed literature that principals' perceptions are strongly associated with their IL practices. In this regard, over some decades, some research findings have established a strong association between principals' perceptions and their IL practices. Researchers (e.g., Ballibas, 2015; Powell, 2017; Harris, 2014) indicated that there is significant association between the principals' perceptions and their IL practices.

In addition to the above motivations to investigate this problem, as a teacher and principal of public primary and secondary schools in AACA for more than 20 years, the researcher observed that most principals were burdened with routine activities like arranging paperwork; organising and participating in administrative meetings; resolving disputes among students, teachers, and parents; and setting up different activities in school. This means that principals do not give emphasis to their core responsibilities,

namely IL, and they cannot cope with new demands, more complex decisions and additional responsibilities. Mestry (2017) recommended that, to meet learner needs and enhance learner achievement, it is vital for school principals to enhance their role as instructional leaders by emphasising best instructional practices and keeping their schools focused on curriculum, instruction and assessment. Moreover, according to Powell (2017:130), "the perceptions of principals affect their IL practices; consequently, principals' IL practices have direct and mediated effects on academic achievement of students". Furthermore, the researcher had observed the research gap in the issue under investigation. Hence, the purpose of this study was to investigate principals' perceptions and experiences of IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model in public secondary schools in AACA.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

To address the questions raised in section 1.2 (background of the study) of this study, it may require a profound and wide analysis of the education sector of the AACA in broad-spectrum and its public secondary education predominantly. However, some studies (e.g., Brabham, 2017; Poloncic, 2016; Powell, 2017) show that, among school principal-related variables, variables such as the way principals perceive their practices and the way they understand IL severely affect their IL practices. Also, according to Powell (2017), the practices of principals are determined by their diverse understandings. Although there is large amount of evidence regarding the direct and indirect impacts of IL on student learning and academic achievement (Leithwood, 2006; Hallinger, 2012), there is less knowledge and little systematic research on how principals view their practices (Atkinson, 2013; Harris, 2014; Powell, 2017; Smith, 2007). Therefore, little is known about how principals perceive their IL practices. Further, Bellibas (2015:1482) argues that "while there is great evidence regarding the impact of IL on student learning and outcomes, there is little knowledge and systematic research on how principals perceive their practices of IL". The purpose of this explanatory sequential mixed methods study was to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in AACA perceive and experience their current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model.

Besides the reasons described above, to the researcher's knowledge, regarding the leadership and IL practices of public secondary school principals, there have been few studies conducted in AACA. Some of these recent studies (Admassie, 2017; Atnafu, 2014; Belete, 2017; Bogale, 2018; Demissie, 2017; Gebreslassie, 2014; Haile, 2020; Mohammed & Handiso, 2018; Tarekegn, 2018) have explored the relationship between principal leadership, teacher motivation and student achievement; school leadership towards teacher job satisfaction; practices and challenges of IL; effectiveness of IL on student achievement; and factors affecting the implementation of IL in AACA and in its sub-cities, but they did not get to the heart of why principals do or do not give emphasis to their IL practices (i.e., their perceptions and experiences with IL). Thus, the perceptions of principals on their IL constitute a knowledge gap in the studies of public secondary schools in AACA. Therefore, the existing perceptions and experiences of principals with their current and actual engagements in IL practices were investigated in light of PIMRS IL model to address the knowledge gap. Hence, the major purpose of this study was to investigate principals' perceptions and experiences with their current and actual IL practices of public secondary schools in AACA as defined by PIMRS IL model.

The research questions below guided the study.

1.4.1 Main research question

The main question was: What are the perceptions and experiences of public secondary school principals with their current and actual practices of IL as defined by PIMRS IL model in AACA?

1.4.2 Sub-questions

To seek an answer to the main question, the following sub-questions were investigated.

1.4.2.1   How do public secondary school principalsin AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRSIL model), and what experiences do they have with them?

1.4.2.2   How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals?

1.4.2.3   What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of principals in AACA?

1.4.2.4   What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging in IL activities?

1.4.2.5   What possible solutions can be devised that contribute to high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

1.4.2.6   What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

1.4.3 Hypotheses of the study

This study was intended to test the following null hypotheses identified with respect to questions 1, 2 and 3 of the study.

H_{01}: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) as perceived by principals themselves in AACA public secondary schools.

H_{02}: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) as perceived by teachers and supervisors of public secondary schools in AACA.

H_{03}: There are no statistically significant differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of the extent to which principals engage in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of the PIMRS IL model) of public secondary schools in AACA.

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this mixed methods study was to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in AACA perceive and experience their current and actual engagement in IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model.

The specific objectives to address the aim of the study were:

1.5.1 To determine the perceptions of public secondary school principals in AACA with their current and actual engagement in practices of IL (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) and identify their experiences with them;

1.5.2 To determine the perceptions of public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA with the current and actual engagement in practices of IL (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals;

1.5.3 To compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals in AACA;

1.5.4 To identify the challenges that public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging in IL activities;

1.5.5 To contribute the possible solutions for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA; and

1.5.6 To make recommendations that may be used as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study may be significant for the following reasons:

1.6.1 Contributions to Education Policy

1.6.1.1   It helps to create awareness nationally of the essence of high engagement in IL practices in relation to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model which comprise ten job functions and improvement of learning outcomes in the instructional process;

1.6.1.2   It assists in offering useful information regarding the influence of principals' perceptions on their current and actual engagement in IL practices in the context of the Ethiopian education system;

1.6.1.3   It provides information that can be used to understand the current and actual engagement in IL practices in relation to the ten job functions of PIMRS IL model in public secondary schools of AACA and its manifestation; and

1.6.1.4   It informs policy-makers to revisit and improve the current working policies and practices of IL, and for principals' recruitment, selection and training in Ethiopian education system context.

1.6.2 Contributions to the practice of IL in public secondary schools

1.6.2.1   It creates awareness among principals, teachers and supervisors regarding high engagement in IL practices in their schools;

1.6.2.2   It assists principals in becoming more responsive of their current perceptions and engagements in the practices of IL and enable them to positively influence the core business of their schools, the teaching and learning, and then student academic achievement;

1.6.2.3   It decides principals' engagement in practices of IL, and strengthen the practices by addressing the need for improving principals' readiness, capacity, and performance in the system; and

1.6.2.4   It suggests strategies that may enhance the engagement of school principals in their IL practices.

1.6.3   Contributions to the field of educational leadership and management

1.6.3.1   It provides an important opportunity to advance the understanding of principals, teachers, supervisors, and other stakeholders of education on principals' IL practices;

1.6.3.2   It contributes knowledge to the existing research gap regarding the perceptions of principals of their IL practices in secondary schools, internationally, nationally, locally and more specifically in the study area;

1.6.3.3   It serves as a stepping-stone for further investigation regarding specific issues of the IL practices of the principals;

1.6.3.4   It makes a major (original) contribution to the field of educational leadership and management by investigating new framework of IL practices for Ethiopian secondary school principals; and

1.6.3.5   It helps the researcher to increase his knowledge, skills of analysis and synthesis and make a meaningful contribution to the academic world.

1.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

A theoretical framework can be defined as "the theory that the researcher chooses to guide him or her in theirresearch"(Imenda, 2014:189). According to Ngulube (2020), theories and methodology are the two major pillars of research. Support for the theoretical framework for this study can be viewed through many theoretical and philosophical lenses. The focus of this study is IL practices, perceptions and experiences. The theory of IL has been extensively studied (Hallinger & Walker, 2017), and there are various prominent models and theories that give an explanation of IL. Some of these models and theories include: Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) model also called the PIMRS IL model; Murphy's (1990) model; Leithwood's (1994) theory; Weber's (1996) model, Blasé and Blasé's (2000) theory, McEwan's (2003) model, Maryland State's (2005) IL Framework, and Baldanza's (2016) IL model of the twenty-first century.These related models and theories have considerable implications for the topic of the study, principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL practices. However, this study is based on the PIMRS IL model because it is the most widely used theoretical lens in studies that explain variables of IL practices. On the other hand, there are many forms of research philosophy (such as positivism, social constructivism and pragmatism). This study is founded on pragmatism, because pragmatism allows for a mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2012). A concise explanation of PIMRS IL model is given below.

1.7.1 PIMRS IL model

This study was founded in the IL model proposed by Hallinger and Murphy (1985), also known as the PIMRS IL Model. It was selected as an appropriate theoretical framework of this study, because IL was the focus of this study and it is the most widely used

theoretical lens in studies that explains the variables of IL practices. Furthermore, the IL behaviour of principals has been accurately described by empirical studies which used PIMRS IL model (Nix, 2002). This model has informed much of the research regarding IL since its inception (Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger & Wang, 2015). Moreover, this model involves principals, teachers, supervisors, students, parents, school facilities and resources. In this model, Hallinger (2003) created a unique view of IL with three components: establishing the educational mission, overseeing the curriculum, and creating a supportive learning environment. According to Hallinger (2003), establishing the school's mission entails working with the staff to guarantee that the institution has specific, quantifiable goals that are effectively communicated to all members of the school community. These objectives are mostly focused on the learners' academic development. The school principal must be intimately familiar with the school's curriculum in order to manage the educational programme (Hallinger, 2003). The supervision of classroom instruction is also a part of this. The school principal is in charge of building the academic basis of the school, even though secondary schools find it challenging to achieve this. The tone of the school is also within the principal's control. This includes ensuring that the school community upholds a high standard of excellence and expectations. This is accomplished by giving staff and students incentives and by reserving the time necessary for in-class instruction rather than for administrative tasks. The PIMRS, a measurement of IL that is frequently used and was used in the current study, was developed as a result of Hallinger's work on the topic. School principals and other role players in IL may have perceptions and experiences on the various elements of IL. The principals' perceptions and experiences with the dimensions and job functions of PIMRS IL model form the basis of this study.

A detailed analysis of the theoretical framework is provided in Section 2.3 of Chapter 2 of this study.

1.8 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

Ravitch and Riggan (2017) as cited in Nelson (2018:49) explain that "a conceptual framework is used by a researcher to identify assumed relationships among key variables to be studied". The research is aimed at investigating how public secondary

school principals in AACA perceive and experience their current and actual IL practices as defined by the PIMRS IL model. The conceptual framework of this study shows the direct and indirect relationships between the variables of the study. Accordingly, the independent variables were dimensions in terms of their job functions of IL practices as described by PIMRS IL model: (1) defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals; (2) managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and (3) developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. On the other hand, the dependent variable was the perceived IL of principals. In addition to independent variables, the dependent variable may be partly impacted by mediating (intervening) variables. Some of these variables were principals' personal characteristics; principals' IL behaviours; accountability requirements of principals in the practice of IL; principals' commitments to practice IL; principals' understanding and familiarity with IL; and principals' abilities and capacities to practice IL. These variables may have influenced the perceived IL of principals but were not included in this study. The variables of the study are discussed in detail in Section 3.2 (variables of the study) of Chapter 3 of this study.

1.9 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

In this study, it was assumed that:

1.9.1 Most of the public secondary schools had comparatively small differences of performance in their school-based examinations, in former Grade 10 Ethiopian General Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination, and Grade 12 Ethiopian Higher Education Entrance Certificate Examination;

1.9.2 All public secondary schools had relatively similar human and material resources to carry out their instructional activities;

1.9.3 IL was one of many leadership responsibilities of the principals in public secondary schools;

1.9.4 The study measured only engagement of principals in their IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model, not their effectiveness;

1.9.5 Principals were academically qualified and experienced to accomplish their IL duties and they were instructional leaders in their schools;

1.9.6 Human behaviour, together with the ways informants construct and make sense of their lived experiences differed according to their locations and backgrounds;

1.9.7 The informants of the study (principals, teachers, and supervisors) had different perceptions, experiences and understandings on the concepts of IL;

1.9.8 The informants of the study (principals, teachers, and supervisors) understood the content of their respective PIMRS questionnaires and they responded to the questions in their respective PIMRS questionnaires willingly and without restraint, and with a reasonable degree of accuracy based on their perceptions on IL practices of principals;

1.9.9 Perceptions of the informants of the study might be impacted by a number of variables that were not measured in this study;

1.9.10 The practices of IL in this study were based on the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model and their 10 job functions, and they had direct or indirect (intervening) effects on the perceived IL of principals;

1.9.11 Mediating variables understood by the researcher partly affected the influence of the three dimensions of IL practices on the perceived IL of principals;

1.9.12 Principals' engagement in IL practices was a prerequisite for effective teachers' instructional practices, which then impacted students' academic achievements;

1.9.13 High engagement of principals in their IL practices made a significant difference in improving teaching and learning, and lack of high engagement in IL practices was accountable for students' low academic achievement;

1.9.14 The perceived IL practices of principals were among the major variables that influenced teachers' instructional practices and students' academic achievements; and

1.9.15 The samples (schools, principals, teachers, and supervisors) selected in this study represented the whole population of the study area.

1.10 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

Some of the delimitations of this study were:

1.10.1 IL is one of many leadership responsibilities of the principal in the school and was the focus of the study, because little attention has been given to it in the past and it affects the core business of the school, namely, the teaching and learning;

1.10.2 This study was delimited to principals' perceptions and experiences with their current and actual IL practices of public secondary schools in AACA as expressed by principals themselves, teachers and supervisors in the sampled schools for the problem to be addressed in its entirety;

1.10.3 The focus of this study was all the public secondary school principals in AACA, because principals are instructional leaders who have the greatest influence on the communication of school goals and school learning climate, and provide direction, motivation and inspiration for their school;

1.10.4 All principal and supervisor informants had a minimum of two years experience, and all teacher informants had at least three years experience in their current schools, who could provide rich information;

1.10.5 The study investigated the problem through the lens of PIMRS IL model, because this model was relevant to the current study and its effectiveness;

1.10.6 FDRE has ten regional states and two administrative cities currently. In order to use the researcher's time (the researcher was full time worker), energy and resources effectively and to be able to manage the study adequately, AACA, which is one of the administrative cities and the capital of the country, was chosen as the area in which the study was conducted. Moreover, this city was convenient for the researcher, since his workplace was there, and he had worked for more than 20 years as a teacher and principal in public primary and secondary schools in the city;

1.10.7 Due to scarcity of time, finance and other resources, in addition to the role players of IL (principals, teachers and supervisors), it was not possible to investigate the perceptions and experiences of other key stakeholders such as students, parents, government officials on IL practices of their principals that would have allowed the researcher to get additional information;

1.10.8 The variables other than the independent and dependent variables of the study were not studied, because of scarcity of time and to be able to manage the study adequately;

1.10.9 The study focused only on public secondary schools, which are government-owned secondary schools. Private and missionary (church or mosque) secondary schools were not included in this study;

1.10.10 Due to scarcity of time, finance and other resources, only secondary schools which offered education from Grades 9-12 were the targets of the study. Primary schools were not included in this study; and

1.10.11 Only regular programmes were included in this study, other modalities such as evening and distance were not included in this study, because of shortage of time, finance and other resources.

1.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Limitations of the study are challenges beyond the ability and capacity of the researcher. (Lunenburg & Irby, 2008). The following were some of the limitations (challenges) that were expected by the researcher when conducting the study, and methods employed to minimize the effects of limitations:

1.11.1 Financial problems (the researcher was self-sponsored), time constraints (the researcher was full time worker) and lack of baseline research done and literature on the topic of the study in the Ethiopian context, more specifically in the AACA. However, the researcher endeavored to make the study as complete as possible;

1.11.2 The critical challenges that confronted the researcher were the recurrent power cuts in the study area and sporadic disruptions of internet access in the country. Nevertheless, the researcher attempted to make the study as complete as possible by doing research works day and night;

1.11.3 PIMRS is a greatly used and validated instrument and falls under an attitudinal (perceptual) measure in that it measures principals' perceptions and experiences of their IL practices. The data from this instrument are self-reported data on the part of principals and the perceptions do not necessarily equal truth; thus,

according to Creswell (2009), "maintaining a level of honesty and accuracy with survey data can be difficult". This worry was addressed by administering questionnaires to teachers and supervisors in addition to principals, so as to obtain a completer and more balanced image of the problem under investigation;

1.11.4 According to Hallinger (2008), "PIMRS measures the presence of IL practices and not the effectiveness of IL";

1.11.5 Researcher's bias and effect during the individual semi-structured interviews with head principals and resident supervisors could have influenced their responses;

1.11.6 The data-collection period for this study was the academic year of 2021 from April to June and this year was the second year of the global Covid-19 pandemic. Over a two-month period, the researcher planned to administer face-to-face surveys with principals, teachers and supervisors using their respective PIMRS questionnaires. However, even though all the Covid-19 protocols were implemented by the researcher and sampled schools, some teacher respondents were not allowed to complete their questionnaires; consequently, the researcher replaced these teachers by other teachers from the reserve respondents that were identified for this purpose; and

1.11.7 The outcomes of the study were derived from context and situation of AACA and can only be generalised to all public secondary schools in AACA and other study areas with similar settings.

1.12 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

To ensure uniformity in the study, the following operational definitions are provided:

1.12.1 Principal

The principal is a school administrator responsible for managing daily operations; as such, he or she serves as the institution's foundation and is crucial to all instructional activities (Blasé & Blasé, 2002:3). In this study, principals are the head principals and vice- principals of a school who participates actively in all school-related activities as players and major actors.

1.12.2 Perception

Perception refers to an idea, a belief or an image a person has as a result of how the person sees or understands something (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe & Meyerson, 2005). In this study, perceptions of principals refer to their views, perspectives, or beliefs toward their IL practices while perceptions of teachers and supervisors mean their views, perspectives, or beliefs on their principals' IL practices.

1.12.3 Instructional leadership

IL is one of the leadership activities carried out by the school principal with a special focus on the teaching and learning process in aschool (DuFour, 2002).

1.12.4 Instructional leadership practices

IL practices refer to the three dimensions and the job functions of IL according to the PIMRS IL model (Hallinger, 2003). Determining the school's mission entails articulating and communicating its goals; managing the instructional programme entails coordinating the curriculum, supervising and evaluating instruction, and keeping track of student progress; and creating a supportive learning environment for students and teachers includes safeguarding instructional time, maintaining high visibility, rewarding teachers, encouraging PD, and offering incentives for learning.

1.12.5 School mission

School mission is the intention of the school to service those who endeavour to grow in knowledge, wisdom, and perceptive for the improvement of the society (Hallinger, 2003). In this study, school mission refers to mission statement crafted by each school and clearly communicated via formal and informal ways to all staff members of a school so as to support student learning.

1.12.6 Instructional programme

Instructional programme refers to a kind of instructional action that is planned and executed to accomplish an instructional goal (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). In this study,

the instructional programme includes both the curricular and extra-curricular activities of the school and is considered as the 'wide curriculum' of the school.

1.12.7 School learning climate

School learning climate refers to the norms and attitudes of the staff and students that influence learning in the school (Hallinger, 2011). In this study, school learning climate refers to the atmosphere of the school which is mainly influenced by the principals and dictates how students and teachers perceive their school and affects their values and attitudes toward the school and their job functions respectively.

1.12.8 Secondary school

Secondary school is described as a phase linking primary and higher institution, which offers secondary education to Grades 9–12 in the Ethiopian context (FDRE MoE, 1994).

1.12.9 Supervisor

The supervisor is a person formally assigned by the organisation such as AACAEB, SCEOs, and WEOs to control and monitor the curriculum, instruction and assessment of a school in order to enhance the quality of student learning(FDRE MoE, 2012).The resident (immediate) supervisor is a person expended most of his or her time in a school which is given to him or her to undertake special control (in a sense of monitoring compliance requirements and providing feedbacks), support, and evaluation.

1.12.10Public secondary school

The term public secondary school refers to a secondary school that is managed and funded directly or indirectly by government in the Ethiopian context (FDRE MoE, 2002). It should be noted that government includes the federal government, the 10 regional states and the two city administrations.

1.12.11 Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale

The PIMRS is the specific instrument originally developed by Philip Hallinger in 1983 to assess dimensions of the IL constructs for principals (Hallinger, 2003). This instrument was used to collect data for this study from principals, teachers and supervisors.

1.13 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

1.13.1 Research design

The definition of research design is "a plan and a method for study that spans the decisions from general hypotheses to specific techniques for data collecting and analysis" (Creswell, 2014:233). It combines philosophical presumptions, investigative techniques and methodologies. Under this sub-topic, the paradigm on which the study is based, the research approach used by the researcher in addressing the research questions and the strategy of the study are explained below.

1.13.1.1 Research paradigm – pragmatism

As a philosophical basis, pragmatism was appropriate to this study and to the nature of the research problem under investigation because it permitted a combination of both quantitative and qualitative research. Its pluralistic approach to derive knowledge about the problem is the philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies (Creswell, 2014). The researcher emphasised the interrelationship between beliefs (perceptions) and experiences in acquiring information from different sources and recognised the co-existence of subjective and objective realities instead of separating them into divided camps. Furthermore, pragmatism focuses on the areas of compatibility between quantitative and qualitative research, and between positivism and social constructivism.

1.13.1.2 Research approach

As the third methodological movement, the mixed methods research approach has been progressively recognised over the past two decades (Cameron, 2011; Ma, 2012; Molina-Azorin, 2016). In this study, a mixed methods approach consisting of quantitative PIMRS questionnaires followed by a qualitative semi-structured interviews and

document reviews were used to gather data, because the research questions of the study were addressed with the help of relevant data gathered by these methods. Quantitative and qualitative data were merged after the separate data gathering and analysis of the two approaches.

1.13.1.3 Research strategy

The research in this study was based on an explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy in which the collection of quantitative data preceded the qualitative data: the latter was used to complement the quantitative results. The rationale for using an explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy was to build on the advantages of each approach to grasp the phenomenon under investigation more adequately than was possible using either approach on its own (Yin, 2012). Moreover, an explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy provides deeper insight and richer information on a researched phenomenon (principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL practices). Further, it allows analysis and discussion of a combined and sequential data set.

1.13.2 Research methods

Research methods can be described as "techniques that engage the types of data collection, analysis, and interpretation that researchers propose for their studies" (Creswell, 2014:15). Research methods should be planned based on the type of data required to answer the posed research questions (Creswell, 2012). In this study, quantitative and qualitative data were gathered sequentially. The quantitative data were used to address research questions 1, 2, and 3, and the qualitative data were used to address research questions 4, 5 and 6, and to complement the results of quantitative data. Quantitative data were collected from principals, teachers and supervisors using PIMRS questionnaires. Qualitative data were collected from head principals and resident supervisors using interview guides. Additionally, document reviews were carried out to gather relevant data regarding the IL practices of principals of the sampled schools. With regard to techniques of data analysis, the gathered quantitative

and qualitative data were analysed using the computer software SPSS, version 29 and ATLASti, version 9 respectively.

1.13.3 Research site

The FDRE has 10 autonomous regional states; namely Afar; Amhara; Benishangul-Gumz; Gambella; Harrari; Oromia; Sidama; SNNP; Somali; and Tigray, and two city administrations: AACA and Dire Dawa City Administration (DDCA). The research site of the study is AACA. AACA is the capital of FDRE and is one of the biggest urban hubs in sub-Saharan Africa with a population of more than 5 million. AACA is administered by the city council and organised into 10 sub-cities: Addis Ketema, Akaki-Kality, Arada, Bole, Gullele, Kirkos, Kolfe-Keranyo, Lideta, Nifa-Silk and Yeka, and 117 woredas (districts).

1.13.4 Target and research population of the study

The target population of this study was all public secondary school principals and vice-principals[1], and the research population was all public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA. The principals were the focus (target) of the study (i.e., they were the researched) and were instructional leaders in their schools; teachers were implementers of classroom instructional practices; and sub-city supervisors were the immediate supporters, controllers, and promoters of classroom instructional practices and IL.

1.14 THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE OF THE STUDY

Under the quantitative phase of the study, sample, sample size, and sampling techniques; instrumentation and data-collection methods; pilot test; and validity and reliability of quantitative data were treated. Moreover, the data-collection procedures and techniques of quantitative data analysis are discussed below.

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[11]For the sake of brevity, these are grouped under the name principals going forward in the thesis

1.14.1 Sample, sample size, and sampling techniques for the quantitative phase

To select a sample school from each sub-city of AACA, as a criterion, all public secondary schools with principals and supervisors who had served for at least two years in those schools were listed on pieces of paper which were cut up and placed in containers. Sample schools were selected from each sub-city by using the simple random sampling technique by drawing one school name from the container. The 10 selected schools, one from each sub-city, were used as the sampled schools.

All the principals in each sampled school were selected as informants for the study, so the total number of sampled principals in 10 sampled schools was 40 (100%). Moreover, to select the sampled teachers, the formula devised by Bartlett et al. (cited in Taherdoost,2017:237) was used. Using this formula, out of 4 222 teachers in public secondary schools in AACA in the 2019/20 school year (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019), 350 teachers from the ten sampled schools were chosen to be included in the study.Using the simple random sampling technique, the sampled teachers were selected from each department and from teachers with at least three years experience in their respective schools. The reason for focusing on experienced teachers is that they had rich information and well-established perceptions about their principals' IL practices. Finally, in each sub-city education office, there are three types of supervisors (languages, natural sciences, and social sciences). The total number of supervisors in the 10 sampled schools was 30. The researcher selected 30 (100%) supervisors for the study using the convenience sampling technique. More about sample size and sampling techniques is provided in sub-section 4.6.1 of Chapter 4.

1.14.2 Instrumentation and data-collection methods

The PIMRS survey questionnaires (principal, teacher and supervisor forms) were used to collect data from study informants (principals, teachers and supervisors) on the phenomenon of principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL practices. The procedures of quantitative data collection are clarified in sub-section 4.6.5 of Chapter 4 of this study.

1.14.3 Pilot test

A pilot test of the instruments of data collection such as a questionnaire or an interview is done before gathering data for the study. According to Wright, Courtney and Crowther (2002), one of the advantages of a pilot test is to recognise the possible difficulties in the data-collection instruments which allow the researcher to rethink about the methods and instruments prior to using them in the actual study. Moreover, a pilot test is used to ensure the effectiveness of the data-collection instrument. The pilot test of all PIMRS questionnaires were further explained in sub-section 4.6.3 of Chapter 4 of this study.

1.14.4 Validity and reliability of quantitative data

Quantitative research involves ensuring reliability and validity of the research instruments and the findings (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012).

i.   Validity of the PIMRS questionnaires

All three types of validity (content, construct and criterion) are "potentially relevant with respect to the three forms of PIMRS, since they are served for multiple functions: evaluation of the principal needs assessment and research" (Hallinger & Wang, 2015:65). The researcher used two, content and construct validity to ensure the accuracy of all forms of the PIMRS instrument.

ii.   Reliability of the PIMRS questionnaires

There are diverse tests or methods for evaluating internal consistency of the three forms of the PIMRS questionnaire. The internal consistency test of Cronbach (1976) was a suitable method for evaluating the internal consistency of the PIMRS principal and supervisor forms. Therefore, the researcher used Cronbach's test to evaluate the reliability of these forms. On the other hand, the generalisability theory test was used to measure the internal consistency of PIMRS teacher and supervisor survey forms.

The quantitative data collected from quantitative phase of the study were analysed using statistical techniques. Accordingly, biographical data of respondents were analysed using descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages), and the PIMRS

data collected from respondents were analysed using descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) and inferential statistics (t-tests) by entering the data into the computer software package of SPSS, version 27. Sub-section 4.6.6 of Chapter 4 of this study describes the techniques of quantitative data analysis in detail.

1.15 THE QUALITATIVE PHASE OF THE STUDY

1.15.1 Sample, sample size and sampling techniques

For the qualitative phase, the head principal and the resident supervisor of each sampled school used for quantitative phase were selected using purposive sampling. Accordingly, from the 10 sampled schools, a total of 10 head principals and 10 resident supervisors were selected for semi-structured interviews. All the interviewed head principals and resident supervisors had at least two years experience in their current schools. The researcher purposely focused on the head principals and resident supervisors to obtain rich information for the study, because the head principals are the chief executive officers and instructional leaders, and resident supervisors are the immediate supporters, controllers, and promoters of classroom instructional practices and IL in their schools.

1.15.2 Instrumentation and qualitative data-collection methods

For the qualitative phase of data collection, two data-gathering instruments, namely, semi-structured interview guides and document review checklists were used to collect data from study informants on the phenomenon of principals' IL practices. Therefore, the interview guide items were anchored in the research questions of the study, and the main themes raised by the quantitative PIMRS surveys to gain rich information and support the quantitative results. The alignment of the interview items with the research questions was checked by experts at the Addis Ababa University, before the questions were used. Based on their comments, the items were modified or replaced by other items where necessary. The association between the research questions and the corresponding interview items are indicated in Table 5.9 in Chapter 5.

1.15.3 Qualitative data-collection procedures

The second phase was a qualitative approach that used semi-structured interviews and document review. The data gathered using qualitative methods were used to triangulate and complement the data obtained from PIMRS survey respondents in addressing research questions 1, 2 and 3 by quantitative phase, and answering and elaborating on research questions 4, 5 and 6. After the quantitative data analysis was terminated and consent was obtained from the purposely selected head principals and resident supervisors, individual interviews were conducted with the participants during office hours. The interview lasted about 60 minutes. Then, qualitative data from interviewees through field notes and transcripts from the audio recordings were organised for analysis.

Finally, to cross-check the association between the results of the PIMRS survey and semi-structured interviews, in each sampled school, a number of relevant school-based and MoE documents used by principals during their IL practices were selected and reviewed using document review checklists.

1.15.4 Trustworthiness of qualitative data

Trustworthiness refers to strength of the qualitative data, richness, honesty, authenticity and depth (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). It also minimizes bias and is the most practical way of achieving greater validity in qualitative method (Cohen et al., 2011). According to Okeke (2017), trustworthiness is at the heart of a qualitative research study and deals with four criteria including credibility; dependability; confirmability; and transferability. In this study, the trustworthiness of the findings of qualitative data collected from individual semi-structured interviews with head principals and resident supervisors was ensured by using the criteria of credibility; dependability; confirmability; and transferability.

1.15.5 Techniques of qualitative data analysis

In this study, qualitative data were obtained from semi-structured interviews with head principals and resident supervisors, and a review of documents related to IL practices in

the sampled schools. Interviews were audio-recorded so data could be transcribed for analysis. The participants' responses were transformed into a transcript. Then the transcript was summarised. The original and summarized transcripts of each interview were returned to each individual participant for review and comments. The summary was revised based on the comments and amendments were made where necessary. The qualitative data were analysed through thematic analysis using a computer software package, ATLAS ti, version 9. On the other hand, a number of school-based and MoE relevant documents used by the school principals during their IL practices were reviewed in terms of a document review checklist.

Finally, the findings of qualitative data were merged with the results of quantitative data and interpreted and discussed in relation to relevant literature and the researcher's personal experiences presented under Section 5.6 in Chapter 5.

1.16 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research scholars (e.g., Creswell, 2012; McMillan, 2012) established that the ethical considerations in research process include anonymity or privacy; confidentiality; being respectful to the research site and the participants; refraining from deceptive practices; assessment of risks; granting data access and ownership; and obtaining permission and informed consent.

After obtaining clearance for research ethics from College of Education Research Ethics Committee of University of South Africa (UNISA) for gathering both quantitative and qualitative data, a request letter was written and signed by the researcher accompanied by the ethical clearance and a letter from the director of the UNISA-Ethiopia Regional Learning Centre. The researcher requested permission from AACAEB to undertake research in sampled schools in AACA. After getting the permission letter from AACAEB, the researcher disseminated copies of the letter to each sub-city education office and sampled school, and then personally contacted each sampled school's principal to clearly acquaint them with the aim of the study and to obtain their consent. Then scheduled times were set with the principal of each sampled school based on the timetable for collecting quantitative data.

In this study, the researcher supplied informants with explanations and clarification of the intentions of the study and how he would guarantee confidentiality and anonymity of the data that they provided, by not referring by their names or schools in the final report. The particulars of the detailed actions taken to meet the declared ethical requirements are provided in Section 4.8 of Chapter 4.

1.17 CHAPTER DIVISION

This study is divided into six chapters:

Chapter 1: Orientation

Chapter 1 focuses on the introduction, background, problem statement, motivations, and aim and objectives of the study. It also describes the significance, theoretical framework, conceptual framework, assumptions, scope, and limitations of the study. In addition, in this chapter, the operational definition of terms, and research design and methods are introduced.

Chapter 2: Literature review

Chapter 2 presents a review of the existing literature available onthe topic of the study in relation to the contextual framework which describes the current situation of education sector, education policy and practices, and IL practices in Ethiopia. Furthermore, the chapter clarifies the conceptualisation and historical development of IL. Moreover, it focuses on IL roles of the principal and accountability of principals towards their IL roles. Furthermore, it presents the theoretical framework of the study which contains the theories of IL and the IL model of the study. Finally, the chapter explores international, African and Ethiopian empirical evidence related to the topic of study.

Chapter 3: Conceptual framework of the study

Chapter 3 centres on the variables of the study. It also presents the self-perceptions of principals and the perceptions of other role players (teachers and supervisors) on IL practices of principals. Moreover, the chapter discusses the differences between

principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions on IL practices of principals. Finally, it deals with the challenges principals experience in the practice of IL and their possible solutions.

Chapter 4: Research design and methods

Chapter 4 provides the research design used in the study including paradigm, approaches, and strategy of the research. It also describes the research methods, research site, and target and research population of the study. Furthermore, it sets out the quantitative phase of the study which comprises sample and sampling techniques, instrumentation and data-collection methods, pilot test, validity and reliability, procedures of data collection, and techniques of quantitative data analysis. Moreover, the chapter explains the qualitative phase of the study which includes sample and sampling techniques, instrumentation and data-collection methods, procedures of data collection, trustworthiness, and techniques of qualitative data analysis. Finally, it presents the ethical considerations addressed while collecting both quantitative and qualitative data.

Chapter 5: Data presentation, analysis and interpretation

Chapter 5 deals with the outcomes of the research process and reports on the findings from the data collection. It describes the return rate of survey questionnaires. Furthermore, the chapter shows the presentation and analysis of data obtained from quantitative phase which includes respondents' biographical data and respondents' perceptions on IL practices of principals and comparisons of their scores. Moreover, it presents an analysis of data obtained from qualitative phase which contains interview participants' codes, participants' biographical data, and data obtained from semi-structured interview participants and document reviews. Furthermore, the chapter discusses the mixing of data obtained from qualitative and qualitative phases.

Chapter 6: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 6 provides a summary of the research which includes key empirical outcomes of the study. It also presents the conclusions drawn from the empirical outcomes and

literature review, and recommendations advised. Moreover, the chapter describes the contributions of the study. The limitations of the study are discussed.The researcher suggests avenues for further research and reflects on his experiences with the research.

1.18CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter introduced the reader to the problem of the study principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL practices of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. It placed the research problem in the context of the current situation of principals in public secondary schools in the city and outlined some of the reasons the research is relevant at this time. It also laid down the foundation for this study by explaining the problem statement, the aim and objectives, the significance, the theoretical framework on which the study was founded, the conceptual framework that showed the relationship among the variables of the study, the assumptions, the scope, and the limitations of the study. Moreover, the operational definition of key concepts, the research design and methods, and the chapter division are included. In the next chapter, the literature review related to the topic under investigation is presented.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides a general description of the literature on the IL practices of principals in order to allow the researcher and the audiences to obtain a superior theoretical understanding of this study. The purpose of this study was to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model.

The chapter has eight sections. Section 1 deals with issues in relation to contextual framework of the study which encompasses a general idea of the current situation of education sector, education policy and practices, and IL practices in Ethiopia. It also explains the typical IL practices in the study area. Section 2 outlines the conceptualisation of IL. Section 3 describes the historical development of IL. Section 4 points out the IL roles of the principal. Section 5 presents the accountability of principals toward their IL roles which includes allocation and use of IL time by the principals, and problems of accountability in principals' IL. Section 6 of this chapter is concerning theoretical framework of the study with the following sub-sections, theories of IL, theoretical basis for the study, and IL model for the study. Section 7 focuses on the empirical evidence related to the study which comprises international, continental and national literatures of various relevant studies that have been conducted recently. Finally, Section 8 summarises the chapter.

2.2 CONTEXTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

2.2.1 Current situation of education sector in Ethiopia

The FDRE is a country found in Eastern Africa, specially located on the Horn of Africa, and occupies an area of land, about 1,127,127 square kilometres, with a population density of 86 people per square kilometres. It shares borders on the west with Sudan, and South Sudan, the north with Eritrea, the east with Djibouti and Somalia, and the South with Kenya. The country has a population of over 110,000,000 (the second most populous country in Africa, after Nigeria), of which 49% are men and 51% are women

with an annual population growth rate of 2.6% (CSA, 2018). Almost 84% of the population lives in rural areas with a high rate of migration to towns and cities creating an annual urban population growth rate of 4.4% (CSA, 2018). The FDRE is an ancient independent country with a remarkably rich linguistic and cultural diversity; the country has its own writing system "The Sava Letters", numerical system "The Geez Numeral", and calendar "The Ethiopian Calendar", which is eight years behind the Gregorian Calendar. There are over 80 diverse ethnic groups in FDRE today. FDRE is one of the countries in the world with a federal structure. The country has ten autonomous regional states (Afar, Amhara, Benishangul-Gumz, Gambella, Harrari, Oromia, Sidama, SNNP, Somali, and Tigray) and two city administrations (Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa). The capital of the country is Addis Ababa, which is one of the biggest urban hubs in sub-Saharan Africa with a population of more than 5 million.

The FDRE government planned the ETP in 1994 and its newly designed EDRM (2018-30) in 2018. The main goal of the policy is the cultivation of citizens with an all-round education capable of playing a conscious and active role in the economic, social, and political life of the country at different levels. In the current situation of FDRE education, the most important objective is delegating powers to regional states. The fundamental nature of decentralisation in the education sector is the assurance of coverage, access, relevance, equity, fairness and quality of education. In most cases, decentralising power to regional states has been a significantly effective device for ensuring and sustaining improvement in the requirement of education. The former 4-4-2-2 education structure of FDRE was changed by the new structure comprised of the General Education (GE) that was arranged into pre-primary, primary, and secondary education (FDRE MoE, 2018). This education structure provides eight years of primary schooling and four years of secondary education. The official pre-primary, primary and secondary school ages are 3-6 years, 7-14 years, and 15-18 years respectively. The four years of first cycle primary education (Grades 1 to 4), four years of second cycle primary education (Grades 5 to 8), based on their performance in regional examination, Primary Education Leaving Certificate Examination, which is given after Grade 8 to certify completion of primary education. Students are then transferred to two years of first-cycle general secondary education (Grades 9 &10) and, upon finishing this, students are streamed into a two-

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year second-cycle of secondary education (Grades 11&12) as preparatory education for higher education entrance, based on the achievement at the completion of Grade 10. At the end of Grade 12, students sit for the EHEECE and those who attain the minimum requirements will be able to access higher education and those who did not attain the minimum requirement will be streamed into Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) or Colleges of Education at certificate or diploma levels. The EHEECE is conducted by the National Educational Assessment and Examinations Agency (NEAEA). The first twelve years of education that is termed GE is free for all students. The higher education sector (universities and colleges) has a cost-sharing arrangement in that students are charged fees (MoE, 2018).

Primary education is provided in nationality (mother tongue) languages, in accordance with the policy (FDRE MoE, 1994), which is cognizant of the pedagogical advantage of a child learning in their mother tongue and the rights of nationalities to encourage the use of their languages. In order to build the necessary preparedness, nations and nationalities can either learn in their native language or choose from among those carefully selected based on their diffusion across the nation and outside. The local nationality language is used in teacher preparation programmes for kindergarten and primary school. The teaching of Amharic as a national language is required. Secondary, higher education, and second cycle primary education are all taught in English with the exception of Amhara, Oromia, and Tigray. For cultural and international relations, students can select and learn at least one language of their nationality and one foreign language. From Grade 1, English is taught as a subject. In relation to education expenditure, FDRE government has given a high priority to education at all levels and for its quality improvement. The high budget distributions to the sector are a reflection of the strong commitment to educational development since 1994, which improved progressively to reach more than 25% of total government expenditures, and 5.5% of GDP in 2018/19, and both of these percentages are high relative to per capita income by international standards (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019).

Within the framework of the policy, the FDRE government established the Education Sector Development Programme (ESDP) in 1996/97, a 5-year long-term plan dedicated

to the comprehensive development of the education sector over a 20-year period, which ended in 2020. The ESDP converted the policy statement into action by offering a sector-wide execution framework. To date the programme has had four phases. ESDP I covered the first five years, 1997/98–2001/02. ESDP II and ESDP III covered the respective periods of 2002/03–2004/05 and 2005/06–2009/10. ESDP IV incorporated within the third five years, 2010/11-2014/15, and finally ESDP V began in 2015/16 and extended through 2019/20. Moreover, the government is dedicated to the attainment of the worldwide Sustainable Development Goals, and country national plans, the Growth and Transformational Plans (GTP I and II) (FDRE MoE, 2014:68). GTP I (2010/11-2014/15) and GTP II (2015/16-2019/20) aimed at refining and ensuring the quality and efficiency of education at all levels. The policy also emphasised the quality of education. To address this issue and eliminate the known weak points of schooling at both the primary and secondary school levels, in 2007, MoE developed a General Education Quality Improvement Package (GEQIP) that comprises six programmes: School Improvement Programme (SIP); Teacher Development Programme (TDP); Curriculum Improvement programme (CIP);Civic and Ethical Education Programme (CEEP); Information Communications Technology programme (ICTP); and Leadership and Management Programme (LAMP) designed. The SIP focused on four key domains: teaching and learning; a conducive teaching and learning environment; school leadership and management; and community participation. In this regard, both GTP plans clearly underline that GEQIP will be fully implemented and its subsequent impact in improving student achievement will be verified through regular monitoring and evaluation and National Learning Assessment (NLA) (2012: 10-13) to be conducted every three years. Furthermore, the policy stipulates clearly that "education management will be decentralised to produce the necessary conditions to expand, enrich and enhance the relevance, quality, accessibility and equity of education and training". The quality of education is determined by, among other things, the existence of competent and committed school principals. This can be ensured by developing appropriate and relevant standards for the principals and letting them pass through the assessment processes to meet the set standards. Aware of these facts, the Ministry of Education prepared standards for school principals that would ensure their continuous

endeavours to meet the National Professional Standards for School Principals (FDRE MoE, 2013).

2.2.2 Education policy and practices in Ethiopia

Five ESDPs successively from 1997 to 2020 as ESDP I, II, III, IV and V were established as approaches for enabling the execution of the education policy. All ESDPs recognised education management/ leadership as one approach to executing the policy. ESDP I, II, and III had been extraordinarily effective in escalating access and moving Grades 1–8 (primary education) towards the goal of universal primary education by 2014/15, in agreement with the government's promise to meet the UN Education for All targets and Millennium Development Goals. ESDP I and II were completed in 2001/02 and 2004/05 respectively, with extraordinary achievement in increasing admission to primary schooling. The ESDP I target of increasing primary enrolment from 3.7 million in 1996/97 to 7 million in 2001/02 was exceeded and enrolment reached 8.1 million, showing an average enrolment progress rate of 12.8%. ESDP II and III sustained this trend, with annual average enrolment progress rates of 11.7%. Thereafter, primary enrolment grew to 13.5 million in 2005/06 and 15.8 million in 2009/10. ESDP IV and V escalated the primary and secondary enrolment to 18 million in 2015/16 and 26 million in 2019/20 (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019).

In relation to the success in the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) and the Net Enrolment Rate (NER), over the period 1995/96–1999/2000, the GER for primary education improved from 34.0% to 53.9%, and the NER, from 19.0% to 40% (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2002; World Bank, 2005). Grades 9–12 (secondary school enrolment as a whole) also grew rapidly after 1994, growing approximately fivefold: from 371 000 in 1994/95 to 1.7 million in 2009/10. The GER for Grades 9 and 10 (first cycle of secondary education), rose from only 12% in 1998/99 to 38% in 2010/11; for Grades 11 and 12 (second cycle of secondary education), from 3% in 2002/03 to 8% in 2010/11; and for Grades 9–12 (secondary education), from 7% in 1994/95 to 24% in 2010/11 (FDRE MoE, 2005, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2011, 2018).

By 2010, good progress was made toward providing universal access to Grades 1–4 (first cycle of primary education), but only half of the relevant age group was enrolled in the Grades 5–8 (second cycle of primary education). The rapid rise in enrolment was assisted by arise in the number of primary and secondary schools between 1996 and 2009; the former increased from 10 394 to 26 951 (61%) and the latter, from 369 to 1 335 (72%) (FDRE MoE, 2010). Similarly, the staffing rate was more significant than before, increasing from 61.6% to 91.3%, and the net staffing rate rose from 52.2% to 77.5% (FDRE MoE, 2007).

The aim is, first, to advance access to quality primary education so that all children, youth and adults acquire the competencies, skills and values that allow them to fully participate in the development of FDRE, and second, to sustain equitable access to quality secondary education as the foundation and connection to the demand of the economy for middle- and higher-leverage workers, according to FDRE MoE (2010) Additionally, the MoE places a great priority on the professional growth of principals in charge of education at various levels in order to maintain quality. According to ESDP IV, educational leaders are professionals with the requisite training to demonstrate proper professional ethics and the knowledge and leadership abilities required to accomplish school goals and objectives (FDRE MoE, 2010). An improvement in student achievement through a consistent focus on the enhancement of the teaching and learning process and the transformation of the school into a motivating and child-friendly learning environment is one of the challenges facing the Ethiopian education sector that needed to be addressed in the plan of ESDP IV (2010/2011-2014/2015), according to the evaluation by the FDRE MoE (2005). School principals are expected to concentrate on implementing the curriculum, training the staff, collaborating with the community to enhance the school's achievements, and providing a supportive teaching and learning environment in the school in order to solve this difficulty in the improvement of student achievement (FDRE MoE, 2013). Nationally there were 3 393 secondary schools, with more than 2% found in Addis Ababa in 2016/17. One of the problems identified in the ESDP IV until 2016/17 was that the national GER of secondary education (Grades 9–12) only rose to 30.01%. This indicates that nationally there were many children who were not completing primary education and proceeding to secondary education with

AACA having the highest GER of 80.6%. Nationally, the NER of secondary education (Grades 9–12) was found to be 24.6%. AACA had the highest NER at 63.4%, showing that this was the region with most students enrolled in their relevant age group. The Gender Parity Index (GPI) for secondary education (Grades 9-12) did not meet the ESDP IV target of 94% in all regions and at national level. Only Addis Ababa had a GPI higher than 94%. This indicator is useful for setting minimum standards throughout the country and ensuring a certain level of equality around the country. In FDRE, the standard set for pupil teacher ratio (PTR) was 40 at secondary level. However, a low or high PTR alone does not determine the quality of education because the quality of education depends on several factors such as mode of delivery (classroom instruction), commitment, qualification of teachers, the supply of educational materials, and quality of leadership. The PTR in secondary grades was 26 in 2016/17; the PTR in first cycle of secondary education was higher compared to the PTR in second cycle of secondary education. Nationally, the Pupil Section Ratio (PSR) was at 57 for Grades 9-12 (secondary education) and it was higher in the first cycle than the second cycle. The PSR was lowest in AACA indicating that students in this region had better access to classroom facilities and were in a more conducive learning environment (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2017).

On the other hand, ESDP V (2015/16-2019/20) affirmed that "the quality of school administration and human resource management is a critical encouraging cause for effective teaching and quality school management that will create large influences for student learning achievement through innovation, knowledge sharing, and the identification and reproduction of best practices" (FDRE MoE, 2015:23). With regard to the more recent indicators and achievements in secondary education in the ESDP V (2015/16-2019/20) targets, according to FDRE MoE, ESAA (2019), secondary school enrolment had expanded rapidly in the previous 20 years, with an average annual growth rate of 7.6% in the last five consecutive years. The national GER for secondary education (Grades 9-12) was 32.0% in 2018/19; this indicates that transition from primary to secondary education is low. However, the GER increased by 1.5% from the previous year. AACA had the highest GER at 87.6% (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). Transition from first cycle secondary education (Grades 9 and 10) to second cycle

secondary education (Grades 11 and 12) is low, likely due to high numbers of students joining TVET and other training centres. Approximately 80% of students from the first cycle secondary education are expected to join TVET and other training centres, which is clearly reflected in the drop in GER between the two cycles (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). AACA has a GER over 100% for first cycle secondary education which may be the result of students enrolling outside of the official school admission age.

Moreover, according to FDRE MoE, ESAA (2019), the GER trend over time, starting from 2008/09 to 2018/19 showed there had been incremental improvements in enrolment in both cycles, other than a decline in Grades 9 and 10 enrolments between 2010/11 and 2012/13. The ESDP V, GER target for Grades 9 and 10 for 2017/18 was not met. Grades 11 and 12 GER also showed a slow increase over the time period. Nationally, the ESDP V target for NER for Grades 9-12 was 25.3%. Moreover, the NER in 2018/19 showed a significant change from the previous year. The AACA had the highest NER at 69.8%, showing that most students in this region enrolled at the official school age. Regionally, only AACA and Tigray region met the NER targets for 2018/19 for both genders, but the targets were missed nationally (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019).

The GPI for Grades 9-12 did not meet the 2018/19 target of 0.98 at the national level. However, AACA and Amhara region perform beyond the target value (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). Trends show minimal change in GPI of Grades 9 and 10, and an increase between Grades 11 and 12 compared to the Grades 9 and 10, especially in the first five years from 2010/11. By the end of ESDP V, 2019/20, the target is to reach complete GPI of 1. This will mean equal enrolment shares, with respect to school age population, between males and females. GPI trends over the last four years shows that there has been a slight decrease in both cycles, compared to the substantial increment from 2010/11 to 2014/15. Moreover, nationally, the PTR standard set for secondary education is 40. The decrease in PTR shows the better the distribution of teachers with respect to students (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). The PTR in secondary grades is 22.5 in 2018/19. Like the previous year's result; the PTR in first cycle of secondary education is larger than the PTR in the second cycle. The trend in PTR indicates that it has been declining since 2009/10. The decrease was largest between 2009/10 and 2010/11 and

between 2017/18 and 2018/19. In addition, nationally, in 2018/19, the secondary education (Grades 9-12) PSR was 56.8, which was a 0.8-point decline from the previous year. It is higher in the first cycle compared to the second cycle. PSR is lowest in AACA.

With regard to teachers, ESDP V aims to transform teaching into a profession of choice and to ensure that teachers are of a high quality and appropriately qualified (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). The analysis of the teaching task force in the Ethiopian education sector has been carried out at both regional and national level. In 2018/19, there was a total of 688 536 teachers in the education system (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). Out of this, there are 116 345 teachers working in secondary schools, 502 738 in primary schools, and 69 453 in pre-primary settings. There are now 8.7% more teachers overall than there were last year. Of these teachers, 598 648 (87%) are employed in public schools, which is as predicted. There are 116 345 teachers at secondary schools, the bulk of whom, or around 90.4%, are employed in public institutions. At 51.2%, AACA has the highest percentage of teachers used in non-public schools of any region. In the 2018–2019 school year, there were 4 222 teachers working in the city's public secondary schools.

The Ethiopian Teachers, Principals and Supervisors Development Guideline (FDRE MoE, 2013) states that all types of schools should be run by principals who are suitably qualified and trained. As a result, the LAMP helps principals improve their leadership and management abilities in primary schools. The new LAMP training provides both theoretical knowledge and practical expertise in the key areas of supervision, such as ongoing evaluation and classroom observation for teacher support. The training that school principals get will be used to create structures and procedures at the school level that encourage shared leadership, where everyone is accountable for the general climate of their school as well as for the learning of their students. In order to reduce gender-based violence and harassment in schools, principals are responsible for ensuring that the code of conduct is followed by the school and that all teachers are aware of it. Any teacher who wants to develop leadership skills should get assistance from the institution and instruction from the regional network of school supervisors.

Primary and secondary school principals are required to hold bachelor's degrees with a specialisation in one of the school topics and to have taught for at least three years, according to the Ethiopian Teachers, Principals and Supervisors Development Guideline (FDRE MoE, 2013:4). According to Gurmu (2018:27), "Originally, both primary and secondary school principals' preparations were designed to be training of PGDSL in two summers which they attend after their recruitment to the post". While requirements for secondary school principals changed to having a master's degree in school leadership a year later in 2014 (FDRE MoE, 2014), training of primary principals continued as before. Nationally, in secondary schools, there are 3 433 principals and 2 880 vice-principals. In AACA, there were 66 public secondary schools in 2018/19. Each school is managed by one principal and three vice-principals with teaching and learning affairs, teachers' and leaders' development affairs, and co-curricular activities affairs. The city has a total of 264 principals (66 principals and 198 vice-principals) and 87 supervisors in its public secondary schools in 2018/2019.

In terms of the accessibility of computers for multimedia instruction, 78.7% of schools have them available, although over 23% of them are broken. The majority of secondary schools in AACA have internet access (76%), although just 21.5% of secondary schools nationwide have access to the internet (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019).

The school grant budget, which is complementary to the SIP component has been designed to support school teaching and learning process so as to enhance students learning outcome (FDRE MoE, 2010). After the amounts have been determined based on each school's student data, it is distributed annually and directly to schools. According to FDRE MoE, ESAA (2019), the amounts of school grant budget allocated to schools have increased substantially. However, for 2013/14, the released amount was the lowest compared to previous years. This is because 2013/14 was the end or transition year for the completion of the GEQIP I (2008/09-2012/13) and the preparation period for the next GEQIP II (2013/14-2017/18) budget at the national level.

Regarding national examinations (EGSELCE and EHEECE), in 2018/19, 68.1% of students received a score of 2.00 and above, the pass mark for the EGSELCE. This is an increase in the same statistics for 2017/18, where 64.8% of students received over

2.00, but a decline since the 70.4% of students in 2016/17 and the 73.9% of students in 2015/16. In the 2018/19 school year, about 62% of students passed: 71.5% of boys and 64.1% of girls (FDRE MoE, 2010). In 2016/17, 97.55% of students received a score over 2.00. This is a slight decline on the same statistics for 2014/15, where 99% of students received over 2.00, but a small increase since the 97.4% of 2015/16. On the other hand, a total of 319 264 students sat for Grade 12 examinations (EHEECE) in 2018/19, 308 786 students (43.2%) scored over 350 (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2016). In 2016/17, 47.27% of students received over 350, which is the pass mark for the EHECEE. This shows a decline since the 49.5% achieved in 2015/16.

2.2.3 Development of IL practices in Ethiopian context

In the nation's overall development effort, education is given top priority because it is crucial to human growth. However, it takes the right guidance to start a new procedure and change the areas of concern. For this, the FDRE developed a thorough ETP. The policy covers general and detailed goals, implementation plans, formal and informal education from early childhood to higher education, and special education. Focusing on the acquisition of scientific information and praxis, it stresses the development of problem-solving skills and culture in the curriculum's structure and methodology (FDRE MoE, 1994). Additionally, it mandates that proper connections be made between education, training, research, and development through coordinated involvement of the pertinent organisations. The policy takes into account the way that education is structured in relation to student profile development, educational measurement and evaluation, media of instruction and language teaching at different levels, as well as teacher recruitment, training, methodology, organisation, professional ethics and career development.

In order to improve the teaching and learning process and advance education, careful consideration is also given to the provision of and appropriate use of educational facilities, technology, materials, environments, organisation and management (FDRE MoE, 1994). Regarding administration and management of the educational system, there are indications of the development of a decentralised, effective, and professionally coordinated participatory system. Additionally, it is claimed that in order to promote

equity and educational quality, the financing of education must be fair, effective, and suitable. Overall, the ETP aims to raise citizens who are endowed with a humane outlook, a sense of national responsibility and democratic values, as well as the necessary productive, creative, and appreciative skills to effectively contribute to the advancement of society and the efficient use of resources and the environment.

Leadership in education is a crucial component of modern education in Ethiopia. It was also noted that the introduction of modern education in Ethiopia facilitated the growth of IL. Nearly a century ago, Ethiopia implemented its first modern education system. However, the education and training available during these lengthy years did not have any major positive effects on people's lives and the growth of the country (World Bank, 2010). The vast majority of people's lives have not changed as a result of the education provided, which has not been able to address the issues facing farmers and pastoralists.

The basic issues with the Ethiopian educational system included unequal access, a lack of quality and relevance, and a persistent decline in standard and quality (Pankhurst, 1999; UNESCO, 2004; World Bank, 2005). The purpose of the school system was constrained from its inception until its subsequent expansion after 1942. As a result, there were few schools, and the student-to-population ratio was small. Furthermore, the rural population did not profit from the education system because most schools were found in the major towns and cities. Due to this injustice, there were discrepancies in educational opportunities for women, and in urban and rural areas and regions. Even then, the instruction provided in this tiny number of schools was not problem-oriented, was overly focused on the outside world, and barely had a local or national orientation. In general, the issues were complex and intertwined.

As long as education has existed in Ethiopia, principalship has been a key consideration. To be more specific, principalship began with the spread of Christianity in the fourth century AD, under the reign of King Ezana of the Aksumite kingdom (Pankhurst, 1999). As a result, when the Menelik II School opened in 1908 and the western-style education system was officially introduced to Ethiopia, it provided one of the best possibilities to work in educational administration (Teshome, 1979). When the

nation's first principal was assigned to a school with a western-style curriculum more than a century and a half ago, the evolution of school leadership in the country began (Gurmu, 2018). Lemlem (2010) further stated that while education plays a crucial role in sustaining societal health by fostering economic growth, wealth creation, and development, modern education actually only got off the ground in Ethiopia in the 1940s. It was acknowledged that education is crucial to the nation's fight against poverty. However, there were difficulties in growing an education system that was established and legitimised by the active participation of all the stakeholders who chose to fund and support education development. Numerous studies (e.g., Damtew, 2007; Messay, 2006; Pankhurst, 1999; Tekeste, 2006; UNESCO, 2004; World Bank, 2005) have shown that Ethiopia's educational development was hindered by the existence of subpar instruction, which was brought on by unsuccessful school leadership throughout the educational system. Principalship in schools was consequently one of the crucial administrative posts that demanded focus on such complex issues aiming at quality learning outcomes at all levels. Foreign principals predominated early on in Ethiopia's principalship history (Ahmed, 2006). According to ICDR (1999), foreign nationals from France, Britain, Sweden, Canada, Egypt, and India were appointed as school principals in all government schools in Ethiopia that provided education before and after the Italian occupation because they were unable to run their institutions in accordance with the culture and values of the local populace. Because of this, the education that was provided was out of place in the society and was unable to address the country's long-term concerns. Education was given top attention soon after the restoration of independence in late 1941, which led to the opening of schools in various regions of the nation. However, the majority of the teachers and administrators were still immigrants from nations like Britain, the United States, Canada, Egypt, and India. Expats continued to lead both the elementary and secondary schools across Ethiopia until the early part of the 1960s. Indians were given priority for principalship positions back then due to their superior principalship experiences. However, around 1964, a turning point occurred when Ethiopians started to replace expatriates (FDRE MoE, 2002). According to the Ethiopian Teachers, Principals and Supervisors Development Guideline (FDRE MoE, 2013:4), "primary and secondary school principals must have bachelor's and

master's degrees respectively in one of the school subjects and must have taught for at least three years" in order to hold a principalship position across the FDRE. In today's schools, leadership is crucial to improving both overall educational quality and academic accomplishment of students.

According to Gurmu (2018:), the development of school leadership in Ethiopia "grew through seven unique phases: school principalship grown into separate position, Ethiopian substituted expatriate staff, internal principals' preparation introduced, principals' preparation reduced while their task enlarged, principalship deprofessionalised, principals' preparation reemphasised, and finally PGDSL training started". International and national influences played a significant role in forming Ethiopia's school leadership during these stages of its history.

Schools in the FDRE should have professionally prepared principals who provide effective leadership since it is predicted that children will develop more complex and analytical skills as they lay the foundation for their future education and career in the 21st century (FDRE MoE, 2013). Additionally, according to FDRE MoE (2013), efforts to raise student accomplishment can only be successful by enabling instructional leaders to improve their IL practices and educational systems' ability to boost student learning. Principals are chief leaders of education as well as managers of finances and property. By assisting in the establishment of the school's vision and goals, upholding academic standards, assessing student progress, fostering parental participation, and developing learning structures that support learning, principals take the lead in managing the curriculum and instruction. Principals are expected to be present in the classroom and to facilitate learning by giving teachers feedback on their lessons and curricula through clinical supervision and mentorship. Good school leaders prioritise instruction over all other school activities to establish learning communities that support continuous learning and foster learning (MoE, 2013).

Numerous nations devote a sizeable portion of their national wealth to the improvement of their educational systems because they recognise that education is an essential element of economic, social, political, and technical progress. The government of FDRE also spent a significant amount of money on CPD programmes for instructional leaders,

according to FDRE MoE (2007). Since the creation of the ETP (FDRE MoE, 1994), the government has made a number of advancements in education, including the establishment of a set of professional standards for teachers and school administrators as key elements of its strategy for improving and maintaining the calibre of instruction and administration in order to improve student learning outcomes. Being aware of these and other issues, the policy also gives other stakeholders special consideration in order to provide high-quality education across the nation. According to the ETP, educational management will be decentralised to create the necessary conditions to advance the relevance, accessibility, quality and equity of education and training (FDRE MoE, 1994). The GEQIP, which was created by the MoE, consists of about six programmes that will be carried out during the GTP I's first period (2011–2015). Capacity building for school leaders in general and instructional leaders in particular was one of top priorities of the six programmes (FDRE MoE, 2012). These factors were taken into consideration as the MoE developed the NPSSP Guideline, which outlines principals'roles, unifies the profession nationwide, defines the professional practices in a shared language, and clarifies the significance of high-quality school leadership in improving student learning outcomes (FDRE MoE, 2013). Additionally, the FDRE MoE (2013:11) regulation states that Ethiopian school principals must possess the following four competencies: school vision and community leadership, IL, and administrative leadership. As a result, the following competencies are closely related to the IL practice of the principal: having an understanding of the current research on teaching, learning, and children; sharing and distributing accountabilities to provide quality, effectiveness, and coherence across all components of the instructional system (such as curriculum, instructional materials, pedagogy, and student assessment); continuously examining the efficacy of curricular and instructional practices; and cooperating to make appropriate changes that improveresults (FDRE MoE, 2013:11). Additionally, ESDP V (2015/2016-2019/20) placed a strong emphasis on "improved teaching and leadership skills in all schools and correlating with greater teachers' and school leaders' motivations and job satisfaction" (FDRE MoE, 2015:56). Human resource management was found to be a major motivating factor for effective teaching and improving leadership abilities is logically

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oriented to improve teachers' motivation and job satisfaction for quality of school administration (FDRE MoE, 2015).

Despite the positive results witnessed in education access at all grade levels and an emerging series of redevelopment and restructuring programmes in the education system, many studies have stressed the problems that still exist with the IL of principals in Ethiopia. Several factors influence the principals' performance in their IL practices that impact the quality of the education system. Accordingly, some researchers made recommendations that could assist in the improvement of school leadership in general and IL in particular. Gurmu (2018:31-34) made the following suggestions to effectively improve Ethiopia's school principalship. To ensure quality education, FDRE MoE must ensure the appointment of quality leader to positions of school leadership; the FDRE MoE must search for measures to include, in its policies for selection and preparation of school leaders, the concerns of stakeholders regarding policy execution of the school leadership. The FDRE MoE should assess any new leadership development policy measures and ensure that resources are appropriately allocated to protect the country from useless expenditure. The development policies must be primarily concerned with training principals to carry out their duties capably in managing the schools' multi-layered nature. Similarly, Edamo (2018) recommended that school principals need to have knowledge and skills so as to proficiently carry out their tasks.

Tsegaye (2018) suggested that principals desired autonomy to successfully accomplish their roles of IL. Consequently, it is vital for policy-makers to put define and implement an empowerment model to help principals to successfully accomplish their IL roles. To that end, this study focuses on how public secondary school principals in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceived and experienced their IL practices. Furthermore, Gedifew (2020) advised that the FDRE MoE needs to formulate an IL framework for the nation on which curricula can be based. Universities and colleges offering IL courses need to develop their curricula in a manner that can results in the provision of the required skills. The regional bureaus and zonal offices of education should review their recruitment, selection and placement methods to attract capable instructional leaders. Methodical and attitudinal change training should be planned to empower instructional leaders to

understand that IL is a task that has an enormous influence on the development of human capital of the country generally, and education quality specifically. Principals need to plan their individual PD programmes to deal with the organisational and systemic problems they may be exposed to.

In conclusion, in spite of the long history of modern education and positive results witnessed in access to education at all grade levels and an emerging series of restructured programmes in the education system, many studies have stressed the continuing problems with the IL of principals in Ethiopia. Numerous issues impede the principals' performance in their IL practices: lack of principals' knowledge and skills on IL; lack of sufficient assistance from other role players; lack of relevant instructional resources; lack of an IL framework in the country on which the curriculum of IL should be based; low levels of principals' commitment to implement roles and activities of IL; lack of school leaders' accountability requirements on IL practices in context; the absence of relevant curriculum to develop IL; and lack of criteria for instructional leaders' recruitment, selection and maintenance schemes in context, that all result in the poor quality of the education system. Consequently, it is apparent that the development of IL practices is an overlooked issue in the education system of Ethiopia.

2.2.4 The typical context in the study area

The FDRE is a country with ten autonomous regional states (Afar, Amhara, Benishangul-Gumz, Gambella, Harrari, Oromia, Sidama, SNNP, Somali, and Tigray) and two city administrations (Addis Ababa and Dire Dawa). The capital of the country is Addis Ababa (Structural name: Addis Ababa City Administration), which is one of the biggest urban hubs in sub-Saharan Africa with a population of more than 5 million. It is the area of this study. According to the ETP, FDRE MoE (1994), the system of education is decentralised, which authorises each of the ten regional states and the two city administrations to take control of the management of the education system including GE, TVET colleges, teacher training colleges, and health professional training colleges in their own regions/ cities. Accordingly, the Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau (AACAEB) is responsible for the management and control of all the pre-primary, primary and secondary schools in the city. In 2018/19, there was a total of

1 548 041 students at several levels in the city. Of these 163 289 were pre-primary students, 505 619 were primary school students, and 1479 47 were secondary school students (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019). Data showed that there was a total of 2 808 schools in the city of which 1 108 were pre-primary, 814 were primary schools, and 310 were secondary schools (Grades 9-12). Of the 310 secondary schools, 66 were public secondary schools. There were also 33 public TVET institutions, one metropolitan university and five public universities and colleges under federal government in the city.

AACAEB has made substantial progress in generating access, endorsing equity, relevance and quality of education at all levels. A number of achievements are recorded, namely, increasing the number of schools; reducing gender disparity; supplying appropriate teaching and learning materials; and enhancing the qualification of teachers, school leaders and supervisors. Yet, challenges continue in the realisation of quality education in accordance with the goals of the ETP (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019). Despite the challenges in the quality of education in secondary education of AACA, some of the improvements in major indicators of quality of education are described below.

According to FDRE MoE (1994), the aim of secondary education (Grades 9-12) is to get students ready to identify their areas of interest in additional education and training and get ready students for higher education or for selecting a career. Secondary education plays a key role in nation-building, including building the moral values and developing a multiethnic society (FDRE MoE, 1994). The enrollment in second cycle secondary education (Grades 11 and 12) is important since graduates from this cycle can either join higher institutions to gain scientific and technical knowledge essential in the labour market or join TVET institutions to learn the trades essential innumerous industries. Second-cycle secondary education enrolments in AACA indicated ups and down during the year (2011/12 to 2016/17). Especially in 2016/17, the enrolment dropped quite substantially. This demands more consideration by concerned bodies.

To deal with the quality education indicators (GER, NER, GPI, PTR and PSR) of secondary schools in AACA in more depth, the official (relevant) age of secondary education is 15-18 years of age. In 2015/16, the Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) for

secondary school boys and girls in AACA indicated a sharp decline to 77.78% for boys and 85.29% for girls in 2015/2016. In 2016/2017, GER indicated a decline to 77.78% for boys and 85.29% for girls. In 2018/19, the GER was 123% for Grades 9 and 10 and 54% for Grades 11 and 12. Both rates exceed the national rates of 49% and 15% (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019). On the other hand, the NER was 67% for Grades 9 and 10, and 36% for Grades 11 and 12, which is likewise comparatively high. Overall, the trend in GER for both males and females in the secondary schools have improved, nevertheless there is a difference among the years. The NER in secondary schools in AACA, taking 2011/12 as the baseline year, data revealed that the NER for both genders had been improving over the last five years with the exception of 2016/17. A decline was seen in the enrolment of boys in 2016/2017.

The GPI is a significant indicator of balanced programmes to increase the registration and involvement of both genders in education. It is used to measure the level of equity between boys and girls. In a situation of equality between males and females, the GPI is estimated to be 1 or close to 1. The data showed that GPI in 2012/2013 and 2013/2014 was 0.75 and 0.97 respectively. This is less than 1 and shows that more boys were registered in secondary schools than girls in these years. In contrast, GPI was greater than 1 in 2011/12, 2014/15, 2015/16, 2016/17, 2017/18, and 2018/19 (1.09, 1.05, 1.08, 1.10, 1.09 and 1.10 respectively), compared to a national average of 0.9, indicating the enrolment of more girls than boys in secondary schools in AACA in these years (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019). Consequently, the data indicated that more girls were accessing secondary education during those years.

The PTR is the ratio of the students registered in a certain level in a given school year to the number of teachers teaching them. It is one of the main quality indicators that helps to assess the chance of students in obtaining teachers' support. Usually, a lower PTR allows for greater assistance to individual learners while the opposite occurs with a higher PTR. According to FDRE MoE, ESAA (2017:32), in AACA, the PTR for Grades 9 and 10 in 2016/2017 was 21. On the other hand, the PTR for Grades 11 and 12 was 13. In 2018/19, the PTR for Grades 9 to 12 was 11 (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019:30). The PTR is thus improving in the public secondary schools in AACA.

The PSR describes the number of students joining a given section (class) at a particular time in a grade level. In relation to this, the standard class size set by FDRE MoE in ESDP V for secondary schools is 40 students. Currently the class size is projected to achieve this standard since more secondary schools have been built by the AACAEB. FDRE MoE, ESAA (2017) revealed an increase in the number of PSR (2011/12 and 2012/13). It also showed a slightly declining tendency in PSR from 1:44 in 2013/14 to1:37 in 2015/16. In 2016/2017, PSR became 1:42 indicating a small increase. In line with this, the public first cycle secondary school was found to be 1:47 whereas this is far lower for the non-public first-cycle secondary schools 1:30. Relating to second-cycle secondary schools (Grades 11 and 12), both school types have a better PSR, which the ratio is 1:40 and 1:31 for public and non-public schools respectively.

AACAEB, ESAA (2019) indicated that, concerning core school facilities (libraries, science laboratories, ICT laboratories, and plasma programme), there was comparatively better access to facilities in AACA. All secondary schools have access to library services. Each secondary school has three science laboratories. Regarding Information Technology (IT), the number of ICT laboratories in each secondary school is 8 (2 for each grade level). Each secondary school has at least one IT laboratory for each grade level. The Satellite Television Educational Programme was launched in 2003/04 to advance the quality of learning in secondary schools. It is usually called the "plasma programme". According to AACAEB, ESAA (2019), 30.5% secondary schools are equipped with plasma television to offer television-aided instruction. Conversely, 69.5% secondary schools do not offer television-aided instruction.

Among the areas of focus of ESDP V is enhancing the total internal efficiency of schools by reducing the repetition and dropout rates (FDRE MoE, 2015). About internal efficiency indicators of education system (such as promotion, repetition and dropout rates), they aid comprehension of the level of consumption of scarce resources efficiently and judiciously. These indicators are usually used to measure the efficiency of the education system in generating graduates of a certain education cycle or level (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). A student may be promoted, held back or dropout in a specific grade level in a specific academic year. Repeating a certain grade level means

uses extra resources than allotted to a student; and dropping out (leaving school) early before completing a certain cycle or level of education also results in wastage of resources. To this end, declining repetition and dropout rates in each grade level shows efficient consumption of resources. The dropout rate is a measure of the number of students leaving schools before graduation (completion) from a certain cycle or grade level out of the total number of students registered. One of the focus areas of ESDP V is enhancing the total internal efficiency by decreasing the dropout rate to less than 1% (FDRE MoE, 2015). Regarding Grade 9, the dropout rates are higher than 1% which is not in line with the target set in ESDP V. When gender is measured, more females keep on in school than males in all academic years. In general, the dropout rate was lower in 2016/17 (1.88%) when compared with 2.21% in 2015/16. With regard to Grade 11 dropouts, the dropout rates are more than 1% which is not in line with the target set in ESDP V. When gender is measured, more girls stay in school than boys in all academic years. In general, the dropout rate was lower in 2016/17 (1.37%) than 1.61% in 2015/16. In the academic years of 2015/16 and 2016/17 the repetition rate of Grade 9 students was 8.75% and 6.23% respectively. This is greater than the target agreed in ESDP V (1%). With regard to gender, more boys than girls repeated grades in the indicated years (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2017). However, the percentage of students promoted in Grade 10 improved from 54.6% in 2015/16 to 65% in 2016/17 although this was lower than the target set in ESDP V (86%). According to AACAEB, ESAA (2019), the percentage of promoted students in Grade 12 declined over 2015/16, 2016/17, 2017/18 and 2018/19 from 49.5% to 47.27% to 46% and 43.2% respectively. This decline points to problems with the quality of education in the AACA, particularly given that progress since 2011 has been very slow.

With respect to the external efficiency of schools such as delays in starting schooling, the Maximum Calculation of Delay report calculated that 11% of children aged 5 to 17 years in AACA started school with two or more years of delay, matched to 33.6% of their peers across Ethiopia, on average. Progress in confronting school dropouts and grade repetition seems to have been effective to a certain degree, as the occurrence of delay in starting school declined by greater than three times between 2011 and 2016 by 38% and 11% respectively.

Furthermore, ESDP V identified "the challenge of the low quality of the education system in Ethiopia, comprising unskilled teachers, unrelated teaching and insufficient learning materials" (FDRE MoE, 2015:17). In AACA, most of the 5 533 (96.8%) teaching staff in the first-cycle secondary schools (Grades 9 and 10) held Bachelor's and Master's degrees. In second-cycle secondary schools (Grades 11 and 12), most of the teaching staff (97.6%) held Bachelor's and Master's degree (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019:75-76). According to AACAEB, ESAA (2019), in public secondary schools, there were 66 head principals, 198 vice-principals and 46 supervisors. Gender-wise, most of the leadership positions were filled by men. All the principals held Master's degrees.

In urban areas, school expansion in AACA has been greater; primarily because of superior infrastructure and the role of the private sector in education (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). With regard to urban poor children, while many pre-primary, primary and secondary schools are situated in AACA, access is often denied to urban poor children whose parents cannot pay school fees. The transition from primary to secondary school is a bottleneck for many children in AACA. While there have been school-feeding programmes in place for all public pre-primary and primary school children since 2019, public secondary-school students are not beneficiaries of this programme, which might have an impact on the learning of students.

When it comes to the leadership of school administrators, they are essential to the success of the institution from goal-setting through goal accomplishment. To make their schools effective, school principals must take into account two key factors, according to Hallinger and Walker (2017): (1) they must be professionally skilled and stay abreast of new technologies; and (2) they must put instruction first. So, in order to bring about the expected change in their schools, school principals must become effective instructional leaders because they hold a key position that bridges the gaps between context and school, policy and programme, means and aims (Hallinger & Walker, 2017). The advancement of student learning and schools' achievement in meeting their educational objectives need to be given top priority. More specifically, goal achievement can be linked to the roles that leaders play in enhancing staff and student learning, establishing and upholding standards of excellence, overseeing curriculum and instruction, fostering

a positive school climate, using data to identify and implement instruction improvement, and sharing school responsibilities with interested parties (Hallinger, 2012). Although most would agree that IL is important for improving effective schools, administrators pay little attention to it. Poirier (2009) estimates that principals' instructional practices-related work takes up only11% of the school day. The quality of education in public schools in urban areas in FDRE such as AACA remains to a matter of concern (FDRE MoE, ESAA, 2019). This situation is critical in AACA, in which IL has been given little emphasis by the school principals and is ineffective. This view has been supported by numerous researchers who have carried out studies in the city and its sub-cities. For instance, a study by Hassen (2012) revealed that the principals in AACA are less effective in their leadership since they lack the necessary training and expertise in the field. The proposals made by Hassen focused on enhancing principals' capacity and giving them the tools, they needed to work on IL successfully, which in turn encouraged a participative style of leadership. Additionally, the AACAEB is tasked with providing instructions and guidance whenever flaws and gaps are found, and schools should use public relations campaigns to forge ties with the local community. On top of this, according to Gebereslassie (2014), the principals of secondary schools in AACA were not successfully leading essential activities of their schools by forming shared partnerships among the staff of the schools, on one hand, and partnerships between the staff inside schools and the community outside the schools, on the other hand. Gebereslassie (2014) recommended that parties in charge of support, control and management of education in AACA including AACAEB should fill the knowledge and skills gaps of the principals by planning and offering long and short-term PD programmes on strategic IL, effective cooperative and partnership school leadership practices and the implementation of the selection requirements as specified in "A Blue Print for Teachers Development Programme". Moreover, Gessese (2018) indicated that school leaders' leadership decisions, communication, behaviour and effectiveness from respondent description were the main contributors to the academic achievement of students. Gessese (2018) recommended that the AACAEB should take appropriate measures including the supply of adequate material and professional support to sub-city schools and provide training and administrative support for school leaders to fill the

gaps in the knowledge, roles and skills the profession requires so that they would better be able to assist teachers and other stakeholders.

On the other hand, studies conducted on issues related to IL in public primary and secondary schools of some sub-cities in AACA (e.g., Atnafu, 2014; Belete, 2017; Bogale, 2018; Demissie, 2017; Tarekegn, 2018; Tolesa, 2017) have suggested that most school principals were not effective in the overall practices of IL, because the missions and instructional goals of schools were not effectively communicated with stakeholders; teachers' resistance to supervisory activities was high; there was a shortage of relevant manuals, instructional materials and budget. There was insufficient supervisory involvement by the instructional leaders who did not give priority to teaching and learning activities. Emphasis on support for teachers' instructional practices was poor. Recruitment and selection of school principals was not merit-based; the majority of principals lacked the required qualifications and training in school leadership. Furthermore, the workload and paperwork requirements, conducting classroom visits only to evaluate the semester's performance of teachers, principals' collaboration and openness in communicating and problem-solving with teachers was not satisfactory, and there was unnecessary interference by sub-city and woreda education officers in the functions of principals.

Furthermore, Atnafu (2014); Belete (2017); Bogale (2018); Demissie (2017); Tarekegn (2018); and Tolesa (2017) recommended involving senior teachers in the school IL, observation of teachers, and staff development programmes. The AACAEB, in collaboration with sub-city and woreda (district) education offices, should define the IL roles of principals clearly and provide training in the areas of IL and revise and improve the selection and appointment criteria of leadership positions. The AACAEB should work on eliminating the organisational and district factors hindering the IL role of the leaders and school principals and supervisors should work together to incorporate stakeholders' views on what should be achieved, how and when it should be achieved for effective goal-setting. The AACAEB and SCEOs, in collaboration with non-governmental organisations, need to build the capacity of school principals by organising seminars, workshops and in-service training, capacity building and

empowering of principals to do their work effectively. In turn, they should encourage a participatory approach of leadership. Principals and supervisors should create a strong collaboration among school stakeholders to insure IL practices of secondary school principals in the sub- cities of AACA.

According to Powell (2017:130), "the perceptions of principals affect their practices of IL; consequently, principals' practices of IL have direct and mediated effects on academic achievement of students". Researchers should not only examine the general influence of leadership practices but also highlight particular school leaders' perceptions and practices that have a strong impact on school's accomplishment, students' academic achievement, teachers' contentment and motivation to work (Harris, 2014). In supporting this view, Bellibas (2015:1482) argued that "while there is great evidence concerning the influence of IL on learning and outcomes of students, there is little knowledge and systematic research on how principals perceive their practices of IL". The study of perceptions of principals on their practices of IL and perceptions of teachers on their principals' practices of IL has received scholarly consideration for the past two decades. However, studies related to IL in AACA education context have mainly focused on the general aspects of school leadership or IL ignoring the possible contribution of the perceptions of principals to their IL practices, i.e., perceptions of principals on their IL practices are still unresearched and this remains a knowledge gap in the study of school leadership in AACA setting. Further study on this topic would be useful and contribute to the understanding of principals' perceptions of and experiences with their IL practices within the context of public secondary schools in AACA. Therefore, this study investigated the perceptions and experiences of principals with their current IL practices of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia as defined by PIMRS IL model.

2.3 CONCEPTUALISATION OF IL

IL is the basic focus and concept of this study. If IL is to be effective, a clearly defined understanding of that concept is crucial. IL has been defined in numerous and diverse ways by different researchers and scholars. Scholars and researchers recognise that there is no single and explicit IL definition or particular rules as to what a principal as an

instructional leader does in a school. The descriptions of IL are also developed in response to the varying desires of schools in the context of international reforms in education (Hallinger, 2003). According to Marks and Printy (2003), in the literature, the idea of IL has been described both narrowly and broadly. Narrow descriptions focus only on those activities a principal is involved in that directly impact the curriculum, instruction, assessment, PD and supervision. Within the role of the principal, these descriptions are seen as distinct tasks and duties, and are separate from management. This narrow description also considers first order variables or those circumstances that directly influence instruction (Hallinger, 2003). Considered broadly, IL focuses on all roles that underpin student learning such as administrative behaviours and organisational culture, and it involves all activities of leadership that impact student learning. A deep examination of the narrow and broad opinions of IL indicates that the two opinions have elements in common, as they both target the enhancement of teaching and learning for better student achievement.

IL is narrowly described by Leithwood (1994) as a sequence of activities with the intention of influencing classroom instruction by means of staff development, demonstrating, training, supervising, and further means of development of the practice and thinking of teachers. In addition, IL considers the type of leadership as those activities with a direct impact on teaching and learning such as observation of lessons, supervision of curriculum, instruction of teachers and evaluation of learning (Al-Mahdy & Al-Kiyumi, 2015). Also, IL is regarded as those activities carried out by school principals with the considered aim of supporting the development of learning of student (Isaiah & Isaiah, 2014). Among key interconnected attributes that school leaders bring to the tasks of IL are communication skills, content knowledge in curriculum and pedagogy, and the ability to solve complex problems (DeWitt, 2020; Grissom, Egalite, & Lindsay, 2021).

From these given descriptions, it could be understood that the narrow description of IL is related to the school leaders' practices. This comprises setting high expectations and explicit school goals for the performance of teachers and students, obtaining and distribution of resources forteaching and learning, observing lessons, evaluating

performance of teachers, supporting and fostering staff PD and building and sustaining a school climate that values outstanding academic performance. DeMatthews (2014:193) conceptualised IL narrowly as "the leadership roles related with teaching and learning, more particularly as responsibilities and duties principals want to accomplish every day to assist teachers and learners on the way to excellence in education". This narrow and customary definition of IL stresses much on the teaching and learning components of the school leadership. Hence, the narrow definition of IL emphasises leadership behaviours that enhance teaching and learning. Furthermore, Jita and Mokhele (2013) focused on the definition of IL which centres around the teachers' actions that impact the learning of students. The narrow definition of IL is characterised by a command or top-down way to school leadership, focused on establishing clear goals with high expectations for measurable student achievement (Barth, 1990; Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm,& McKee, 2014; Marks & Printy, 2003). The degree of leadership rests with principals and their behaviour is characterised as a supervisory role (Hallinger, 2005). Manaseh (2016) defined IL as "leadership in education that emphases the school's core responsibility, that is teaching and learning". IL requires a substantial commitment since it determines the outcomes of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2007). Weller (1999) augments the description by stating that IL involves the visibility of principals' participation in every school programme. Furthermore, IL is about those actions taken by school leaders to encourage development in the learning of students (Mestry, 2013). Southworth (2009) characterised IL as a learner-centred approach. Leadership is supposed to be influence the improvement of learning of students and the quality of teaching (Southworth, 2009:93). The usage of narrow descriptions focuses on behaviour in isolation and bears the risk of ignoring important leadership features that might not essentially be overtin the classroom but still influence the success of students (Murphy, 1988). Thus, it can be contended that if IL is described narrowly regarding curriculum and classroom instruction only, it may lead to improved learning of students.

With regard to broad descriptions of IL, Southworth (2002) stated that the concept of IL is probably more successful when it is defined as "broad" instead of "narrow "because it leaves room for other leaders to play a role in addition to the principal. Therefore, it is

important to examine the various IL definitions as this has an impact on how school principals perceive and experience IL. Likewise, according to Horng and Loeb (2010), the broader opinion of IL comprises all the functions or tasks carried out by leaders of the school to improve student learning, including managerial behaviours (Marks & Printy, 2003). Moreover, DeWitt (2020) described IL is when those in a leadership position focus their efforts on the implementation of practices that will positively impact student learning.Furthermore, Kursunoglu and Tanriogen (2009) explained IL as a sequence of behaviours that affect classroom instruction. Moreover, by focusing only on the activities of the principal, other leadership functions that contribute to the success of students are possibly ignored. Leadership and management cannot be understood as distinct in that the management judgements and activities of the principal support the work necessary in attaining enhanced learning outcomes of students (Witziers, Bosker & Kruger, 2003). Leadership for learning has been applied more recently to include how "school leaders work to attain significant outcomes of school with an attention on learning of students" (Hallinger, 2011:126). The principal is regarded as the chief instructional leader and the chief leader of teachers, being accountable and responsible for the accomplishments and results inside the school (Purinton, 2013). IL is understood as those activities that comprise planning, coordination, evaluation, and enhancement of teaching and learning and concentrates on outcomes of students (Elmore, 2008; Robinson, 2011). IL refers to the principals' impact on the teachers' instructional practices and choices (Printy, 2010). Leithwood (2012) explained that involving everyone in the practices of IL needs knowledge and skills, time, and consideration of the relationships between people and their context. Furthermore, IL centres on activities that impact and support the core activities that influence achievement of students (O'Donnell & White, 2005; Witziers, Bosker & Kruger, 2003). An essential focus of IL is learning for all, both students and adults (Southworth, 2002). In broader terms, IL involves all the job functions and behaviours of leadership that are aimed at encouraging the enhancement of the learning of students in schools (Al-Mahdy & Al-Kiyumi, 2015; Marks & Printy, 2003; Thi Hao, 2016).

On the other hand, IL can also be described as both directly and indirectly impacting teaching and learning and the academic achievement of student. The direct effect of IL

is based on the idea that effects of leadership can directly arise from the principal's activities (Hallinger & Wang, 2015; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008). Conversely, the indirect IL effect is that circumstances for quality teaching and learning are formed by making sure that the academic institution's policies, resource provision and related management decisions support superior teaching and learning (Bellibas, 2015). According to Leithwood, Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004), IL is seen as having an indirect influence on outcomes of student through enhancing the learning culture in an organisation and the performance of staff. Additionally,Leithwood and Jantzi (2008) described IL as the activities that a principal accomplishes or offers to others so as to motivate development in academic achievement of students. Hence, this study investigates how public secondary school principals in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience both the direct and indirect aspects of IL.

Research has revealed that many educators such as principals, teachers, and supervisors in Ethiopia are not acquainted with the concept of IL (e.g., Gedifew, 2014; Geleta, 2015; Tsegaye & Moges, 2014). Therefore, it is important for this study to determine the extent to which public secondary school principals are acquainted with the concept of IL. The assumption is that the principals' level of understanding and acquaintance (experiences) with the concept of IL partially impacts how they perceive and experience the practices of IL in their schools. Having explored the narrow and broad, and direct and indirect opinions of the IL, and having recognised that there is no single commonly received description of IL, it can be said, at this stage, that how someone describes a specific phenomenon impacts the manner the person perceives that phenomenon. Thus, based on this, it is important for this study to investigate the perceptions and experiences of public secondary school principals in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia with their practices of IL.

2.4 HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF IL

2.4.1 The Developed Countries

2.4.1.1   The United States of America

IL initiated in United States of America. The origins of IL can be explored to the movement of effective schools that mesmerised the United States of America in the middle of the 1970s and 1980s (Bas, 2012; Hallinger, 2009). In the literature on school leadership and effective school theories, the impact of schools on learning and academic achievement of students has been frequently addressed after Coleman (1966) reported that, the major determining factor of student achievement was family background, not the school. Numerous studies have been carried out to determine the influence of school-related factors on achievement of students. However, the outcomes of the research have been diverse because of the contexts in which the studies were carried out. Kercheval and Newbill (2001) explained that the research produced debatable information that schools had an inconsequential influence on achievement of student. Non-school-related factors, for example, family background and socioeconomic status greatly impact the achievement of student (Kercheval & Newbill, 2001; Raptis & Fleming, 2003). To address the concerns of Coleman (1966), the movement of effective schools was started (Kercheval & Newbill, 2001; Raptis & Fleming, 2003). Consequently, Edmonds (1979) came to a conclusion that refuted the report of Coleman (1966). Edmonds (1979) examined the relationship between leadership and effective schools in urban elementary schools in America (Neurmerski, 2013). He declared that school-related factors such as principals' leadership qualities had a substantial influence on learning and achievement of students (Lee, Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Raptis & Fleming, 2003). Based on Edmonds' results, several studies were carried out to determine the influence of school-related factors on achievement of students. The IL concept arose out of Edmonds' work in pointing out that effective schools need leaders who continually focuson IL (Edmonds, 1979; Marks, 2008). According to Jenkins (2009), effective schools were led by principals who practiced IL. The principals who focused on teaching and learning showed extraordinary progress in student achievements (Bellibas, 2015; Joyner, 2005). Therefore, from the results of the movement of effective schools, principals who worked as instructional leaders were regarded as managers or administrators of effective schools (Goddard, Goddard, Kim & Miller, 2015).

In contrast to school leaders who devoted much of their time to managerial matters, for example, budgets, paperwork and maintenance of discipline, principals in charge of the effective schools tended to concentrate their efforts on the academic progress of their organisations. The movement of effective schools indicated that effective principals, for instance; monitored and observed lessons, protected instructional time, created an atmosphere conducive to learning and promoted PD (Grissom & Loeb, 2011). Shared aims among these numerous indicators of effective schools resulted in the birth of the concept 'instructional leadership'. According to Marks and Printy (2003: 373), IL became an instrument of aligning together "the whole thing a principal does during the school day to assist the ability of teachers to teach and the achievement of students". Hence, a legacy of the movement of effective schools was the introduction of the concept 'instructional leadership' into the educational leadership and management terminology (Hallinger, 2012).

The growth of IL as a paradigm for educational leadership and management in the 1980s in USA is also practically connected to the development of standards for principalship. According to Hallinger (2012), as a consequence of the declaration of the research results of effective schools, the government of America engaged in the courageous step of creation a School Leadership Academy in each state. The policy-makers had identified that there was a connection between IL and achievement of students. This led to the establishment of standards for educational leadership in the USA. These educational leadership standards in the USA, which vary from state to state, give emphasis to the school leaders' participation in the planning and executing of high-quality teachers' instructional practices aimed at enhancing academic success of student. Colorado State's standards for educational leadership area case in point. They specify that principals should determine specific criteria for curriculum and instruction; be involved in assisting teachers through continuous feedback and PD, and support teachers in improving effective use of instructional time. Also, they need to empower teachers to use the best possible instructional practices that contribute to the learning and academic achievement of students (Bellibas, 2015).

Since its early days in the USA, IL has gained international attention which is evidenced in the reform of education and demands for accountability at school level (Hallinger, 2009). Horng and Loeb (2010) stated that leaders in the school should be accountable for the performance of learners. Because it has been shown to improve students' academic progess, IL is now implemented by many countries in the world. Moreover, IL has led to the determination of a principals' leadership framework (Robinson, 2010).

2.4.1.2 The United Kingdom

In the second decade of the 21st century the context of school leadership in English secondary schools is both complex and dynamic. Many senior leaders in schools have been subject to long-lasting, highly demanding centrally-driven change since the Education Reform Act (UK Government, 1988). In England, literature on leadership for learning emphasizes on school leaders' involvement in practices related to IL (MacBeath & Swaffield, 2008).The National College for School Leadership (NCSL) development emphasizes on the critical role of principals in influencing the behaviors of staff to engage in activities which affect the quality of teaching and learning while stressing on IL (Bush & Middlewood, 2013).

Lyng (2013) indicate that despite some aspects of excellent leadership practice there may be limited practice in important aspects of leadership in the schools particularly with regard to leadership for engagement and leadership for empowerment. Excessive accountability, both explicit and implicit, in the standards-based school improvement processes driven by central government and the fundamental lack of trust which this implies creates barriers to the development of effective leadership practice (Lyng, 2013). Lyng (2013) suggest that head teachers appear trapped in their primacy and often feel unable to utilise the leadership resources available to them because of accountability in relation to their agency, the capacity of others to lead and the perceptions of others that leadership is in the sole provenance of the head. Lyng (2013) further shown that the head teacher's primacy in school leadership is crucially important to establishing leadership in the school which fosters learning and engages and empowers others. It is head teachers who will nurture leadership practice which is purposefully concerned to maximise student learning, fully engaging of all potential

leadership resources and empowering other leaders, staff, students, parents and school governors to be part of the leadership of the school.

2.4.1.3 Singapore

"A review of IL research in Singapore from 1985 to 2012 have highlighted five dominant practices of IL in Singapore and shed light on the strategies adopted by Singapore principals in the implementation of IL" (Ng, 2015:10). First, principals in primary schools seem to display more IL roles than those in secondary schools. Second, Singapore principals seem to realize that they cannot successfully perform IL alone. Instead, principals make good use of the knowledge and skills of non-teaching and teaching staff within the school community as well as the external resources. Third, Singapore principals appear to exercise quite a number of domains of IL; nevertheless, the degree of IL practiced in each domain varies. This review discloses that "principals focus much attention on developing the school vision, creating a good learning climate, and developing and improving the school-wide curriculum"(Ng, 2015:11).

Singapore principals, however, share the task of instruction evaluation and supervision with middle managers. These include classroom observation and giving post-observation feedback to individual teachers. In this view, principals are thought to be able to augment the quality of teaching and learning by mentoring teachers through observing, providing feedback, and even modeling instruction in specific cases. An emerging question is whether Singapore principals need to exert more IL on instructional evaluation and supervision, and whether this is feasible in the context of Singapore schools.

Fourth, Singapore principals' practice of IL tends to be greatly aligned to contextual factors, in particular, policies and initiatives from the Ministry of Education. The alignment is most noticeable in the dimensions of the school vision and managing the instructional programme. This is understandable as Singapore adopts a centralized educational system, in which the Ministry of Education plays a very active role in influencing how each school is run (Ng, 2015:11). This was reflected in the strategies of alignment of the curriculum implementation and instruction with the desired outcomes of

education. Among the learning opportunities created are involvement of staff's constructive inputs and establishing departmental and subject-based goals.

2.4.2 The African Continent

2.4.2.1 Nigeria

In Nigeria, the principal is the person responsible for managing the instructional activities of the secondary school with the resources available at his disposal to ensure the achievement of secondary school educational goals and objectives (Ensley, 2014). The principal is the chief executive and responsible for all that happens in his school. This is to say that the principal is the key person responsible for creating conducive school climate and learning environment that encourage the PD of teachers and academic performance of students. Setting of clear goals, allocating resources, managing curriculum, monitoring lessons, evaluating teachers, organising and implementing plans, policies and programmes are the major tasks of a principal. Moreover, in Nigeria, according to Commonwealth Secretariat (1993) as cited in Mafuwane (2011:47), the following activities are straightly linked to the IL practices of principals: supplying leadership for curriculum development and instructional improvement; producing an environment favourable for the implementation of human latent; impacting the staff and learners' behaviours; supervising instruction in the school; monitoring implementation of curriculum and change, producing a professional philosophy within the school by participating staff members in management.

It is therefore, expected that the principal as the school instructional leader will engage in a variety of effective IL practices that are concerned with the elements of the instructional processes (Ensley, 2014). The most significant of these functions in secondary schools are those performed by the principals. These functions consist of duties, obligations and formal expectations of the behaviours of the position holders. To achieve the purpose for which the role was created, the role incumbent must behave in such a way that his duties are successfully done and his obligations discharged. This requires professional training to enable one perform his duties and obligations as expected, because adequate understanding of one's role leads to effective

performance. In addition, the characteristics of the present students and even teachers are such that call for expertise IL (Ensley, 2014).

The Federal Ministry of Education in a survey which analysed the problems of education sector revealed that principals require training in IL to enable them function effectively in curriculum implementation and coordination of instructional activities. This is because the organization, instruction and purpose of the school, reflect to a great extent on the personality of the head. Many programmes have been mounted to train and upgrade teachers in this country. This is confirmed in the National Policy on Education (2004) where the policy stated that all teachers in educational institutions in Nigeria shall be professionally trained. In Nigeria, the position of principalship is based on experience and promotion (Ensley, 2014).

2.4.2.2 Kenya

The chief instructional leaders of schools in Kenya are principals whose leadership role is central to establishing and maintaining effective schools (Nkoroi, 2017). The Kenya government acknowledges the significance of IL practices in improving quality education. Since 2003, the government has made concerted effort to enhance school supervision to diminish the declining standards of education, owing to free primary and secondary education (Mutuku, 2018). Through the Ministry of Education, the Kenya Education Management Institute sponsored all school head teachers for a Diploma in Education Management to address the issue of head teachers' IL capacity. The endorsed IL roles of principals according to Ministry of Education (2009) were; working with teachers to outline and implement instructional programs; ensuring that teachers and learners have necessary instructional materials and anticipating future material needs and conducting and coordinating in-service teacher PD programs (Nkoroi, 2017). In spite of these efforts by the government, there is still public clamour for effective IL practices by the head teachers in public secondary schools in Kenya. Nkoroi (2017) recommends that principals should repeatedly engage in IL with emphasis on staff PD and acquisition and allocation of both teaching and learning resources. Moreover, there was need for effective supervision in schools, aimed at assessing the general school management, including IL practices noting that creativity and innovativeness in the

management would be a critical motivating factor that would guarantee high performance (Mutuku, 2018).

2.4.2.3 South Africa

In South Africa, the reform from the old to a new curriculum was the first phase in the transformation of the curriculum, and it was expected that this would assist in implementing the ideals and standards which are revealed in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa preamble (RSA, Act 108 of 1996).This suggests that principals need to create a conducive environment for teaching and learning and a system of control which allows for effective teaching and learning and sets high expectations for learners. Research carried out by the Department of Education (2009) in South Africa reports that the principals' role as curriculum and instructional leaders should be affirmed. School governing bodies (SGBs) were introduced in 1996 and this led to the devolution of the role of principals and a change in the school management system. Principals were to be more accountable for the academic achievement of their learners. According to Clarke (2012), school principals in the South African school setting are recognised as leaders and managers who have a great role to impact on the livelihood of their schools by setting the tone and ethos of teaching and learning activities. Effectiveness of teaching and learning programmes come to be measured through learner academic achievement with the expectation that school principals are the vital instrument towards enhanced instructional delivery in their schools. Their mode of operation together with their School Management Teams members (SMTs), senior and master teachers, as well as subject heads in ensuring good curriculum delivery was of a pivotal nature towards improved learner results (Clarke, 2012). Marishane (2011) points out that IL has increased acceptance in South Africa and stress is made on the academic values and the need for accountability in schools. The search for greater learner achievement and the call for more responsibility on the part of principals have led to more attention being given on the duties the principal undertakes as an instructional leader.

2.4.2.4 Ethiopia

IL has also been implemented across FDRE from the time when the ETP, was formulated (MoE, 1994). According to the NPSSP (FDRE MoE, 2013:11), one of the competencies school principals is IL. The following competencies are directly linked to the IL practices of principals: sharing and distributing accountability to offer quality, success, and consistency throughout the education system (for example, curriculum, pedagogy, instructional resources, and assessment of students); engaging in continuous research into successful practices of curriculum and instruction and working cooperatively to create suitable reforms that enhance outcomes; having an up-to-date understanding and knowledge of child development, teaching and learning, and how to apply such research to the students' needs in the school; applying understanding and knowledge of recent educational policy developments and trends in society and the environment to enhance the school's educational opportunities; and providing opportunities for all the school community members to develop their abilities and be involved in essential decisions of the school (FDRE MoE, 2013:11).

Hence, IL has gained international currency as demonstrated by the implementation of this educational leadership and management paradigm by many countries of the world. Confirmation on the ground indicates that similar to many other African countries, FDRE has also taken IL up in its education system. Accordingly, IL should be implemented in primary and secondary schools across the country in general and public secondary schools of AACA in particular. Thus, the main research question in this study was "What are the perceptions and experiences of public secondary school principals with their current and actual engagements in IL as defined by PIMRS IL model in AACA?"

2.5 IL ROLES OF THE PRINCIPAL

The concept of school leadership is one of the most important topics of the twenty-first century. School leadership has been acknowledged by school administrators and has been a problem-driven construct (Hoy & Miskel, 2008). As the head of the school organisation, the principal is faced with the responsibility of leading the school to success and improvement as well as its sustainability. For over three decades, IL has

been regarded as an effective school leadership model for enhancing achievement of students. The school principal is the most influential role player in successful IL implementation in a school. As an instructional leader, the principal has the role of helping, assisting and recommending staff for promotion as ways of motivating them. The role of principal is characterised by frequent classroom observations, supervision, effective feedback to teachers and students on instructional related issues and involvement of staff in school-based activities (Yunas & Iqbal, 2013). According to Rigby (2014), the participatory style of leadership improves the role of a principal as an instructional leader. However, numerous principals do not understand the requirements of IL (Hejres, 2015). Principals must transform their practices from managerial to instructional to become instructional leaders. Principals need to practise participatory leadership, or their role will simply become an administrative position. Additionally, a principal as an instructional leader should play a significant role in improving job satisfaction of teachers.

According to Hallinger (2012), a retroactive evaluation of IL over the past 25 years produced some important developments in how academics have perceived the IL role of a principal. First, IL arose out of the research on "instructionally effective elementary schools" in 1970s (e.g., Edmonds, 1979; Hawley & Rosenholtz, 1984; Rutter, Maugham, Mortimore, Ouston & Smith, 1979). Second, IL was perceived as the key role of a school principal (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, & Lee, 1982; Dwyer 1986; Glasman, 1984; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982; Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach,1998; Van De Grift, 1990).

The instructional leader's role has changed significantly since its official beginning in the early 1900s, moving with political times and societal alterations (Goodwin, Cunningham & Childress, 2003). The practice of IL did not appear in the one-room school house, where teachers carriedout all the activities. As schools developed in size and bureaucracy grew, the role was legitimately acknowledged in the early 1900s as one of a coordinator and manager of behaviour. According to Tyack and Hansot (1982), the nature of the role was impacted by politics, social paradigms, and the economy. However, in the 1970s, that the principal's role moved from "that of a coworker of

teachers to a school board delegate", and the years following were characterised by centralisation and bureaucracy. Goodwin et al. (2003:5) explained that bureaucracy, social forces, collective negotiations and other developments eroded the instructional role of the principal and their staff so much so that principals who used to consider themselves educators, now found "the problem [as] much too complicated, the organisation much too vast, the consequences are too great, the partners in the enterprise are too many for [principals] to serve any longer as educators". Over the past few decades, however, as demands for accountability made their way into schools, there has been pressure for the principal to take on less of a managerial role and become an instructional leader. Having been outside the instructional realm for some time, re-engaging in instruction and, additionally, in enhancing the instructional practice of others presents a noteworthy challenge for principals (Hallinger, 2003). Many of the challenges that the move from principal as manager to principal as instructional leader have not yet been successfully overcome. Firstly, due to its narrow definition which denies the large number of roles of the principalship, IL in schools continues to be a challenge today.

Stronge (1993) confirmed that because the job involves a large number of managerial tasks, IL is difficult to attain. Some of these tasks of principalship have been formed by policy issues and others by social forces (Goodwin et al., 2003:8); however, they have all resulted in "leadership matters comprising the depositing of extra duty without parallel power, an inequity between leadership and management regardless of the extension of the work week, an increase in vagueness and complication, and lowering enthusiasm and morale". Moreover, the principal's role is further complicated because diverse groups of people anticipate diverse results from schools, calling principals to be responsive to numerous needs (Catano & Stronge, 2007). Furthermore, the inadequate propagation of IL may be a result of the inadequate empirical evidence that IL results in enhanced learning of students (Hallinger, 2008).

Hallinger (2003) affirmed the idea that IL explicitly focuses on the leadership of schools and how principals implement the activities of IL in order to attain improved educational outcomes. The main focus of principals is the improvement of the academic

performance of their students through the coordination, controlling and supervision of instruction (Hallinger, 2003; 2011; Lashway, 2002). However, Hallinger emphasized that learning is linked to leadership as principals develop a broad vision of the direction the school should take and should establish specific goals and targets that will thrust the school in the specified direction. Girvin (2005) recognised that IL role is one that promotes the school goals and objectives with a view to enhance the achievements of students. According to Girvin (2005), there are three broad characteristics of a principal: the principal as visionary (setting up practices in keeping with broader viewpoints and matters); the principal as organiser (functioning to build up an action plan with associated goals and timelines); and the principal as cheerleader (conveying support, through personal visibility and participation in assessing student works and interrelated accomplishments). A school principal has numerous responsibilities and tasks to manage a school. Among the responsibilities principal handles are producing a mission and vision, policy implementation, operations and management, budgeting, communication, connecting community, and offering CPD to the teachers and other staff (Sharif, 2020).

Nelson and Sassi (2005) indicated that the instructional leader is responsible for the evaluation of instruction, teachers' PD, the nature and quality of the curriculum, testing and assessment, and they must be well-informed leaders that work with their staff as to bring about improvement in instruction. Hallinger (2005) added that the instructional leader has the following job functions: using numerous sources of records to assess learning, giving priority to learning; setting high expectations for success; gearing curriculum and instruction to standards; emphasising the efforts of principals in defining the school mission, managing instructional programmes and developing a positive school learning climate. Knapp, Mkhwanazi and Portin (2012) further stated at the core of IL is the ability to coach staff or familiarise them with variations in the pedagogy that help students achieve better. The principal as instructional leader means they have a "communal work and commitment policy that offers direction for instructional enhancement, engages the teachers' efforts and energy and others in search of influential, reasonable relations among teachers, learners, and content" (Knapp et al., 2012:192). According to Marzano, Waters and McNulty (2005), the role of the principal

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as an instructional leader is considered to play a significant role in enhancing learning of students.

Studies have shown that leadership is a key aspect of school effectiveness, second only to a classroom teacher's role (Leithwood et al., 2004; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008). Principals are, therefore, faced with having to make sense of the dynamics of the classroom as well as provide quality IL that supports and promotes effective teaching (Nelson & Sassi, 2005). Leadership therefore has an enormous effect on the effectiveness of the school (Nelson & Sassi, 2005). In an effort to achieve the goals and objectives of the institution and the realisation and implementation of a shared vision amongst its members, effective leadership means that principals must interact on a daily basis with the staff (Nelson & Sassi, 2005).

As discussed above, the field of IL has its origins in the effective schools' movement of the late 1970s and early 1980s in the US (Brookover & Lezotte, 1977). At that time, it was seen as the most encouraging leadership answer to the greater achievement of students the community had come to anticipate from schools (Edmonds, 1979). Over time, the term, IL, became more of a motto for school leaders to address the core task of a school, which is teaching and learning (Leithwood, 2007:190). The study of Leithwood (2007) was important because if principals are to meet the ever-increasing demands to ensure that students are academically successful, principals must have a conscious understanding of what they are doing and why they are doing certain things each day that directly impact student learning. The research on IL suggests that this is the one thing that should be supporting the teaching and learning environment. In amplifying the above view, Sharif (2020) showed that principals are not the only instructional leaders in a school; they are the IL team leader, and the vice-principals and subject specialists (i.e., the teachers) are members of this team. Moreover, Sharif (2020) also found that the role of principal is critical informing an IL team for better academic results of students.

According to Hoy and Miskel (2008), at the forefront of school effectiveness is the culture and leadership of the organisation and this culture can have either a positive or negative influence on academic success of students and school effectiveness. Hoy and

Miskel (2008) also stated that the culture of a school encompasses a set of shared beliefs and values which affect the values of individuals in an organisation and thus its success or failure. In an effort to allow students to gain meaningful learning from the day-to-day interaction in the classroom, intense attention has been paid to reforming educational systems (Heck, 2000). In addition, others have placed special attention to teaching curriculum and content by teachers and accountability from all persons who play a crucial role in students' learning (Heck, 2000).

2.6 ACCOUNTABILITY OF PRINCIPALS TOWARD THEIR IL ROLES

Leadership is not only the problem, but also the solution. Leaders must be accountable and must be held responsible for poor results of their organisations. In supporting this, Mason (2013:13) urged that "education is a publicly financed programme, and thus there is a robust obligation for principals, teachers, and other staff to be accountable". Accountability in school refers to the responsibility or obligation for school systems to help students to achieve the best possible academic performance. The systems of accountability in school comprise assessments and reporting of academic outcomes to the public (Haglund, 2009). According to Leithwood and Riehl (2003:2), accountability concerning the learners' performance has placed pressure on all the stakeholders such as superintendents, principals, teachers and learners. In addition, supervisors and principals are under increased pressure to improve learners' academic performance at district and school level. Promulgated systems of accountability and school districts' evaluation methods that label them as successes or failures based on defined indicators and outcomes of performance of learners contribute to the challenges school administrators face (Bracey, 2003). According to Boyce and Bowers (2018), the persistent growth of standards-based accountability places intense pressure on the school principal to provide evidence of improved student performance.

2.6.1 Accountability measures in the United States

In the United States of America, accountability for curriculum delivery; assessment and achievement pervade the public education landscape. Growing accountability devices and values have instigated state and local governments, superintendents, principals

and teachers to renovate themselves and their organisations so as to happen the ever-growing needs placed upon them. The last half century has shown remarkable developments in the public education system. According to Kress, Zechmann and Schmitten (2011:188), "Contemporary labours to enhance the public education quality were encouraged meaningfully by two key social and historical forces: the movement of civil rights and a rising and extensive worry about the major significance of education to our nationwide safety". These two areas of concern underpin the need for accountability in public education. Unfairness and disparity have been witnessed throughout the history of the public education system (Moses, 2002). Legal and governmental efforts have endeavoured to correct the inequalities in public education.

The system of accountability in United States that is based on the average marks of students encourages schools to increase marks by influencing the student population taking these examinations. However, schools have been set up to place large numbers of students with low marks in extraordinary programmes so that their marks are not taken into the accountability ratings of a school (Heilig & Darling-Hammond, 2008). Moreover, according to Heilig and Darling-Hammond (2008), an indication of deliberate placements of poorly performing students in the grade level one down from the one where accountability is required of the school have also been set up. For instance, at high school level, these activities may mean not only placement of students in programmes such as extraordinary education but also the rejection of enrolments. Systems of accountability such as these may lead to manipulation and the presentation of a false picture of the results of a school. Students with low performance may be relegated to programmes that may not be in their top preferences or in their best interests.

The accountability policy "has dramatically altered expectations for student and educator performance," claims Harris (2014:1). Principals in the Washington County school district in Virginia are held accountable by their state and school division for the academic success of their learners, according to Harris (2014). This change is important since it came at a time when the district's student success rates were, at best, decreasing or stagnant. The changes to the principal evaluation system, codified in the

Code of Virginia Section 22.1-294*,* reflect a dramatic shift in thinking about the principal leadership and achievement of student results. According to the Guidelines for Uniform Principals' Performance Standards and Evaluation Criteria, the Virginia Department of Education (2012), as described in Harris (2014:1), uses student academic progress measures to evaluate the principal which makes sense because "the most direct measure of quality of teacher looks to be the achievement of student, and principals have a direct influence on quality of teacher". In addition, Harris (2014) indicates that the assumptions driving the Virginia Department of Education's principal evaluation system appear to rest on two links: (1) the link between work of a principal and quality of a teacher; and (2) the link between quality of a teacher and student achievement. With regard to the effects of principal leadership on academic achievement of students, for more than 50 years, numerous researchers (e.g., Hallinger 2011; Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris & Hopkins, 2006; Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008) have worked to clarify these relationships, with principal IL emerging as the most effective construct for modelling how leadership impacts learning and achievement of student.

The administration of the school bears exclusive responsibility for IL in Washington County schools. No institutional programmes are offered by the district to enhance the professional ability of individual teachers. Instead, it is the role of the school to build the professional ability of the teachers. Washington County implemented the 2013–2014 principal assessment using a portfolio in which the principal was required to record if and how objectives for student academic achievement were met throughout the year. Principals generally felt anxious and unsatisfied as a result of this transition. Principals voiced two main concerns: First, in light of the current atmosphere of declining accomplishment, administrators had doubts about their ability to reach student academic progress goals. Second, principals worried that they did not have enough time to complete IL tasks.

2.6.2 Accountability measures in Canada

In Canada, according to Alberta Learning (2003, cited in Mason, 2013), the model of accountability is a student-centredmodel that emphases the following components: harmless and helpful schools; learning chances for student; achievement of student

learning; lifelong learning preparation, world of work; nationality; participation of parents; and continuous development. In Alberta, "comprehensive, open and clear information must be accessible about all features of the education system comprising strategies, finance, outcomes succeeded and all the numerous causes that impact the achievement of students" (Mason, 2013:38). This philosophical viewpoint in included in an accountability device called Alberta's Accountability Pillar. The aim of the Accountability Pillar is to present "a different way for school experts to gauge their achievement and evaluate their improvement in the direction of attaining the goals of student learning" (Alberta Education Department, 2010, cited in Mason, 2013). One of the reasons for implementing the Accountability Pillar was to ensure that uninterrupted enhancement was supported and sustained. The Accountability Pillar in Alberta means that all school experts gauge the accountability items in a similar way at the same time, thus producing reliable data that are openly appraised and reported. The systems of accountability have been criticized for numerous reasons.

Accountability can originate in several procedures and evidence concerning the achievement of the school. Alberta's present contextual climate requires that the community has the right to be familiar with and to see that their system of education is working efficiently and competently and that students are learning what they are expected to learn. Hence, describing educational stakeholders' responsibilities and holding them accountable has now become a substantial main concern for all stakeholders in community education. It is in this setting of augmented accountability in education that principals and superintendents must exhibit effective IL.

While there are numerous concerns about implementing a system of accountability in education, there are also numerous benefits. For instance, Miller and Smith (2011) found that a system of accountability that is able to recognise student performance aspects that are within the control of the school could offer stakeholders more precise information about the quality of the school after controlling for the student background effects on the outcomes of students. Evidently, in relation to the performance of students, sorting out the aspects that are within a school's control from those that are not, is easier said than done. Moreover, Miller and Smith (2011) explained that the

disadvantage of systems of accountability is that with a lack of consistent information about the real quality of the school, stakeholders of education must trust in flawed alternatives to assess the quality of the school, for example, students' socioeconomic structure and PTR. Furthermore, Miller and Smith (2011) explained that an advantage of systems of accountability is the supply of experts in the area. Provinces and states may be able to attract and retain experts to advance, execute and accomplish a system of accountability in line with the available systems of a particular school. This benefit is that that specialists in school leadership would be appointed based on capability instead of political membership. Although there are numerous reasons why policy-makers should exercise significant care when developing and implementing systems of accountability, there are numerous advantages to these systems. These advantages raise the awareness of stakeholders on community education and permit better knowledge of the strengths and weaknesses manifest in schools.

According to Hoyle, Bjork, Collier and Glass (2005), mainly because of societal and political demands, the focus on accountability of community schools has grown considerably over the past 30 years. This growth in pressure for accountability has led principals and supervisors to place more emphasis on the achievement of students and improve the performance outcomes of districts and schools. Principals' perceptions of leadership preparation and the role of accountability policies and alternative certification formed the focus a study by Militello, Gajda and Bowers (2009) in which the authors found that methods of accountability may have led to changes in principals' leadership programme content and structure. They suggested the need for the establishment of IL standards that impact the growth, provision and appraisal of principal leadership programmes to reproduce the skills principals require in the twenty-first century.

2.6.3 Accountability measures in South Africa

According to Kruger (2003), South African school principals experience two main challenges in their everyday duties of management: (1) treating school-based decisions which are more diverse than earlier; and (2) creating a complete teaching and learning culture in which successful education can happen. The government introduced initiatives to change education such as a new curriculum and an increase in site-based

management responsibilities, and with these and other growing responsibilities, principals are still accountable for the schools' academic achievement (Kruger, 2003). Moreover, Mestry (2017) explained that in South African public schools, there is a dire need for principals to take an active role in IL which is pivotal in enhancing learner performance, while they are accountable for a plethora of administrative and managerial tasks.

In conclusion, the findings of all studies described above revealed that accountability methods may have led to reforms in the content and structure of principal's preparation programmes over time and recommended that IL standards be implemented that impact the principals' preparation programmes for their IL roles.

2.6.4 Allocation and use of IL time by the principal

In recent decades, scholars have been involved in allocation and use of school time by principals through leadership and management responsibilities. In previous research, it was found that principals dedicated little school time to issues of instruction; instead, the work of principals was considered as a collection of briefs, split tasks often accompanied by incidental personal relations subjugated to issues of management and disconnected from teaching and learning (Peterson, 1977; Wolcott, 1973). A study by Pitner (1982) considered the work of principals as comprising of a few self-instigated activities, numerous activities of short duration, and a changeable work flow with an emphasis on meeting specific priorities immediately. According to Little and Bird (1984), principals infrequently demonstrated IL behaviours.

A study by Martin and Willower (1981) on principals at secondary schools noted that only 17% of school time of principals and only 8% of the activities they did relate to instructional issues. In a similar study, Willis (1980) explained that the principals of secondary schools spent only 2% of their school time observing classrooms. In another related study on principals at secondary schools, they are "noticeable by their comparative absenteeism from the instructional site, expending, averagely, 7% of their school time in classrooms" (Morris, Crowson, Porter-Gehrie & Hurwitz, 1984:57).

Other studies on elementary school principals' IL role support the results from secondary schools. Peterson (1977) found that principals of elementary school spent less than 5% of their school time in classrooms. Hanson (1981) revealed that virtually all essential decisions in the curriculum and instruction areas were made by teachers. A third study reported that principals of elementary schools spent less than 2% of their total school time performing as instructional leaders (Howell, 1981). Morris, Crowson, Porter-Gehrie and Hurwitz (1984) stated that the principals of elementary school dedicated 9% of their school time to classroom observation.

More recent studies have used more systematic techniques of data collection to appraise and recognise school time use by principals during a normal day in school. For instance, according to Horng, Klasik and Loeb (2010), despite the demonstrable connections in research between IL, quality of teachers, and achievement of students, principals typically spend less than 15% of their school daily work time on IL tasks. In the same vein, Grissom, Loeb and Master (2013) revealed that, typically, principals spent below 13% of their school time on instructional activities; school days of principals were rather dominated by managerial and administrative tasks. Likewise, May and Supovitz (2011) shown that principals disbursed a lesser portion of school time, only 8% on instruction. Conversely, Goldring, Huff and Camburn (2008) found that 20% of the usual school day of a principal was expended on matters related to instruction. Even principals who devoted over 50% of time to IL spent less than one-third of their school day engaged in it and then, the amount of time spent engaged in IL among most principals in Washington County schools was minimal (Goldring, Mavrogordato & Haynes, 2015).

The findings of all the above research are supported by researchers in Ethiopia. For example, Geleta (2015) found that administrative activities took considerable amount of the school time of principals rather than instructional activities. Moreover, Geleta (2015) found that the principals gave minimal attention to extra-curricular activities, instructional supervision, training and development of teachers, instructional materials provision and instructional time protection. Geleta (2015) recommended that the principal has to balance the instructional tasks and administrative tasks for school to be successful.

Moreover, Haile (2020) found that principals ignored the teaching and learning activities and were dedicated to political activities and were not perceived as working an instructional or transformational leader.

In conclusion, as indicated in previous studies, principals devote little school time to issues of instruction, with time dedicated to focused involvement in instructional tasks being less than one-fifth of the usual school time. These meagre numbers coupled with the literature relating to instructional leaders suggest that there is substantial merit for the involvement of principals in improving the allocation and use of IL time by principals so as to meet accountability requirements.

2.6.5 Problems of accountability in principals' IL

Little research has been conducted on boosting the time required for IL practices in schools. For the successful fulfilment of their duties and responsibilities, school principals and teachers often state that lack of time is the major challenge, even though they may work extended hours (Prinsloo, 2006). Although principals' accountability requirements are in place, principals are concerned about the lack of time they have available for tasks of IL which appears to be a common problem among principals.

The literature looks to provide the requirements for school principals to dedicate time towards IL; however, little variation in time dedicated to this feature of leadership of principal has been observed through decades. The literature analysis revealed three problems for the inadequate focus on instructional matters.

i. Norms of organisation push principals far from IL

A feature of the break between school management and teaching is what scholars on organization call the legitimacy norm, i.e., what makes IL a suitable task for principalsand teachers (Little, 1988). In a nutshell, according to Doyle (2000), the teachers' job is teaching, and the principals' task is managing. At the centre of this norm is the knowledge that teaching and learning and the places where they happen are the lawful domain of teachers (Barth, 2001). In this regard, the definitionof teacher professionalism has been shown to comprise a robust autonomy element (Smylie &

Hart, 1999). Therefore, traditionally, principals have been unwilling to intervene or investigate the practices of teaching. Principals traditionally were not believed responsible for teaching, learning and students' outcomes. Principals' evaluations depended on their capacity to preserve a conducive environment of school; that is, to preserve harmony among students and peace between teachers and principals concerning the school and the community at large. According to Murphy (2013), the formal and informal expectationsof numerous education systems therefore forcefully pushed principals far from functions of IL and in the direction of politically orientated management activities.

ii. Principals' absence of knowledge and skills about teaching, learning and associated areas necessary to carry out the IL task

Customarily, the principals' position has been a management role instead of an educational one (Murphy, 1992). According to Greenfield (1988), preparation programmes of principal are entrenched in the management discipline and mainly disregard curriculum, teaching and learning, and pedagogical matters. When accountability expectations were instituted requiring principals to answer for the results in their schools, principals were provided with insufficient tools or training to assist them with IL. The requirements for IL were and the principals' PD was not sufficient to change their behaviours and practices.

iii. Principals' lack of adequate time to accomplish IL task

Principals have many different roles with challenging expectations and desires from teachers, parents, and other stakeholders. As previously pointed out, the regular workday of principals consists of a diversity of activities and a lack of focus on IL. Some IL areas, however, need time to be allocated to actions like planning, conferencing and observing, writing, curriculum analysis, and enhancing staff's PD. The outcome is that the essential task of IL is lost among the many demands of the characteristic school day (Murphy, Hallinger, Lotto, & Miller, 1987). Many principals lack the skills of time management required for IL. The implementation of new evaluation systems for teacher with their focus on observation and feedback of teachers is an example of IL of

principals. Moreover, these new tasks are added to the daily schedule of principals. In a nutshell, increased expectations of accountability have changed the daily workload of principals who must now give attention to instruction (Murphy & Meyers, 2008; Neumerski, Grissom, Goldring, Cannata, Drake, Rubin & Scheurmann, 2014).

Even though there is no written document on principals' accountability requirements, according to the FDRE MoE (2013:11), one of the competencies of school principals in Ethiopia is IL. Consequently, the following competencies are directly linked to IL practices of principals: sharing and allocating responsibilities for quality, success and consistency of all the instructional system components (for example, curriculum, pedagogy, instructional resources and assessment of students); engaging in continuous evaluation of the success of the practices of curriculum and instruction and work cooperatively to bring about suitable reforms that enhance outcomes; having an up-to-date understanding and knowledge of teaching and learning, and how to apply such research to the students' needs in the school; applying understanding and knowledge of recent educational policy developments, education and trends in society and the environment and progress in enhancing the school's educational opportunities; and providing opportunities for all school community members to develop their ability and be involved in essential decisions of the school (FDRE MoE, 2013:11).

It remains to be seen what the impact of these changes will be. The changes in standards raise several important questions about principals' IL practices in addition to their perceptions about their IL responsibilities and their influence on teacher performance and students' academic achievement.

In conclusion, principals are expected to be instructional leaders; however, numerous studies have determined that principals truly insignificant time to IL. Several problems occur regarding principals increasing their IL time: normal organisational tasks push principals away from IL; the various demands on school time of principals create it difficult to concentrate on instruction; and they may lack knowledge and skills about instruction.

2.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

According to Grant and Osanloo (2014:13), a theoretical framework is described as "the 'blueprint' for a research study. It works as a guide for constructing a research study and offers the structure to describe how the researcher will philosophically, epistemologically, methodologically and analytically approach the research study as a whole". Moreover, theoretical framework denotes "the theory that the researcher selects to lead him or her in their research study" (Imenda, 2014:189). This study was based on Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) PIMRS IL model. For the sake of clarification, some of the well-known theories and models of IL are discussed below.

2.7.1 Theories and models of IL

The theory of IL has been extensively studied (Akiba, 2017; Hallinger & Walker, 2017), and there are several theories and models that describe IL. The researcher chose the following eight prominent and widely used theories and models in the literature on educational leadership and management. These are: Murphy's (1990) Model, Leithwood's (1994) theory, Weber's (1996) model, Blasé and Blasé's (2000) theory, McEwan's (2003) model, Maryland State's (2005) IL Framework, Baldanza's (2016) IL Model of 21st Century and Hallinger and Murphy (1985) Model also called the PIMRS IL model,The eight models and theories of IL are briefly presented below.

2.7.1.1Murphy's (1990) IL model

Through a methodical and thorough analysis and synthesis of the literature on effective schools, school reform, organisational transformation, and staff development research, Murphy developed his model. Based on his analysis, Murphy developed a framework for IL that included four IL aspects that were divided into sixteen behaviours or functions. Development of the school's mission and goals includes defining and communicating its goals; management of the educational production function which includes promoting quality instruction, overseeing and evaluating instruction, allocating and safeguarding instructional time, coordinating the curriculum, and tracking student progress; and creation of the academic learning climate which includes setting high expectations and standards, maintaining high visibility, and offering rewards to teachers.

2.7.1.2Leithwood's (1994) theory of IL

Leithwood (1994) regarded IL as having four major components. First, IL emphasises the principal's role in developing, guiding and supervising the curriculum and instruction in the classroom. This mode of leadership places the principal to a great extent in control of the classroom involvement with a strong and directive presence in the school. Secondly, principals as instructional leaders are more hands-on with their teachers so as to advance teaching and learning. Third, principals as instructional leaders are goal-oriented. Lastly, principals as instructional leaders create high expectations and criteria for teachers and students.

2.7.1.3Weber's (1996) IL model

Weber (1996:254) stated that "The leaderless-team method to instructional programme of a school has prevailing demand, but a large group of professionals still desires a particular point of connection and an active promoter for teaching and learning". Weber's model focuses on shared leadership, and he gives emphasis to the idea that IL is essential irrespective of the nature of the organisation. Weber (1996) recognised five vital IL elements:

- defining the school mission in collaboration with other stakeholders and developing common school goals;
- managing curriculum and instruction which involves ensuring the alignment of classroom practice with the mission of the school, offering resources and assistance in the application of best instructional practices, and modelling and offering assistance in the use of data to track instruction;
- encouraging a positive school learning climate where the role of the instructional leader is to communicate goals, create expectations, and establish a well-ordered learning environment;
- observing and improving instruction where the instructional leader witnesses and supports instruction through the implementation of PD chances and classroom observation; and

- assessing the instructional programme which involves the planning, organising, managing, and evaluation of assessments that appraise the usefulness of the curriculum.

Weber's (1996) model is consistent with the Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) and Murphy's (1990) models and includes many of similar components.

2.7.1.4 Blasé and Blasé's (2000) theory of IL

Blasé and Blasé (2000) theory of effective IL resulted straight from the data. It comprises two main themes: conversation with teachers to encourage reflection and encouraging PD. Conversation comprises the informal components of the duties of the principals, in addition to relationships with the staff and community. Instructional leaders show effective communications by making recommendations and offering comments to improve teaching and learning, demonstrating effective teaching, and asking for information from staff and community members. Principals also encourage the PD of teachers. Principals can encourage PD through building synergy among teachers, developing coaching relationships among educators, drafting learning and growth strategies for the staff development phases and using action research to reach data-based conclusions.

2.7.1.5 McEwan's (2003) IL model

McEwan's (2003) IL model recognises seven broad phases leaders want to achieve so as to have an effective school. The steps involve:

- creating and applying academic standards;
- being a resource of instruction for the staff;
- generating a school culture and climate favourable to learning;
- communicating the school vision and mission;
- establishing high expectations for the administration and staff;
- growing teacher leaders; and
- creating/ keeping positive relationships with staff, students and parents.

This and other current models of IL include transformational features of leadership; for example, communicating vision of the school; generating a school culture and climate favourable to learning; encouraging PD; creating individual relationships with the staff and community; assisting cooperation among teachers; and impacting followers via being a model.

2.7.1.6The Maryland State's (2005) IL Framework

According to the Maryland State Board of Education (2005), the IL function of a principal has eight main components, which make up the Maryland IL Framework:

- assisting in the creation of a school vision;
- connecting all aspects of a school's culture to adult and student learning;
- observing how curriculum, instruction, and assessment are connected;
- enhancing teaching techniques through deliberate observation and evaluation of teachers;
- ensuring the regular integration of appropriate assessments into daily classroom instruction;
- using technology and multiple sources of data to improve classroom instruction.

This framework is vital as it requires the school principals to have the necessary content knowledge to be the leader of teaching and learning in the school; and the framework, according to the Maryland State Department of Education (2005), signifies the most commonly recognised instructional accountabilities acknowledged by researchers, practitioners, and theorists in the field of IL and CPD.

2.7.1.7Baldanza's (2016) 21st century IL model

Baldanza (2016) established a practical and workable IL model that is founded on theories from various studies. The model reflects the school leadership aspects that shift the needle on achievement of students. Baldanza began with a wide-ranging theories of action nearby four great concepts: strong promotion and leadership, a professional teaching culture, continuous enhancement of teaching capability, and outcomes-focused teams. Then, Baldanza explained each element in detail as follows:

- Strong promotion and leadership can be described by emerging, promoting, and endorsing a shared mission, vision and core values of the school dedicated to each student; striving for fairness and cultural awareness while handling resources to achieve goals and enhanced results; leading a learning community with aknowledge of management of change; nurturing useful and trusting stakeholders' relationships; and developing an individual learning system and mentoring. Leadership would then be a strong facilitator (catalyst) for enhanced teaching and learning.

- Professional culture can be explained by performing ethically based onagreed-upon norms in the profession; nurturing a compassionate and comprehensive culture according to ethical practices that keep students front and centre; implementing the adult learning theory to develop ability in others and assist learning in the profession; giving opportunities for cooperation and job-based learning; mentoring and coaching others by demonstrating, inquiring, and evaluating practice. Everybody recognises their determination, roles and accountabilities and is a full member in the school's life.

- Continuous enhancement of teaching capability can be implemented by focusing on emerging curriculum, instruction, and assessment and accepting no excuses for indecision and failure; progressing teaching after evaluating and reforming priorities around instructional needs; accepting and integrating digital tools to improve teamwork and communication; observing classrooms regularly and providing feedback to teachers and students; nurturing curricular consistency and improvement that aligns goals, learning and assessments with the mission, vision and core values; and establishing a forward-thinking culture targeted at the present and future needs of individual students.

- Outcomes-focused groups involve the local community in the profession, including different stakeholders in significant work; observing and assisting high-quality, standards-based curriculum, instruction, and assessment; planning; models of assistance for teachers and students; gathering and analysing data on which to base instructional judgements; and pinpointing and emerging teacher leaders comprising induction and mentoring models. Groups can be highly effective problem-solvers

with responsibility and power to create change and implement decisions that assist individual students.

2.7.1.8Hallinger and Murphy'sPIMRS IL model

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) developed a model of IL comprising three dimensions: defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate.

- Defining the school mission comprises framing the school goals and communicating the school goals. This dimension concerns the role of the principal in deciding the school's central purposes. The dimension centres on the role of the principal in working with staff to make sure that the school has explicit, quantifiable, time-centred goals targeted on the students' academic progress. It is the responsibility of the principal to communicate these goals so that they are broadly recognized by the school community.

- Managing the instructional programme consists of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. This dimension needs the principal to be profoundly involved in the curriculum of the school, and in motivating, supervising and observing school's teaching and learning. This dimension demands that the principal has knowledge of teaching and learning, as well as a dedication to the improvement of the school. It is this dimension that needs the principal to step "hip-deep" into the instructional programme of the school (Dwyer, 1986; Edmonds, 1979; Marshall, 1996). This dimension also involves the instructional supervision of the classroom.

- Developing a positive school learning climate includes five job functions: protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, providing incentives for learning. This dimension is wider in coverage and determination than the other two. A culture of continuous enhancement is developed by instructionally successful schools in which incentives for student and staff are associated with practices and outcomes (Hallinger & Murphy, 1986; Leithwood & Montgomery, 1982). The principal is responsible for creating the climate of the school. This consists of ensuring that there is a standard of excellence

and expectations are accepted by the community of the school. This is accomplished by offering incentives to staff and students, and protecting the instructional time required for classroom instruction. The principal is also highly visible on the school compound and in the classrooms.

Hallinger's PIMRS IL model has been used in more than 250 survey studies worldwide in 30 countries (Hallinger, 2015). It is also used in the current study.

In conclusion, even though there are variations among the theories and models of IL, all eight theories and models indicate the significance of ten major IL functions:

- Framing and communicating school mission, vision and goals;
- Managing curriculum and instruction;
- Monitoring the alignment of curriculum, instruction and assessment;
- Monitoring and providing feedback on the teaching and learning process;
- Protecting instructional time;
- Maintaining high visibility in the school compound and classroom;
- Developing and promoting a positive school learning climate;
- Creating a positive relationship with staff, students and parents;
- Promoting needs-based PD; and
- Providing incentives/ rewards for teachers and students.

From the eight theories and models of IL, Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) PIMRS IL model was chosen by the researcher to guide this study, because it explains IL as behaviours of principals that encourage and progress the process of teaching and learning in secondary schools in Ethiopian context, and it involves principals, teachers, and supervisors. It is explained in detail in the next section.

2.7.2 Theoretical foundation for the study: PIMRS IL model

The theoretical framework works as an epistemological guide or an evaluation tool that helps to interpret the knowledge presented in a study. The significance of IL at school level has led to a closer investigation of secondary school principals' perceptions on their IL practices and a better understandingof what these principals as instructional

leaders do with respect to the dimensions of effective IL. Hence, based on numerous prominent theories and models of IL which have been proposed from the 1980s to this time, in this study, the PIMRS IL model proposed by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) was adopted to guide the study. This model was first developed in 1985 via research processes and further improved in 2003 by Hallinger through the development of three psychometrically comprehensive dimensions which further outlined ten job functions of IL with the measuring instrument named PIMRS (Hallinger, 2003). Since the dimensions and the job functions of this model have been effective in the practice of IL and are centred on mission, instructional programme and school climate, they are crucial in-school factors in the Ethiopian education context.

A paradigm is a manner of looking at the world. It consists of philosophical assumptions (ontology, epistemology, and axiology) that guide and direct thinking and action (Mertens, 2015). The theoretical/philosophical foundation for this study is also guided by the application of pragmatism. Pragmatism derives from the effort of Peirce, James, Mead, and Dewey (Cherryholmes, 1992, as cited in Creswell, 2014:132). Current authors include herryholmes (1992), Murphy (1990), Patton (1990) and Rorty (1990). Pragmatism as a paradigm arises out of activities, circumstances and consequences instead of predetermined circumstances as in positivism (Creswell, 2014). Hence, in a mixed methods study, researchers need to describe their philosophical positions clearly so as to be capable of justifying their methodological choices (Cameron, 2011). In this study, pragmatism was used as a theoretical or philosophical lens. This means that pragmatism was used in using the PIMRS IL model. Pragmatism is discussed more deeply in sub-section 4.2.1 of Chapter 4. However, with regard to PIMRS IL model, a brief explanation is supplied to elucidate the uniqueness and features of each of its dimensions. The model as the theoretical lens for investigating principals' perceptions and experiences with IL practices and little about pragmatism as a way of justifying mixing methods are discussed below. Figure 2.1 shows a diagrammatic representation of the PIMRS IL model dimensions and the job functions of the model.
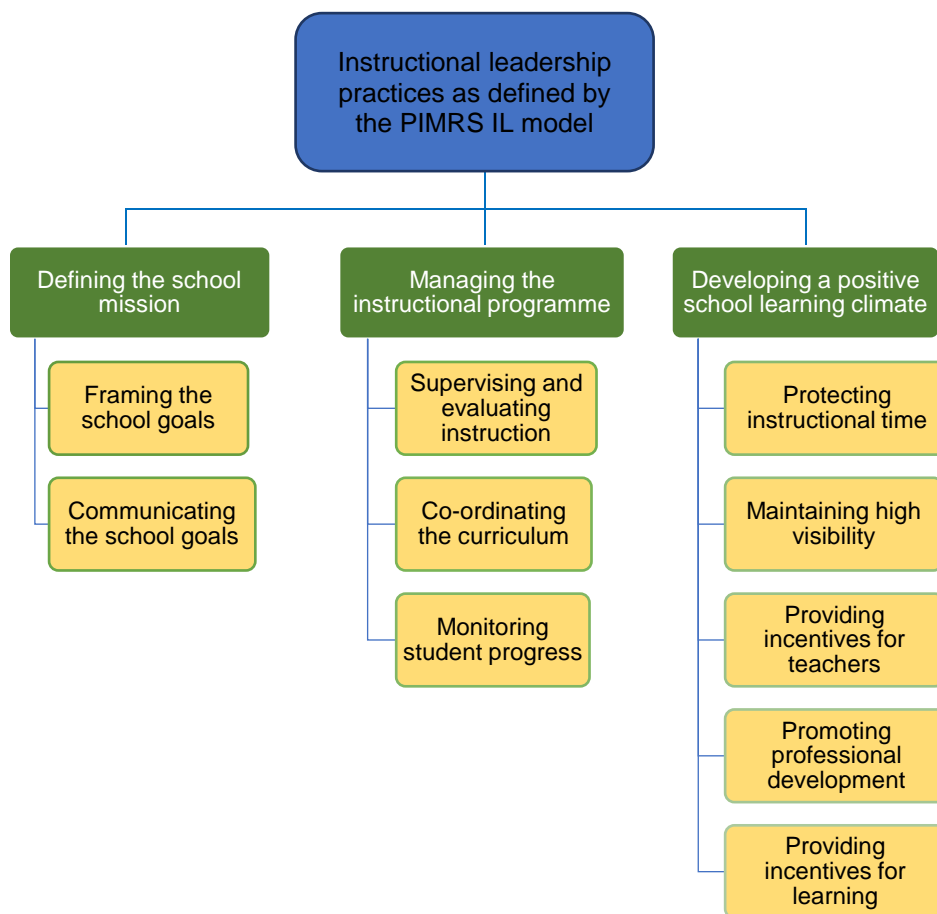
Figure 2.1: PIMRS conceptual framework for IL practices of principals

Source: Hallinger and Murphy (1985:221).

2.7.2.1 Principals' IL practices with regard to defining the school mission

Mission is a broad and general statement about the basic purpose of an organisation. An organisation's mission statement describes exactly why it is in business, what it produces, and goals that are related to quality, continuous enhancement and continuing customer satisfaction. In the case of a school, a mission defines the school's purpose and primary objectives. Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018) stated that school principals usually define the mission of school. Principals should have obvious, quantifiable and achievable goals concerning learning accomplishments of students (Gawlik, 2018; Hallinger & Murphy, 2013). According to Bush (2014), school goal-setting can be done by the principal himself or by the principals together with the staff. The prepared goals

are then communicated to all members of school to facilitate their recognition and ensure the accomplishment of the set goals. Moreover, defining a school mission includes revealing this mission to the staff and other stakeholders in such a way that a sense of communal purpose is developed, combining the numerous actions that happen in classrooms throughout the school. The role of the principal in defining the mission includes framing school-wide goals and communicating these goals in a continual mode to the whole community of the school.

This dimension is further divided into framing the school goals and communicating the school goals (Hallinger, 2003). A significant function of the role of principal as instructional leader is to outline and communicate a school's mission or purpose. This is supported by Grizzard (2007) who agrees that it is the principals' responsibility to establish a clear academic mission. The dimension focuses on the role of principal in collaborating with staff to make sure that the school has explicit, quantifiable, time-bound goals aimed at ensuring the learners' academic progress. Based on the relationship between the principal and staff, IL closely aligns with transactional leadership (Bass & Riggo, 2006). In transactional leadership, the principal focuses on existing relationships, clarifying for staff the direction and degree of participation they need to focus on in order to meet the predetermined goals (Hallinger, 2003). Because transactional leadership seeks to manage or control staff in moving towards defined goals, it is also the responsibility of the principal to communicate these goals with the intention that they are extensively acknowledged and reinforced throughout the school. However, school mission statements can be dictated by the authorities, in case of FDRE; according to MoE (2013), the MoE may determine the mission statements of every public school. Hence, the school's mission is derived from its respective Bureau of Education. Thus, principals may not need to be bothered about framing a mission statement for their school. However, understanding them well and harmonising them with their school's vision statement is essential. Each function of defining the school mission is discussed below briefly.

i. Framing the school goals

This function involves the principal in deciding the issues in which school staff will target their emphasis and resources for the period of a given school year. Staff and parents' contribution to the goals of school are essential. The goals should use data on earlier and present performance of the students and comprise responsibilities of staff in meeting the goals. The principal's role in framing the school goals involves getting all stakeholders involved in the process, thus determining a vision of achievement for all students attending schools (Hallinger, 2003). This means steering the staff and the parents in the direction that will improve the teaching and learning in the school for the specific academic year. Principals need to ensure that all members of stakeholders are aware of the plans that are to be implemented and that they assume their responsibilities in carrying out this mandate (Grizzard, 2007). This opinion is supported by Hallinger (2003) who stated that the goals of the school must be articulated to all stakeholders and each individual must be aware of the goals and support them as outlined by the principal. Instructionally successful schools frequently have explicitly defined school goals that focus on the achievement of students. The emphasis is on a smaller number of goals to which the energy of the staff and other resources of the school can be directed. A few harmonised objectives, each with a controllable scope, seem to work best.

ii. Communicating the school goals

This function is concerned with the way in which the principal communicates the important goals of the school to teaching and non-teaching staff members, students, parents and stakeholders. This is vital to keep stakeholders focused on the end goal and ensure the success of the school plan. The most effective skill a leader can possess is that of effective communication. Therefore, it is imperative that principals master this concept when communicating the school goals to staff and other stakeholders as this will reinforce the importance of carrying out the stipulated goals (Adair, 2011). Moreover, as principals effectively communicate the school goals, the urgency is conveyed in a clear and simple manner which fosters understanding and a shared sense of purpose (Adair, 2011). Therefore, promoting the goals and objectives

of the school will allow teachers to understand the need to enhance students' performance. Furthermore, principals can make sure that the significance of the school goals is acknowledged by discussing them with staff from time to time during the school year, particularly in the context of curricular, instructional and financial decisions. To communicate their school's mission, the principal could follow various strategies, including formal communications (e.g., statements of goal, bulletins of the staff, curricular and staff assemblies, teacher and parent discussions, school handbook, gatherings) and informal communications (e.g., discussions with staff, social meetings, newsletters, websites, and e-mails). The principals can also go into the community to share the school's mission at community meetings and functions. According to Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018), this provides an opportunity for principals to open the goals of the school up to discussion. At these meetings, the school's academic goals, teaching and learning and student academic achievement are discussed.

2.7.2.2 Principals' IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme

The instructional programme denotes a replicable instructional action that is planned and executed to attain an instructional goal. The instructional programme comprises both the curricular and co-curricular activities of the school and is considered as the school's extended curriculum. The curriculum, as an academic plan, concerns itself with the range of subject matter, the learning activities and evaluation (Ovwigho, 2004). Aquokogbuo (2000:38) defined the curriculum as "all the students' learning experiences which are designed and guided by the school to achieve its goals of education". This means that the curriculum is made up of all the experiences (curricular and co-curricular) to which students are exposed under the guidance of the school. Curricular activities are academic activities that students learn in the classroom or workshop or laboratory. It is the principal's responsibility as an instructional leader to provide curricular activities in their school. For a principal to succeed, they should provide required facilities, guidance, motivation and equal opportunity for all the students in the school. To enable the students to benefit from the activities, the principal should take responsibility for these very seriously.

On the other hand, co-curricular activities are non-academic activities that students participate in. They are instrumental in improving social interaction, self-discipline, leadership, health and self-confidence. They also aid cultivate the qualities of resilience, confidence, tenacity and perseverance, which prepare students to prosper in a quickly changing world outside of school. Through co-curricular activities, students in their early teens can take up tangible responsibilities of community. Students can join different clubs, organisations, based on their inclinations like, games and sports, arts, societies and clubs. Students, can, for example, join the Red Cross club, where they render first aid at public events.

The second dimension of IL engages in managing the instructional programme. Managing the instructional programme entails engaging with teachers on issues particularly connected to curriculum and instruction. This dimension involves and emphases the coordination and control of instruction and curriculum by principal (Bush, 2014; Hallinger, 2003). The principals need to encourage, supervise and monitor teaching and learning in schools (Hallinger, Walker, Thi Hong, Truong & Nguyen, 2017). According to Hallinger, Hosseingholizadeh, Hashemi and Kouhsari (2018), the principals carry out formal and informal classroom observations and offer feedback on teaching practice. In supervising and evaluating instruction, they ensure that the learning processes and objectives are consistent with the school mission (Nguyen & Yap, 2017). The principal of the school must be intensely involved in motivating, supervising and evaluating teaching and learning. It is this dimension that needs the principal to be engaged 'hip-deep' (Marshall, 1996) in supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum and monitoring student progress (Hallinger, 2003). During these functions, the principal plays a more active role in the school's instructional development and is responsible for coordinating the objectives for classrooms, offering instructional assistance to staff and checking instruction in the classroom by making frequent casual classroom visits (Hallinger, 2003). These functions require that the principal has knowledge of teaching and learning, along with the potential to enhance the effectiveness of the school. School effectiveness relies to a large extent on curricular materials, instructional objectives and assessment. Principals, as instructional leaders, can work to ensure that materials for the curriculum used in

their schools align with the instructional objectives of the school, that such materials support teaching and learning, and that the tools for assessment are available to monitor progress of the student. Each of the job functions of managing the instructional programme is discussed below.

i.   Supervising and evaluating instruction

According to Hallinger (2003), a key role or task of the principal is supervising and evaluating instruction. Through supervising and evaluating instruction, the principal ensures that the school goals are embedded in the practice of the school as well as meeting with the staff or individual teachers for discussions in an effort to improve students' academic performance. In the supervision and evaluation of instructions, it is imperative that principals distinguish between the terms as they are often misused and misunderstood (Hallinger, 2003).

A vital task is to ensure that goals of the school are translated into practice in the classroom. This comprises matching the teachers' classroom objectives with the objectives of the school, offering teachers instructional support, and monitoring instruction in the classroom by means of informal visits to the classroom. For both supervisory and evaluative purposes, feedback to teachers needs to be tangible and linked to specific practices of instruction conducted by the teachers (Stallings, 1980). One of the dimensions of IL in a school is that the principal evaluates instruction by carrying out informal classroom observation on a frequent basis and confirms that teachers' objectives of the classroom are in agreement with the specified school goals. In doing this, the principal meets with the teachers to make sure that they are working to meet the agreed objectives.

According to Udeozor (2004:28), instructional supervision is "the teaching and learning improvement for the highest advantage of the learner who is considered as the focus of education". Instructional supervision involves the evaluation of specific learning situations to ensure the students' needs are met and that instructional efficiency and pedagogy aid instruction. It also involves making specific recommendations for instructional improvement and support in meeting the needs of students; evaluating

instruction with a view to curriculum development and review and for the improvement of resource provision and methods and techniques of instruction. Instructional supervision seeks to stimulate change by helping, advising and counselling teachers as well as planning, discussing and positively engaging with them. In this regard, the principal is not seen as educating the teachers; rather, he provides specialised skills in helping them to educate themselves and in the process; he educates himself (Udeozor, 2004). It can be stated that in the modern context of supervision of instruction, the formation and maintenance of acceptable human relations among members of staff is crucial. Modern instructional supervision focuses more on the basics of education and the improvement of learning. This is to say that teaching and learning situation becomes its centre of concern with the principal and teachers collaborating to improve a given programme of education. Nolan and Hoover (2011:6) posited that "teacher supervision is concerned with the promotion of the growth of teachers, which guides to teaching performance improvement and better learning of the student". Supervision, therefore, seeks to promote growth beyond the teachers' current level of competence (Nolan & Hoover, 2011). Ogulu (2014) listed the following elements of instructional supervision:

- improving the quality of teaching and learning for the benefit of both the learners and the teachers;
- ensuring that every teacher in the school is effectively performing the duties assigned to him or her;
- assisting teachers in developing needed teaching competencies;
- assessing teachers' effectiveness in classroom management;
- help teachers to solve the professional problems they may encounter in their work;
- helping teachers in identifying their strength and weaknesses with a view to providing relevant in-service training;
- helping new teachers to have an explicit knowledge of the objective, role and relationship of their positions as well as the direction of their efforts in the school; and
- identifying those teachers who should be promoted, retained, redeployed or disengaged.

In addition, Ensley (2014:44-45) perceived instructional supervision as"a procedure of providing and getting assistance to progress performance and to address problems that happen between teachers and students, or actions intended at impacting the teaching and learning quality". Additionally, supervision seeks to monitor and enhance the PD of teachers while at the same time acknowledging the complex and unique nature of each classroom (Nolan & Hoover, 2011). Nolan and Hoover (2011) further asserted that supervision is narrowly focused. Therefore, as principals engage in the process, the instrument that is used should be tailored to address the needs of the teacher. In addition, the supervisory process takes on a more formative basis, is more individualised and allows both principals and teachers to share their knowledge. Hence, growth occurs on both sides (Nolan and Hoover, 2011).

Acheson and Gall (2010) contended that the time used in classroom instruction is a very limited resource and the manner in which teachers use the time will affect how well students learn. Hence, the responsibility lies with the principal to monitor and supervise the teachers (Acheson & Gall, 2010). Nolan and Hoover (2011) and Acheson and Gall (2010) postulated that, during supervision of teachers, the principal must meet with the teacher. This will allow the teacher to voice their personal concerns, needs and aspirations. This forum therefore allows principals to share their expertise with the teacher and provide feedback which is used to clear up any disparities about instruction that might have existed (Acheson & Gall, 2010; Nolan & Hoover, 2011). This affords the teacher the opportunity to explore options that will allow them to use new ideas or techniques that will be useful during the delivery of the lesson (Nolan & Hoover, 2011). The principal's role involves visiting the classrooms regularly for a few minutes and talking to the teachers in order to learn about their concerns and problems (Acheson & Gall, 2010). When this is facilitated, the principal will be able to provide the type of leadership that is reflective of what is happening in the school rather than what they may think is happening in the school environment (Acheson & Gall, 2010).

On the other hand, "evaluation of the teacher is intended to create an inclusive judgement regarding performance and competence of teacher for the purposes of personal judgements such as tenancy and ongoing engagement" (Nolan & Hoover,

2011:6). Nolan and Hoover (2011) further asserted that evaluation serves to address the competence of teachers. Therefore, evaluation ensures satisfactory performance of teachers and is concerned with the protection of children from incompetent teacher behaviour (Nolan & Hoover, 2011). Evaluation involves using a broad, standards-based approach (Nolan & Hoover, 2011). Therefore, standardized instruments (appraisal documents) are used to evaluate the teacher's practice and the data collection takes a more summative approach (Nolan and Hoover, 2011). Acheson and Gall (2010) stated that supervising and monitoring of teachers is complex, but it is essential to gain information about the teaching and learning experience. They further noted that the principal is the person most responsible for the evaluation of teachers. This evaluation must therefore be aligned to teaching strategies, teaching techniques and the use of contact teaching time (Acheson & Gall, 2010).

According to Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018), the majority of the school principals observe teachers' instruction via formal and informal classroom observations and offer feedback separately or in a group through meetings with teachers in line with these observations. In this regard, it can be said that school principals display the behaviours of instructional supervision and evaluation. Achievements of students are reviewed during instructional supervision and teachers' instructional approaches are linked to assessment. The principal notes and points out particular strengths and weaknesses in instructional practices of teachers in post-observation conferences as well as in written feedback. Moreover, the principal notes time on task of students and offers feedback to teachers. Acheson and Gall (2010) posited that there is a need for principals to provide reflective feedback to the teachers. This feedback provides teachers with the opportunity to review the data on the effectiveness of their teaching and critical reflect on developmentally appropriate practices (Acheson & Gall, 2010).

Regarding the instructional supervision practices in Ethiopian primary and secondary schools, as teaching and learning process is a typical and ongoing process, the supervision function at the school level should also be an ongoing duty. The instructional supervisors in a school setting are the principal, vice-principals, supervisors, department heads and mentors (senior teachers). As stipulated in the ETP

educational programmes supervision manual (FDRE MoE, 1994), the roles and responsibilities of principals as instructional supervisors at the school level are:

- making a favourable school environment to facilitate the activities of supervision by establishing entire essential resources;
- offering professional support and supervision to teachers to allow them to implement objectives of instruction;
- supervising classrooms when considered necessary;
- matching appraisal of the process and outcome of teaching and learning by encouraging staff members' and local community's active involvement;
- synchronizing the efforts of the school staff members and other professional educators to review and reinforce activities of supervision; and
- instigating the evaluation of school community relations and, on the basis of the results of evaluation, improving and reinforcing such relations.

ii.   Coordinating the curriculum

The fundamental role of education is the transformation of the society through the sustenance of the societal values, norms, traditions, beliefs or the accumulated knowledge. These desirable elements of culture in the society are further built into the schools' plan of action. This plan can be referred to as the school curriculum which serves as "a vehicle through which the school moves in the direction of the achievement of the planned educational goals" (Udeozor, 2004:44). Coordinating the curriculum is "the extent to which curricular objectives of the school are associated with content of course, tests of achievement, and the continuousness in succession of curriculum allover grade levels" (Hallinger, 2009:24). Furthermore, Hallinger (2003) stated that the coordinating of the curriculum is of critical significance that stands out in effective IL. He further pointed out that the principal is accountable for ensuring that the objectives within the curriculum are being implemented and there are interactions among teachers within and across grades.

The argument of Hallinger is supported by Yunas and Iqbal (2013) who stated that principals are seen as being responsible for curricula coordination across grade levels

and ensuring the teachers cover the objectives and goals of the schools in the stipulated timeframe. Yunas and Iqbal (2013) further contended that the principal is seen as being responsible for ensuring that students who may have missed classes can make up the lessons so that these students do not suffer. Hutton (2011) also found that principals with high performance understand students' academic achievement as the most serious and important of all the school's goals. There is a robust opinion by the most of principals with high performance that learners should be offered each chance to accomplish so that they can understand their own latent and development. Thus, as principals monitor the teaching and learning exercise, they can assess the extent to which alternative strategies are used that assist learners to demonstrate competencies (Hutton, 2011).

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009) stated that, in order for the curriculum to be successfully implemented, careful planning is needed, and such planning must be initiated by the leadership of the principal. Murphy, Elliot, Goldring and Porter (2006:65) mentioned that "effective school leaders are well-informed about and intensely engaged in the curricular programmes of school". According to Chapman and Mongon (2008), principals should administer and support the programmes of teaching and learning; they should emphasise compliance with the teaching and learning standards and they address the challenges as they arise.

According to Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018), most school principals follow routine practices for the working of the curriculum, coordinating the curricular objectives between the grade levels and addressing the difficulties faced during the execution of the programme. Moreover, Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018) stated that teachers are required to address methodological difficulties faced during the implementation of curricular programmes. They further posited that school principals were not committed to the development or management of the curriculum and left these judgements to teachers.

According to Dempster (2009:22), "the principal is a key to effective implementation of curriculum in school and there are a number of straight activities, which he takes to make sure achievement". These activities comprise: launching the curriculum change in

the school; ensuring that the curriculum is implemented; offering the community evidence related to the requirement for curriculum change; describing roles in the curriculum change efforts; offering sufficient resources of human and physical for the curriculum change; scheduling thecurriculum change process to suit the local conditions; and offering sufficient supervision to ensure that the curriculum is being properly executed. The principal is accountable for coordinating the curriculum across the grade levels and making certain that the academic goals of the school align with the objectives of the curriculum, and these are achieved by teachers within the specific timeframe.

The principal intervenes to take care of those students who miss the required courses and necessary adjustment is made so that no one suffers. They observe the classrooms to determine whether instructional time is used for educating. According to Wayne and Miskel (2008:66), arrangements should be made for the "introduction of a variety of actions to provide for the diverse students' needs and interests". The principal should delegate staff to guide the activities of the students and proper allotment of time should be made in the schools. The students should enjoy freedom of choice and freedom to change. Whenever there is a change in societal needs, the administrator leads other school personnel in re-aligning school activities to suit the changing needs of the society. Through supervised and evaluated instruction, coordination and implementation of curriculum are achieved. Next, monitoring student progress is considered.

iii.   Monitoring student progress

Monitoring student progress is described as the degree to which principals check whether things are going according to plan. Results of tests are discussed with the staff. According to Hallinger (1983:21), "results of test are used for setting of goals, assessment of curriculum, planning, and growth measurement in the direction of goals of the school". Monitoring student progress involves the principal placing emphasis on the various tests and assessment measures (Yunas & Iqbal, 2013). As instructional leader, the principal is responsible for using the test results to make a prognosis and evaluation about students' strengths and weaknesses and implement programmes that will mediate the weaknesses identified (Yunas & Iqbal, 2013). Therefore, the principal

needs to have adequate expertise in data analysis. According to Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018), a large number of school principals assess development of students by monitoring them by means of evaluation instruments; for example, written tests and examinations. Good principals supply teachers and parents with the results of assessment on a continuing basis (Levine & Stark, 1982:39). In this manner, they recognise the students' progress regarding their learning.

The principal assimilates a diversity of information on learning of students (e.g., work products of students, standardised tests, tests on the curriculum) to evaluate the instructional programme of the school and progress in the achievement of the goals of the school. Teachers use this information for purposes of highlighting areas of concern, modifying their strategies of instruction and following up on the progress of students. The regular monitoring of and feedback on student results strengthens the accountability and the trust that schools can create an improvement in the teaching and learning. Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018) established that schools are expected to monitor learning of students, and actions need to be taken to help them overcome any difficulties. Furthermore, Goldring, Mavrogordato and Haynes (2015) stated that principals need to connect student data to educational policies as well as develop an in-depth understanding of relevant data. Furthermore, according to Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018), regarding the reasons for failure of students, some principals have interviews with teachers, and the teachers who are regarded as ineffective in these interviews are provided with support on how to improve their pedagogy.

Hutton (2011) found that it is essential that principals spend time observing, monitoring and intervening in the progress of students. This allows principals to establish an equilibrium among all the activities of the school. Both skills of relationship-building and communication are applied by the principals of high-performing schools. These skills permit the principals of high-performing schools to form personal relationships with members of the staff, students, other stakeholders and the community at large, essential to building trust and creating a climate of honesty and respect. Hutton (2011) stated there is a need for the establishment of strong values and responsibility among students. This can be supported by providing a variety of interventions in the schools.

Furthermore, Hutton (2011) highlighted that this can be accomplished by improving the physical facilities, by implementing novel and improved academic programmes, and using technology which can aid in improving literacy. To evaluate progress of students towards the standards established and to support the different types of instructional planning, principals should: make certain that teachers are using information from a diversity of effective and reliable sources before they start lesson planning. This could comprise data concerning backgrounds, academic levels and interests of students, along with other data from records of students to ascertain their academic needs. It is vital for the principal to remember that information concerning students and their parents is used by the staff for professional purposes only and is regarded as private as it is an issue of professional ethics. The principal decides whether teachers are using both formative and summative assessments to help in planning instruction. Data on formative assessments offer useful information on the student learning status as they progress through their lessons. Data from summative assessments allows the teachers to assess their students' long-term memory retention rate and to compare learning of students on a regional, state, or national basis. Such data confirms whether teachers are making progress and keeping adequate records of student progress linked to the curriculum outcomes. Students and parents should know about the progress of students on the way to meeting regional and national goals and objectives via recommendations about their personal work, progress reports, meetings, report cards and other assessments. Students should be motivated to take part in self-assessment as a means of encouraging students to enhance their academic achievement.

2.7.2.3 Principals' IL practices with regard to developing a positive school learning climate

School learning climate can be defined as the staff and students' norms and attitudes that impact school learning (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This last dimension states that the principals need to create circumstances that make teachers and students more effective in teaching, learning, and enhancing the quality of education (Donoghue, 2007). The principals ensure that students have sufficient hours for learning. Moreover, according to Bush (2014), principals need to develop professionalism of teachers and

provide rewards to teachers and students for their accomplishments. Furthermore, this dimension is concerned with the development of a positive learning climate for the school (Hallinger, 2003). The dimension involves mainly indirect, though significant, actions.

According to Sebastian and Allenworth (2012), IL generates the most significant results by creating a positive school learning climate. Consequently, a positive school learning climate has a strong impactonbehaviours of students, management of classrooms, and achievement of academic expectations by students (Kane, Taylor, Tyler & Wooten, 2010). Leadership is vital to the achievement of goals in all organisations because it can impact the school climate either positively or negatively (Ensley, 2014). According to Hallinger and Murphy (1985), principals can impact attitudes of teachers and students by establishing a reward system that supports academic achievement and useful work; by the use of explicit, clear standards expressing what the school expects from students; by way of the careful use of school time; and by implementing high-quality PD programmes for staff development.

This dimension leads to the idea that effective schools form an 'academic press' by way of the high standards set for teachers and learners. Effective schools that implement IL develop a continuous improvement culture where staff and learner rewards are associated with practices and outcomes (Hallinger, 2011). The principal is visible in the school compound and in the classrooms. The principal demonstrates value and practices that create a school climate to assist the uninterrupted enhancement of teaching and learning. In developing a positive school learning climate, the principal is responsible for carrying out these job functions: protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD and providing incentives for learning (Hallinger, 2003). A brief explanation of each function is presented below.

i.   Protecting instructional time

According to Anderson (1983), instructional time is the portion of classroom time spent teaching students on particular knowledge, concepts and skills included in school

subjects (i.e., it does not include routine procedural matters or discipline). Van der Merwe (2018) explained that timewasters, for instance, unprepared lessons of teachers, teacher and learner absenteeism and teacher and learner lateness, impacted instructional time in schools. Leonard (2009) indicated that violation of instructional time was challenging in numerous schools and that the leadership to sufficiently resolve the problem may be absent. Classroom management and instructional skills of teachers are not spent optimally if instruction is regularly disturbed by late students, announcements, and office demands (Hallinger, 2003). Blasé and Kirby (2000) contended that successful principals recognise the need to allow teachers to effectively use contact teaching time. Although, there is a growing need to keep proper records on students and the affairs of the school, there is a greater need to protect the contact time that is afforded to students and teachers (Blasé & Kirby, 2000).

The principal can regulate these activities by means of the development and implementation of school-wide policies. Principals who effectively execute policies that control classroom learning time disturbances can increase the allotted time for learning and, possibly, the achievement of students (Stallings, 1980). Principals are expected to protect instructional time, and this simply means that principals supply teachers with adequate time to interact with and teach students (Hallinger, 2003). Therefore, this contact time must be uninterrupted by events occurring within the school. According to Robinson (2015), protecting available instruction time is one of the responsibilities of the school principal as the instructional leader of a school. Also, Van der Merwe (2018) revealed that the joint responsibility of the school principal and staff in collaboration with learners and parents is the establishment of a sound culture of teaching and learning in which instruction time is used optimally. In addition, according to Murphy (2013), to protect valuable instructional time from interruptions, learning-focused leaders carry out the following actions: (a) allocating academic subjects time periods that are least likely to be interrupted by events in school; (b) guarding teachers from interruptions from the school office; (c) developing, executing, and checking measures to reduce student absenteeism and lateness; and (d) ensuring that teachers are on time. In their efforts to manage instruction time, school principals focus on ensuring that the optimal amount of instruction time is available by strategically increasing the amount of instruction time

with changes to the daily school schedule and ensuring that the increased and available instruction time is used effectively (Coffman, 2012:29).

Furthermore, Bush (2013:5) motivates the implementation of module within the school leadership qualification for all new school principals intended to empower them to manage and protect the instructional time at their schools efficiently. Moreover, Van der Merwe (2018) suggested intervention strategies to counter the negative influence of timewasters on available instruction time such as pre-planning and preparation for lessons, managing teacher and learner absenteeism and the scheduling of extra classes. Furthermore, according to Hunter, Sonnemann and Haywood (2022), to protect teaching time and focus on achieving the core goal of school, namely, effective teaching and learning, concentrating on a small number of clear priorities and managing resources strategically is essential.

Leithwood, Patten and Jantzi (2011:679) proposed four hypotheses:

- the amount of total instructional time available is revealed in the results of the learners changing from weakly significant to reasonably strong;
- the amount of total dedicated instructional time has moderate consequences for the learning of learners;
- the curriculum content and the time allowed for learners to learn has reasonably strong consequences for learning; and
- the amount of total instructional time used in the actual teaching of learners is strongly related to the achievement of learners.

As regards the principal as instructional leader, the determining factor is how they control instructional time. Efficient time allocation can enhance the achievement of learners. This comprises the time allotted and the amount of time that is truly spent in learning and engagement in the activity of learning (Cunningham & Cordeiro, 2006:239). As instructional leader, the principal organises and structures instructional time by establishing a school timetable. The timetable of a school is the key instrument to make sure that the teaching and learning is done in optimal conditions. Moreover, according to Prinsloo (2006:74), "the teachers should control how to expend their

instructional time. They should be explicit about the priorities of the curriculum and associate their actions to them". According to Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018), to minimise behavioural problems and to meet the needs with regard to maintaining the instruction time, most school principals try to improve the physical environment of the classroom. They consider that a peaceful atmosphere will contribute to the best use of instruction time. Furthermore, Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018) explained that school principals have a good understanding of the need for ensuring that the time allotted for classroom instruction and teaching lessons is used appropriately.

In the Ethiopian context, the public secondary school timetable should be drafted based on the allocations (contact hours) for each subject given by the curriculum guidelines. Instructional time for each subject in Grades 9-12 is 45 minutes. The highest number of contact hours are allotted for English Language and Mathematics, each with five periods per week. The other subjects are allocated two to four periods per week. AACA is one the areas of the country where full-day education is implemented where there is a total of seven periods (5 hours and 25 minutes instructional time) per day. It is essential that the time allotted for recesses (breaks) and lunch time is omitted from the total allocation of instructional time (FDRE MoE, 2011:12). The principal should make certain that all the subjects have the exact time for instruction as specified in the directive and should ensure that the teachers use the learner contact time properly.

ii.   Maintaining high visibility

Even though a substantial share of their time is taken upby compulsory assemblies and purposes, principals can determine how the remaining time is to be expended. Visibility on the school campus and within classrooms improves relations between the principal and teachers and the students. Informal relationships offer the principal additional information on the students' and teachers' needs. It also gives the principal the chance to communicate the school's priorities. This can have positive consequences for attitudes and behaviours of students and teachers (Brookover & Lezotte, 1982; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Wynne, 1980). These conclusions are strengthened by Hutton (2011) who stated thathigh-performing principals spend time on the school compound observing, monitoring and supervising. This allows principals to maintain an

equilibrium between all the school's activities. Both skills of relations and communication are displayed by the principals with high performance. These skills permit the principals with high performance to form individual relationships with members of staff, students, other stakeholders and the community at large essential to the production of trust, openness and a climate of respect. Therefore, he or she must be seen by classroom teachers and students.

iii.   Providing incentives for teachers

An essential portion of the role of principal in building a positive climate of learning in the school encompasses allocating rewards and acknowledging the efforts of teachers. Principals have little open rewards to implement with teachers. The ability of a principal to inspire teachers is restricted by a salary schedule and the tenure system in the school. However, research indicates that money is not the only way to reward high levels of performance. According to Latham and Wexley (1981), money is only a little more effective than praise as an incentive. Additional types of incentive accessible to principals comprise praise, public recognition, and formal honours and prizes. This argument is supported by Lynch (2012) who indicated that incentives are not always seen as monies but can be anything which motivates or encourages an individual. Therefore, an incentive provided by principals can be in the form of a smile, commendation, certificate or act of praise privately or publicly (Lynch, 2012). Cohen and Ball (2007) contended that schools often fail due to the fact that few or no incentives are offered to teachers who take on this demanding work. Hence, incentives can be presented to teachers for their hard work and consistency. It is further stated that when teachers are rewarded, it serves to motivate them to learn new pedagogy and carry out their duties efficiently (Elmore & Burney, 2000).

Dare (2009) identifies the following as functions of motivation in schools:

- motivation energises and sustains behaviour;
- behaviour is discriminating if one is motivated;
- it makes staff voluntarily continue to perform their work well;

- motivation encourage a sense of belonging among the staff. It creates staff to believe that the organisation belongs to them; and

- it is the best remedy for resistance to changes.

As an instructional leader, the principal has the role of helping, assisting and recommending staff for promotion as ways of motivating them. The principal has the role of helping them out of personal problems or troubles. The most effective means of helping teachers in their job functions is to make their work environment stimulating by motivating them in various ways. While the principal may be unable to influence salaries and other fringe benefits for teachers, the principal could remove the frustrations teachers encounter in school by recognising individual contributions and praising individuals for good work done.

Many countries are involved in formulating incentive systems for teachers that will support teacher behaviors that enhances the quality of instructional practices in classroom, and consecutively the academic achievement of students. The main limitation in preparing a successful incentive system for teachers is that there have been few empirical studies of the degree to which incentives shape the behaviour of teachers (Chapman, Snyder, & Burchfield, 1993). Chapman et al. (1993:103) stated that direct rewards are most reliable with behavioural theory, as rewards and reinforcement are linked to specific patterns of accomplishment. Reed and Busby (1985) indicated that as the primary incentive for recruiting new teachers, the majority of rural school districts use fringe benefits. Also, Reed and Busby (1985) indicated that as the major incentives for retaining teachers, these districts offer money for instructional materials and attending conferences, tuition for courses, and released time for special activities. On the other hand, superior teachers are not rewarded by most school districts. Furthermore, Reed and Busby (1985) indicated that fewer teachers are hired when school districts offer more incentives and rewards. Reed and Busby (1985) recommended that, in order to recruit and retain competent and experienced teachers in rural schools, school districts should offer more incentives and rewards. Chapman et al. (1993) considered that the accessibility of instructional materials is one of the most significant techniques in assisting the teacher and improving the achievement of

students. The accessibility of instructional materials is posited to work as an incentive in both direct and indirect traditions. As a direct incentive, good instructional materials provide teachers with the opportunity to choose, arrange, progress, and speed up the content presentation, thus reducing the difficulty of the preparation and presentation of teachers. Good instructional materials can assist inadequate preparation of teachers, offering students appropriate content even when the teacher is not able to do so. Instructional materials work as an indirect incentive to the degree that organised and well-targeted content presentation results in better achievement of students which, in turn, reflects positively on the teacher, improving their sense of job satisfaction and professional efficacy. Imberman (2015) showed that the influence of financial rewards for teachers is mixed. While the results of financial incentives are unclear in developed countries like the US and Israel, results appear to be quite successful in developing countries. However, financial incentives may not enhance overall learning if they are narrowly directed. Studies that look at incentives based on numerical results tend to produce more positive outcomes.

According to Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018), the great majority of school principals inadequately demonstrated incentivebehaviours, for example, praising teachers individually, rewarding and honouring them in public or announcing their achievements. Alternatively, they employ informal means to encourage teachers. Incentives for public-school teachers are weak in many countries (Glewwe, Ilias & Kremer, 2010) leading to things like teacher absenteeism. Studies on teacher incentives and their consequences in Ethiopia found poor results on the part of teachers (Abebe & Woldehanna, 2013; Bennell, 2004; Gedefaw, 2012; World Bank, 2010).

iv.   Promoting professional development

According to Mizell (2010), PD is usually described as learning by means of seminars or workshops, training programmes, collaborative learning in teams, conferences or training courses at a college or university; on the other hand, it is important to consider that people also acquire knowledge informally via discussions and debates among friends, peer learning, research, or independent reading. PD is a school principal's responsibility towards the staff with the aim of upholding or altering the operational

efficiency of the staff so as to directly or indirectly impact the accomplishment of the school's major instructional goals (Udeozor, 2004). Udeozor (2004) further stated that PD is a sure way of helping the staff to satisfy their needs for status, recognition, personal and professional growth. Teachers need to be up to date in their subject areas and in new methods of teaching (Khanna, Lamba, Saxena & Murthy, 2005). This can be attained by means of a programme of PD. Musaazi (1988) argued that one of the most successful ways to ensure curriculum change, teaching enhancement and the PD and growth of teachers is to offer a well-organised in-service programme for teachers inside the education system. The PD of teachers includes teachers attending conferences planned by their organization and taking part in seminars, workshops or short courses (Rodrigues, 2012). Training may be used to directly escalate an individual's or group of individuals' job skills by educating them on how to accomplish their tasks more successfully. The training helps teachers to be current and use modern teaching methods. Staff development should be based on the deficiencies (needs assessment) observed in staff. One important way of enhancing performance in teachers is by updating and upgrading their knowledge and skills continually, through exposure to the latest research in the areas of knowledge (Ensely, 2014). These are said to improve classroom practice and influence pupil learning experience. It is, therefore, vital that principals make sure that their staff members are keeping up to date with developments in education (Rodrigues, 2012). This is to ensure the advancements of teachers' knowledge in both subject matter and pedagogy. PD promotes ongoing learning and development of the professional, in this case, teachers.

Peña-López's (2009) report for the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) on successful environments of teaching and learning itemises the following kinds of PD:

- workshops and courses (e.g., on subject matters, teaching methods and other education related topics);
- seminars or conferences on education (at which teachers and researchers present their research results and discuss education issues); programme of qualification (e.g., a degree programme);

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- other school observation visits;

- involvement in teachers' network formed particularly for purposes of PD;

- individual or collaborative research on a topic of professional interest;

- mentoring, coaching and peer observation, as part of a formal school arrangement;

- reading professional literature (e.g., journals, evidence-based papers, thesis papers); and involving in informal discourse with colleagues on how to enhance teaching.

Instructional leaders choose PD that supports learning outcomes for both teachers and students; researchers argue that PD has a powerful impact on teaching staff, and this impact will, therefore, affect student achievement (Mizell, 2010; Peña-López, 2009; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar, & Fung, 2008). Timperley etal. (2008:11) revealed that "participation in a professional community with one's colleagues is an integral part of professional learning that impacts positively on students". Subsequently, PD can be viewed as an extended aspect of IL practice. Like teachers, principals also participate in PD, both with and without staff members. Similar to PD, capacity building is noted to have positive effects on teaching practices.

According to Srinivasacharlu (2019), to prepare effective teachers of the twenty-first century, teachers need to be on top of developments in their profession, which can be achieved through CPD. It consists of different activities (formal, non-formal and informal) that aim at growing the intellectual capabilities of teachers (cognitive domain); developing attitudes, self-confidence, interests, and values (affective domain; and acquiring competencies and skills (psychomotor domain) for accomplishing the duties of the teaching profession consistent with the changing needs and times of teachers and society. Saleem, Gul and Dogar (2021) stated that most teachers in their study displayed a positive attitude to CPD programmes.

Another type of PD is orientation or induction of new staff. New teachers are usually posted to a school unknown to them. There are many things that the teacher does not know about the school community, the school itself, the student, colleagues, teaching aids and materials and procedures of work (Musaazi, 1988). The principal should

design an orientation programme in such a way that it enables the teacher to attain job satisfaction and to make use of his capabilities to attain the goals of the school. On arrival, the principal should provide the new teacher with information on conditions of employment, information on the community where the school is sited, facilities in the school, the teachers and students. The principal should ensure that the teaching staff are involved in the orientation to help in answering some of the questions. Udeozor (2005) argued that a well-organised induction course helps new teachers to settle quickly in their new place of work. It also reduces the sense of uncertainty and frustration normally experienced by new teachers. The principal should provide a follow-up to ensure that the orientation has impact on the teacher.

School principals' perceptions of their role as principals may be associated with how those roles have formerly been defined and the nature of CPD they have engaged in (Tsegaye, 2018). Principals need PD that supports their roles and responsibilities, in particular those of instructional leaders (Mizell, 2010). Principals depend on teachers to carry out day-to-day learning initiatives regarding students, and Mizell (2010:4) points out that "PD is the only strategy school systems have to strengthen educators' performance levels". From that perspective, instructional leaders should have PD as one of their main strategies for practice. Given that there are multiple types of PD, it is necessary for principals to be strategic and consider the needs of their schools to promote and encourage the most effective PD possible. Principals have numerous ways of assisting efforts of teachers to enhance instruction. They can alert teachers to opportunities for PD and guide in-service training activities. Robinson et al. (2008) pointed to the fact that the involvement of the school leader in formal and informal teachers' professional learning is a very efficient way of enhancing professional learning. Involvement in teachers' professional learning can be a gauge of the emphasis on the teachers' quality and teaching, and can, therefore, offer them greater assistance in creating the changes needed to improve theirdaily practice in the classroom. Involvement in the teachers' professional learning processes can assist the leader to gain the knowledge essential for being an instructional leader. Principals can make sure that activities of PD are aligned with school goals and that involvement is either school-wide or based on the levels where the teachers operate (e.g., grades in primary or

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secondary school). This function includes assisting teachers to incorporate skills acquired during PD programmes in the classroom. Hallinger (2011) contended that the instructional leader is responsible for discussing teachers' needs and foster PD. Hutton (2011) found that principals who perform at a high level in leadership ensure staff quality and understand that the teaching staff area critical resource in accomplishing academic goals and developing the social skills to manage students. Therefore, principals are seen as being responsible for the recruiting and retaining competent members who will be capable of successfully help the school principals to realise stimulating goals and objectives (Hutton, 2011). Principals also play an important role in providing materials, instructional resources, information and other needed resources to teachers. In encouraging PD, the principal has the responsibility of assisting the teachers' efforts in order to enhance their instruction. This can be accomplished through the use of in-service workshops or PD seminars (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The school administrator provides assistance to enhance the performance of the staff, stimulate professional growth and improve on the teaching and learning process (Udeozor, 2004). From assisting the staff to grow professionally, the leader equally appraises the staff to ascertain and measure the achievement of goals and set standards. This helps the leader to identify areas of weaknesses that still need support and feedback. The staff development programme must be relevant to the teachers and the principals have a duty to select teachers for such programme on the basis of needs (Musaazi, 1988). Principals are also expected to create conducive environment for PD.

Numerous studies confirmed that coordination among stakeholders is regarded as a significant influential factor in providing teachers with quality PD opportunities. The importance of coordination intensifies when a variety of PD providers work on the capacity-building of teachers. According to Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018), in supporting teachers to enhance their PD, school principals often modify the timetables of those who will take part in a special education or post-graduateprogramme, and they also assist those who take part in in-service training. Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018) also highlighted the participation of school principals in in-service training programmes within the PD context. A small number of school principals stress that they establish a conference or seminar in the school and talk over diverse educational sources with

teachers and they support those who need to enhance themselves professionally and that they promote in-service training (Turkoglu & Cansoy, 2018). Nene (2019) indicated that principals have a crucial role to play in the PD of teachers in school-based professional learning communities. Nene (2019) revealed that principals had an understanding of teachers' PD and played a key role in supporting teacher PD in schools. This has been implemented through teamwork, collaboration and mentoring within their schools. Geren (2016) indicated that successful school principals are visionaries; are welcoming, visible, good listeners; empower others; focus on improving instruction; are collaborators; are ethical; manage people and data; and support school improvement.

According to Desta, Chalchisa and Lemma (2018:35-39):

> absence of knowledge and experience on the theoretical foundations, shortage of budget to run the programme at school level, inconsistencies of implementation, absence of incentive to acknowledge teachers who make greatest efforts to alter themselves and their colleagues were chief challenges identified from the qualitative data.

Desta et al. (2018) urged that, in spite of these challenges, CPD provides a number of opportunities and valuable experiences that empower teachersto overcome school-based challenges associated with the teaching and learning process. Nene (2019) also indicated that some challenges were common amongprincipals and hampered them in assisting teacher PD. These challenges comprised a lack of time for PD activities and high teacher workload. Hence, Nene (2019) revealed that principals had strategies ready to eliminate some of the challenges that hampered them.

Mwihaki, Josphat and Wambugu (2019) recommended that principals should make sure that teachers put into practice knowledge and skills learned during in-service courses so that students benefit from the investment. Furthermore,Peretomode and Dinzei (2019) suggested that conferences, seminars and workshops be organised regularly as a way of training and retraining secondary school principals on professional skills which are required to perform their professional duties successfully, regardless of their sex, age,

academic qualifications or years of teaching experience. In addition, Saleem et al. (2021) recommended that CPD may develop better communication between students and teachers and continuous assessment should be directed at enhancing the students' learning skills.

In Ethiopian context, the ETP (FDRE MoE, 1994) set high standards for teachers and defined a new system of education. At the centre of this new system was the encouragement of student-centred teaching methods, more active learning, and problem-solving. The policy obviously showed that attention should be given to updating and upgrading both in pre-service and in-service teachers. Updating is an endless process wherein every teacher in the profession is involve in PD during their career as a teacher. It centres on subject area and pedagogical knowledge to enhance classroom practice. Upgrading is the process by which teachers can select to involve themselves in further study outside their regular job as teachers at suitable times in their profession, e.g., advancing from a diploma to a first degree or from a first degree to a master's degree. It was acknowledged that teachers were the vital to the improvement of schools and thus an in-service CPD programme was developed in 2005. The overall objective of the CPD programme is to enhance the teachers' performance in the classroom so as to improve student learning and achievement in Ethiopian schools and higher education institutions. It is a career-long process of enhancing knowledge, skills and attitudes in the local context and, predominantly, in classroom practice. According to the FDRE MoE (2009), all teachers must be enthusiastically involved in: (a) their individual learning process, (b) working with their colleagues, (c) pinpointing their individual needs and (d) the extensive range of activities, formal and informal, that will contribute to the enhancement of their individual practice and the practice of others. A CPD guideline was drafted that delineated the new approaches and courses established for the induction of Newly Deployed Teachers (NDTs) and for CPD priority programmes (FDRE MoE, 2009). The NDTs were expected to go through a two-year induction programme, devised at national level and assisted by mentors. These mentors were chosen from experienced staff members in the school.

According to FDRE MoE (2009) subsequent to pre-service and induction training, teachers (instructors), principals and supervisors are expected to follow the CPD programme drafted at national level. Concerning the annual CPD plan of the institution, a needs analysis is done by the institution and the individual concerned. With regard to individual CPD plan, it is developed annually based on the priorities of the individual teacher. Each school teacher, principal and supervisor must join in planned CPD activities for a minimum of 60 hours each year. These hours should be used adaptably to respond to the numerous development priorities that influence the work of the institution or the individual teacher. Each teacher needs to keep a portfolio of CPD activities (FDRE MoE, 2009). The portfolio comprises of a personal CV and a personal CPD action plan.

In the Ethiopian context, as stakeholders of CPD, principals have the following duties:

- making sure that student learning and achievement is comprehensive, and at the heart of strategic planning and management of resource;
- building a CPD management approach inside the institution; making sure that a successful needs analysis of CPD is undertaken each year;
- pinpointing topics for concern as CPD priorities in collaboration with colleagues; making sure that the institution prepares an annual CPD plan and manages the budget;
- frequently checking the successful of the changes to teaching and learning;
- ensuring the quality of teachers' involvement in CPD activities, checking and evaluating the content of personal professional portfolios and offering helpful feedback;
- working together with other local leaders of institutions to enable successful reactions to communal CPD topics;
- working together with professionals of woreda (district), zone and REB to ensure that regional and national CPD priorities are addressed in the CPD plans of institutions;
- participating in national and regional CPD activities which ensure that knowledge and experience is current; and

- making sure that all teachers in schools participate in 60 hours of CPD activities each year.

According to FDRE MoE (2009) the challenges confronted in CPD in Ethiopia comprise: lack or insufficient of the structure of CPD in nearly 80% of schools; large number of cluster resource centres were not sufficiently skilled to run well-organised, motivating, and altering CPD actions; failure to coordinate the career structure and the CPD activities and values; high turnover of CPD facilitators; teachers' and principals' time limitations; CPD programmes lagging behind its time and the inclination of hastening to cover the course; total lack or insufficiency of the least resources to run CPD; and absence of organized synchronisation among the education bureaus, colleges of teacher education and NGOs. Finally, different studies conducted in the country and Addis Ababa (e.g., Alaro, 2011; Desta et al., 2018) indicated that CPD has not been implemented effectively in public primary and secondary schools.

v.   Providing incentives for learning

It is possible to create a school learning climate in which students value their academic achievement by regularly rewarding and recognising of the school for their academic success and enhancement. In offering incentives for learning, the principal has the responsibility of frequently rewarding and recognising the students' academic achievement in the school. Students need regular and concrete rewards in low-income schools. The rewards require not be expensive or fancy; acknowledgement before teachers and peers is the important. Students should have chances to be acknowledged for their accomplishment both within the classroom and before the entire school. The principal is a main actor in connecting classrooms and reward systems of the school, guaranteeing that they are communally helpful (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Wynne, 1980).

Providing incentives for learning, instructional leaders can "make a positive school learning climate in which academic attainment is greatly valued by students by providing regular chances for students to be incentivised and acknowledged for their academic attainment and enhancement" (Hallinger, 2013:17). Hutton (2011) indicated that one of

the most important principals' job functions is to motivate the students. In doing so, they develop a better individual responsibility to their school and education. Hallinger (2003) further stated that schools can create high standards and expectations of all students as well as facilitate a culture that promotes continuous improvement. Here, school principals must align their school's values and practices with the mission of their school in order to create an environment which is favourable to teaching and learning. The efforts of students in schools can be awarded via delivery of certificates for high successes or by teachers offering stickers, smiles or award to those students who achieve at a high standard.Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018) indicated that some school principals employ systems of reward for effective students to be acknowledged in the school and classroom setting. According to Levitt, List, Neckermann and Sadoff (2011), direct financial incentives are infrequently used forstudents. Levittet al. (2011) also found that, even though there is substantial variation across locations, incentives influence the performance of students. Furthermore, in the absence of direct incentives, several students do not do their best on standardised tests, which may create biases in ability measures of students, estimates of teachers' value addition, school's quality and achievement breaks (Levittet al., 2011). Levitt et al. (2011) found that incentives impact performance of students, though there is considerable dissimilarity across sites. Incentives enclosed as losses have constantly big effects in relation to other educational involvements. They further found that non-financial incentives are as effective as financial incentives among younger students, although older students are quicker to respond to financial incentives. Lastly, Levitt et al. (2011) expose a range of causes such as gender, age and subject that impact effectiveness of reward.

Baranek (1996) found that intrinsically encouraged students achieve well since they show behaviours, such as solvingchallengesand expending more time on task. The useof rewards weakens intrinsic encouragement and outcomes leading to a slower acquisition of skills and more mistakes in the learning process. Likewise, Lepper, Corpus and Lyengar (2005:192) found that both extrinsic and intrinsic motivators were used in the classrooms and that there was a "positive relationship" between intrinsic motivation and performance of students basedon observations in the classroom and test scores. Similarly, West (2014) indicated that for the effects of incentives, while

concrete extrinsic rewards are used by teachers and schools, the better influence on encouragement and academic performance of students comes from teachers' verbal encouragement of students. Correspondingly, Phillips and Lindsay (2006:70) indicated that "motivation of students was enhanced by encouragement and praise given by their teachers" along with support from their families; and extrinsic motivation only became an issue when gifted and talented students were frequently competitive with each other.

2.8 EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE RELATED TO THE STUDY

This section of the study seeks to address the research questions of the study (Chapter 1, section 1.4.2) in other similar or different contexts.

Leadership in education has been examined in detail by researchers for a number of decades. Much of the current literature on IL pays attention to the 'practices', 'roles' or 'effectiveness' but not to the 'perceptions of principals'. The researcher was able to discover a considerable amount of research on the above-mentioned topics of IL but very little on the perceptions and experiences of principals on their IL practices. In this section international, continental and national literature related to the topic under investigation is reviewed to search for better insight into the research topic, and to inform the researcher with the areas covered in the previous empirical studies.

2.8.1 International empirical evidence

A large and growing body of literature has investigated IL. There has been considerable recognition in international research of the important practices and roles played by the school principals and teachers in contributing to effective schools and enhanced student academic achievement (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwoodet al., 2004). The outcomes of some of the studies related to IL practices at international level are presented below.

In his case study of "Middle school principals' understandings and practices of IL in urban public-school district in Alberta, Canada", Nelson (2018:122-159) identified six understandings and practices of principals: they possess a robust theoretical understanding of IL, they describe their IL practices via collective leadership, and a centre on relations, they perceive their IL practices to consist of enhancing leadership

ability of others, they share views and understandings, and ratify IL practices of that are intensely impacted by a specific body of leadership literature that is endorsed via district-led professional learning initiatives, they trust there are contextual variances that influence not just their leadership in general, but their IL, and they have a refined theoretical understanding of IL; nevertheless, they fight to offer indication of how their practices influence instructional ability of teachers and learning of students. In an investigation in to "challenges to IL practices: principals' and superintendent experiences", Mason (2013:154-185) found that there are substantial challenges to principals' and a superintendent's capacity to successfully practice IL. These challenges are classified into five themes: vision/ mission; planning and teaching time; managing classroom instruction; student progress/ success; and positive atmosphere. Of these five themes the principals and superintendent successfully practised IL with the exception of the area of student progress/ success. More intense emphasis and PD is necessary in this area.

To determine the perceptions of public charter school principals in Alberta, Canada and the influence they have on student achievement in their roles as instructional leaders, Butterfield (2013:102-121) examined IL of principals, and results indicated that instructional leaders apply substantial impact on the culture and sense of community of a school and consequently play avital role in determining the extent to which students are effective within the school environment. In a study which set out to determine "Principals' perspectives and experiences of their IL functions to enhance learner achievement in public schools", Mestry (2017) revealed that many school principals denied claims that their major function was to manage teaching and learning. Nevertheless, those school principals that place high priority on curricular matters undeniably impact the performances of teachers and learners positively.

In his major study, Yvonne (1989:2-3) draws six conclusions: (1) IL coursework by principals makes a difference in how teachers perceive their principals; (2) there is a development cycle to the principalship; (3) female principals were rated higher than male principals in PD; (4) principals and teachers view principals' job functions similarly; (5) PD, and high visibility were rated highly by teachers and principals; and (6) size of

school and years at site were not related to the differences in perceptions between teachers and principals. Poloncic (2016:52–61) claims that school administrators define the significance of effective leadership through their experiences as secondary school principals based on their own perspectives and goals for long-term leadership development. Additionally, the secondary school principals' viewpoints provided realistic insight into the experiences that had the most impact on them, the essential qualities of effective leaders, and the stated aspirations of principals to sustainably advance as leaders.

There was no difference between principals' and teachers' perceptions of the PIMRS job functions of framing the school's goals, communicating the goals, coordinating the curriculum, monitoring student progress, and offering incentives for teachers, according to Owens (2015:98–100), who conducted the study in part to ascertain the relationship between principals' and teachers' perceptions of IL. His hypothesis testing revealed that teacher perceptions of the PIMRS job tasks of overseeing and evaluating instruction, preserving instructional time, fostering professional growth, and offering rewards for learning were higher than principal perceptions. Additionally, the results of his hypothesis testing revealed that teachers' perceptions of the PIMRS job function of maintaining high visibility were lower than principals'."The relationship between self-perceptions of principals and perceptions of teachers on IL behaviour of high school principals in South Carolina" formed the central focus of a study by Dennis (2009) in which the author found relatively similar results that, there were no statistical significance differences between the perceptions of principals on their IL behaviours and academic achievement, the perceptions of teachers on IL behaviours of principals and academic achievement, or the perceptions of principals versus the perceptions of teachers on IL behaviours of principals and academic achievement.

To examine "Principals' and teachers' perceptions of principals and teachers on IL of principals", Smith (2007:75) indicated that no significant difference occurred among the perceptions of principals and teachers based on years of experience; however, contrary to Owens, the results showed a significant difference occurred between perceptions of principals and perceptions of teachers on the degree to which principals practised the

ten job functions of IL. Also, the findings declared a significant difference between perceptions of principals and teachers on the use of the ten job functions of IL by principals. Lorei (2015) indicated that significant relationship between the perceptions of principals and teachers on IL in four job functions of PIMRS: supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating curriculum, maintaining high visibility, and promoting PD. She also showed noteworthy differences among female principals' and teachers' perceptions on IL in one job function of PIMRS: promoting PD. In an investigation in to "Elementary school leaders' perceptions and practices of instructional leadership", Harris (2014) found that principals seemed to implement activities related to defining the school mission and focused most heavily on activities related to managing the school instructional programme when sharing their beliefs about what constitutes IL.

Murray's grounded theory qualitative study on "high school principals' understandings of instructional leadership: an emerging theory" (2014:84-109) suggested that the intended usage of components of IL practice improves principal concentration on supporting the success of high school students. Powell's study on "Understanding instructional leadership: Perceptions of elementary principals" (2017) declared that principals in the study accomplished most of the constituents delineated as IL behaviours while their diverse understandings decided their actions. Also, he recommended that with a cognizance of this difference in approach, leaders in the system can decide the best approach based on context and offer the essential resources and the clarity required about IL. A relatively recent case study by Williams (2018:85-100) revealed that the respondents of the study perceived that school leaders require to implement certain organisational and physical structures to successfully support instructional practices of teachers and learning of students; leaders of learning established gullible relationships with teachers letting them to promote a cooperative school culture and develop instructional capacity of the teacher; successful leaders of learning were those who owned the skills, knowledge, and characteristics that motivated successful teaching and learning; principals, teachers, and leaders of learning held the same perceptions about practices of leadership that support instructional practices of teachers and learning of students. Finally, he concluded that developing a school culture targeted on cooperative

IL has a positive influence on learning of students and instructional practices of teachers.

In conclusion, the results from research examining IL regarding the perceptions of principals and teachers on principals' IL practices have found no significant difference between perceptions of principals and teachers on the PIMRS job functions of framing and communicating the school goals, coordinating the curriculum, monitoring student progress, and providing incentives for teachers. On the other hand, a significant difference between perceptions of teachers and principals on use of the ten IL practices by principals. Moreover, results of studies on principals' perceptions on their IL practices asserted that principals seemed to implement activities related to defining the school mission and focused most heavily on activities related to managing the school instructional programme when sharing their beliefs about what constitutes IL. Although the results of some studies were seemed different, the relationship between principals' perceptions and experiences and their IL practices are frequently moderated by other principal and school-related factors such as principals' understandings and familiarities with IL, and accountability requirements for the principal.

2.8.2 African empirical evidence

Despite, few studies being conducted on perceptions and experiences of principals on their practices of IL in Africa, the findings of some of the studies related to IL practices at continental level are presented below.

Plooy (2010:107-113) investigated that the school management teams' members assume themselves professionally skilled persons with the knowledge required to provide what is predictable from them. Moreover, the study shown that the achievement of a school determined by on successful instruction as an outcome of the successful leadership and management of the instructional programme by all the school management teams' members. "Perspective of IL on the management and application of policy statement of curriculum and assessment in South African schools" formed the crucial emphasis of a study by Masekoameng (2014) in which the writer found that IL is vital in the application of policy statement of curriculum and assessment with the school

management teams' members confirming their commitment to numerous IL issues. The results also confirmed the prospects that shared leadership accessible schools to share moral determination. But the results also enumerated lack of curriculum knowledge and resources, and teachers' larger workloads as vital reasons that hinder the application of policy statement of curriculum and assessment. Dongo (2016) revealed that there are some principals with a weak and limited understanding of what IL requires, and regarding the implementation of their instructional roles, these principals do put a significant effort. Also, Dongo (2016) recommended that development programmes of IL are essential for all school management teams' members. By drawing on the topic of "The high school head's IL role in creating a culture of teaching and learning in Zimbabwe", Masuku (2011) has been able to show that successful IL model implementation by high school head's successful practice as the instructional leader in creating a culture of teaching and learning takes into account both the short-term and long-term successful IL dimensions with the intention of attaining significant educational change. On the other hand, in an evaluation in to Nigerian secondary school principals' IL practices, Ensley (2014:198-205) found that the principals' IL role performance indicated high level of IL duties in implementation of curriculum, supervision of instruction, school facilities maintenance, authority delegation and network of communication. However, Nigerian secondary school principals did not sufficiently give emphasis to PD, school instructional materials provision, staff and students motivation and school programmes planning. Moreover, they were not encouraged and promoted the extra-curricular activities such as clubs, sports, debate and others.

In a study which carried out to determine the contribution of IL to learner performance, Mafuwane (2011) found that the character of the principal and their orientation towards learner performance mattered, but the principal's qualifications did not matter; there was no correlation between the variables of IL and the learner performance improvement; there was a statistically significant effect of the amount of IL time on learner performance; and the degree of assistance offered by the department to teachers was insignificant. Unlike Mafuwane, Nkoroi (2017) points out that, there was a statistically significant correlation between PD of staff and academic achievement of students, and there was a statistically significant correlation between teaching and learning resources

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acquisition and allocation and academic achievement of students. However, in supporting Mafuwane's findings, there was no statistically significant correlation between instructional supervision approaches of principals and academic achievement, and there was no statistically significant correlation between monitoring of student progress by principals and academic achievement. Conversely, Mutuku (2018:109-113) reported all the four IL practices: defining the school mission, managing of the school instructional programme, promoting a positive school learning climate, and advancing teachers' interests are strongly associated with academic performance of students". Mutuku (2018) recommended that, principals from poor performing schools require to frame and communicate school goals more clearly for all to understand and implement; principals should ensure fair delegation of school duties, along with adequate and quality supervision, monitoring and evaluation in order to enhance academic performance of their students; principals should work towards providing and maintaining positive working climate so as to enhance academic performance of students; principals should ensure continued exposure of their teachers to relevant professional courses, workshops and seminars in order to acquaint the teachers with the most update knowledge and skills in their subject areas.

A study by Otu as cited in Ensley (2014:89) indicated that the principals' office work took most of their time than IL. The writer revealed that principals of secondary schools in Kwara state were more administrative managers than instructional leaders. By implication, it can be stated that teaching and learning was not their priority. This provides an insight into the ways principalscarryouttheir instructional roles. A recent study by Musandu (2018) revealed that IL of the principal is perceived by most of the teachers as of great advantage as it improves effectiveness of the school and enhances academic achievement of students; the principal should offer leadership targeted at enhancing teaching and learning, and distribute this type of leadership with other official school leaders such as the deputy principal, mentors and department heads; against the common stance in literature of IL, most of the teachers have perceptions that the principal should focus more on managerial and administrative roles; history teachers have a preference to be supervised by principals who possess similar field of study with them and who possess official training in the school leadership area; most of the

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teachers assist the idea of a school possessing a vision on student learning and mission statement defined by the principal in discussion with other staff members; teachers anticipate formal and informal communication channels to be used in interconnecting the school vision, mission statement and goals. Furthermore, Musandu (2018) recommended that, since the present study was from the perspective of teachers, the same studies should be conducted concentrating on how the principals perceive on experiences of teachers in IL.

In conclusion, the outcomes from empirical studies exploring IL of principals, the achievement of a school determined by on successful instruction as an outcome of the successful leadership and management of the instructional programme by all the school management teams' members, and IL is vital in the application of policy statement of curriculum and assessment with the school management teams' members confirming their commitment to numerous IL issues. On the other hand, there are some principals with a weak and limited understanding of what IL requires, and regarding the implementation of their instructional roles, these principals do put a significant effort. Successful IL model implementation by high school head's successful practice as the instructional leader in creating a culture of teaching and learning takes into account both the short-term and long-term successful IL dimensions with the intention of attaining significant educational change. Moreover, the amount of IL time has a statistically significant effect on performance of the learner, and principals' office work takes most of their time than IL. Even if, the findings of some studies were looked unlike, most of the researchers agreed that all the IL variables (dimensions) are strongly related with academic performance of the students, and IL of the principal is perceived by most of the teachers as of great advantage as it improves effectiveness of the school and enhances academic achievement of students.

2.8.3 Ethiopian empirical evidence

A growing body of literature has investigated IL in Ethiopia. More recent attention has focused on roles, practices and effectives of IL, while the perceptions of principals on their IL practices has not been given enough emphasis. The empirical evidence of

studies in relation to IL practices at national level are presented below, starting with studies in some of regions of Ethiopia, and then the study area, AACA.

In an investigation in to effectiveness of principal IL, Ali (2012) revealed that majority of principals were not effective either in individual dimensions or in their total IL role. Of the demographic data covered, only experience as a leader, department head, and number of credit hours taken in educational leadership fields seemed to have significant association with effectiveness of IL. Organisational characteristics such as availability of instructional resources, professional standards that require principals' involvement in curricular and instructional matters; and a large teaching staff added positively to the effectiveness of IL. However, Ali (2012) revealed that larger role variation decreased the effectiveness of IL and higher officials' expectations on roles other than IL or issues that are less important to effectiveness of IL along with great amount of financial and resource delivery difficulties and stay of replacements and placement of teachers significantly and negatively impacted the effectiveness of IL. In another study, Abreha (2014) confirmed that there was a strong indication of IL effectiveness at the sampled schools. In spite of the presence of this IL, similar to all other organisations, these schools still encountered many challenges that affect teaching and learning effectiveness. The challenges comprised insufficient support, poor management of time, lack of discipline, poor training systems and lack of instructional resources. Abreha (2014) recommended that as instructional leaders, secondary school principals should know the amount of instructional time needed to plan successfully. The principals' role as an instructional leader should not be restricted to control; instead, at most,it may improve compliance of teachers, and the MoE should redefine the instructional leaders' role by defining their responsibilities, such as offering assistance to teachers, constructing helpful culture and open climate, practising friendly expert and offering significant and needs-based assistance for teachers.

In a study that set out to determine secondary school principals' IL roles and challenges for the student learning achievement, Tsegaye and Moges (2014) found significant associations between

- distributed leadership and achievement school goals;

- PD of teachers, management of instructional programme, teaching and learning effectiveness, and promotion of school climate which involve less on enabling and understanding; and

- produce a motivating school environment with high class involvement.

This provides an insight into the significant association between the IL roles of principals and student achievement. As noted by Geleta (2015), the administrative activities took a considerable amount of the school time of principals rather than instructional activities. Moreover, it was found that the principals gave less attention to extra-curricular activities, instructional supervision, training and development of teachers, provision of instructional materials and protection of instructional time. Geleta (2015) recommended that the principal has to balance the instructional tasks and administrative tasks for school to be successful. In his case study of perceptions about IL, Gedifew (2014) identified a few variations between the perceptions of principals and teachers. For example, there was no agreement on the IL time a principal should spend of the time that was available; none of the teachers selected the same IL time as the principals. Moreover, another variation was with the IL definition. To define IL, teachers concentrated on personal characteristics, while the IL was defined by principals in terms of the actions, they had to take in improving instruction. Furthermore, a third variation was seen with regard to the instructional leader's influence on a school where the principals concentrated on creating school culture whereby the community of school develops a common understanding that the learning of students is the primary priority of the school, while the teachers focused on the principal's supervisory and professional support to teachers. In his study, Tsegaye (2018) identified five results:

- principals focused on providing access to resources and supervisors' assistance, stating that empowerment was a very effective instrument in enhancing the performance of principals and, thus, enhancing the general performance of the school;

- structural empowerment; psychological empowerment; and behaviour of leadership measures had substantial associations with principals' role performance in effective IL;

- insufficient support from upper management, absence of cognizance, lack of explicit guidelines on empowerment methods and tools and inadequate resources, unwarranted meddling of upper management, fear of upper leaders by principals and encouraging needless reshuffling of principals were acknowledged as main challenges to public secondary school principals' empowerment in the region;

- structural empowerment, psychological empowerment and behaviour of leadership dimensions were found to be substantial determiners of empowerment; and

- principals are more enabled when they receive more assistance from upper management, superiors, peers, subordinates and even clients.

Feye (2019) found that the school principals' practices as instructional leaders in curriculum management, support provision, the general teaching and learning process improvement, students' progress monitoring and evaluation, and working on inclusive education were rated aslow or medium. School principals' low skills and capabilities also significantly influenced their general IL effectiveness (Feye, 2019). Furthermore, Feye (2019) indicated that teachers and principals were not satisfied with the current climates of the school. Generally, the school principals were unsuccessful to practice the expected IL roles. Feye (2019) recommended that, to enhance the schools' effectiveness and ensure quality of education, the schools should be led by professional instructional leaders, and PD approaches need to be planned. Gedifew (2020) revealed the lack of a framework for IL in Ethiopia from which curriculum should be developed; the weak development of curriculum leading to a lack of relevance of the curriculum to address the development of IL; and there was lack of context-specific instructional leaders' recruitment, selection and retention strategies. Gedifew (2020) stated that there was a need to design a framework for IL development in Ethiopia built on a strong curriculum; the strategies for recruitment, selection and retention should include packages of incentives that could attract capable applicants to the profession; and there is a need to endorse exercises that create a positive mindset for instructional leaders to engage in PD activities. Hirgo and Raju (2021) indicated that the effectiveness of school leadership in general was low. They further indicated that IL practices of school leaders were unsatisfactory. The major factors that hindered leadership effectiveness were a lack of knowledge in providing constructive feedback to the staff and the absence of

participatory decision-making capability. Hirgo and Raju (2021) recommended that principals should enable the execution of mission, vision and goals of the school and share their experiences to assist staff development and offering PD programmes.

The findings of studies related to IL practices in the study area, AACA, are presented next. For example, Gebereslassie's study (2014) on the leadership effectiveness of principals in secondary schools of AACA revealed that goal-setting, vision development, creating robust functional associations among stakeholders of the school, and displaying professional activities in motivating teachers do their work properly was below the expected levels. Additionally, the study showed that the absence of sufficient training and experience sharing programmes related to IL, high turnover of staff, scarcity of resources and greater commitment to repetitive tasks that did not contribute to the achievement of the vision and mission of the school were some of the major factors deterring leadership effectiveness of principals.

In the same vein, Hassen (2012:55), in his case study on leadership in SIP effectiveness, noted that principals were less effective in their leadership due to lack of experience and qualifications in the profession. In a study conducted to investigate the relationship between leadership practices of principals, motivation of teachers and achievement of students in secondary schools of AACA, Admassie (2017:114-116) indicated that:

- leadership practices of principals have direct and strong relationship with motivation of teachers;
- a direct and strong relationship between leadership practices of principals and achievement of students; and
- motivation of teachers has direct and strong relationship with achievement of students.

Admassie (2017) recommended that, in the short term, the AACAEB should reexamine secondary school principals' recruitment and selection strategy. Moreover, in collaboration with the MoE, in the long term, AACAEB should develop and rigorously execute the framework of school leadership that would bring standardisation to

recruitment, selection and assignment processes of principals. In a qualitative case study carried out to investigate the public secondary school principals' leadership styles and job satisfaction of teachers in AACA, Haile (2020) found that:

- there was political interference of the state in the management system, teaching and learning process and selection of the principals of public secondary school;
- principals were not assigned to the position based on their experiences and qualifications; instead, they were appointed based on their political membership of the governing party;
- principals ignored the teaching and learning activities with being dedicated to political activities and were not perceived as working an instructional or transformational leader;
- the levels of job satisfaction of teachers were perceived as very low because of the following major factors:
  - bad leadership practices of principals;
  - political interference of the state;
  - low social acceptance for teaching profession;
  - low salaries and benefits;
  - students' low achievements and bad behaviour;
  - lack of attention to education by the government; and
  - corrupt practices in other sectors.

Factors influencing IL performance of principals formed the central focus of a study by Bogale (2018) in which the author found that most of principals lacked the required qualification and training in educational leadership. As a result, they were incompetent in playing their IL role effectively. The study further indicated that heavy work load and paper work requirements and instructional materials shortages and operative funds affected the quality of IL practices of principals. Similarly, to determine the effectiveness of principals' IL, Fire (2017) assessed the main gaps in the IL dimensions; the provision of effective IL to relevantly support school principals; and major challenges in becoming an effective instructional leader. Accordingly, the results of Fire's study were that the majority of principals were not effective either on a specific aspect of IL or in their

general IL role. In general, school principals in the study area were ineffective to facilitate teaching and learning. Consequently, learners were not effectively learning, and teachers were not effectively teaching to improve the student achievement and the school as whole. Likewise, Belete's study (2017) on effectiveness of IL found that:

- government-employed elementary school principals in Arada sub-city of AACA were not effective in the practice of direction setting;
- the school mission and goals were not effectively communicated with stakeholders;
- the emphasis given to support teachers' instructional practices through supervision and post-observation conferences focusing on teacher's instructional strengths and limitations was poor; and
- recruitment and selection practice of school principals was not merit-based.

In conclusion, according to Bellibas (2015:1482), "Although there is great evidence with regard to the influence of IL on learning and outcomes of students, there is little knowledge and systematic research on how principals perceive their practices of IL". The perceptions of principals on IL stays principally unfamiliar (Bellibas, 2015). This study determined the concern that the perceptions of principals on IL practices have not received continued attention from researchers of education, generally in Ethiopia, and specifically in AACA. As mentioned above, many of the studies in AACA have tended to focuson practices and challenges, effectiveness and factors influencing the implementation of IL, without giving regard to IL role players' (principals, teachers, and supervisors) perceptions and experiences on the actual practices of IL. In view of the above, the study set out to investigate the principals' perceptions and experiences with IL practices of principals in public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia in order to offer practical solutions.

2.9CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reviewed related literature on topic of IL so as to allow the researcher and the persons who read it to develop an understanding of the topic of the study. This literature review assisted the researcher to address the research questions of the study through numerous sub-sections in the chapter. The chapter focused on some related

contextual frame of the study such as current situation of education sector, and education policy and practices in Ethiopia for better understanding of the context. It included the IL practices in Ethiopia and the typical context in the study area to demonstrate the real situation of IL practices in the country in general and more specifically in the study area. Furthermore, it concentrated on conceptualisation of IL that endeavoured to provide some conceptual definitions given to IL by numerous scholars in the area for superior understanding of it, and historical development of IL to indicate the emergence of the construct from its inception to date was included. In addition, it described IL roles of the principal to elucidate some of the IL roles of the principals internationally and in Ethiopian public secondary schools that contribute to effective instructional practices of teachers. Moreover, it focused on the accountability of principals in carrying out their IL roles. Furthermore, it described the theoretical framework of the study which included the theories of IL to show how scholars in the area defined and explained IL. The selected theoretical foundation for the study was PIMRS IL model. Finally, the chapter concluded by considering international, African, and Ethiopian empirical evidence related to the study. Chapter 3 describes the conceptual framework of the study.

CHAPTER 3: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter has five sections. Section 1 centres on variables of the study which covers the independent, dependent and mediating variables of the study, and their relationships. Section 2 presents the self-perceptions of principals and the perceptions of other role players (teachers and supervisors) on IL practices of principals. Section 3 discusses the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions on IL practices of principals. Section 4 deals with the challenges principals experience in the practices of IL and their parallel possible solutions. Lastly, Section 5 recapitulates the key points of the chapter.

3.2 VARIABLES OF THE STUDY

Ravitch and Riggan (2017) as cited in Nelson (2018:49) explain that "a conceptual framework is used by a researcher to identify assumed relationships among key variables to be studied". The research in this study is aimed at investigating how public secondary school principals in AACA perceive and experience their current and actual IL practices as defined by the PIMRS IL model. The PIMRS IL model proposed by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) was chosen as a suitable theoretical model for this study. The aim of the model was to describe what IL involves.

The conceptual framework of this study shows the direct and indirect relationships between the variables of the study. The researcher conceptualised the topic of the study as the perceived IL of principals related with their current and actual practices as defined by PIMRS IL model.

3.2.1 The independent variable of the study

The independent variable influences the value of another variable (Shukla, 2018). Generally, the effect of variables on another variable is measured quantitatively. In this study, the independent variables were the three dimensions and their job functions of IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model: (1) Defining the school mission which contains framing and communicating the school mission; (2) Managing the instructional

programme which includes supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating curriculum, and monitoring the student progress; and (3) Developing a positive school learning climate which consists of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning.

3.2.1.1 Defining the school mission

The principal's responsibility in working with staff to make sure the school has a clear mission, and that mission is focused on the academic achievement of its students is addressed in the first dimension of IL (Hallinger 2013:14). A good instructional leader strives to develop and explain a shared vision, mission, and goals that are simple and straightforward for staff members to implement in their everyday work (Hallinger, 2013). This duty of defining the school mission refers to the principal's responsibility in selecting the area of focus for school goals and the necessary resources. It frames the school's goals (Hallinger, 2013). Effective instructional leaders collaborate with staff to create a manageable number of data-driven goals with clearly defined duties and quantifiable outcomes based on the school's mission to improve student achievement (Lorei, 2015). Principals have a variety of options for expressing the school's objectives to stakeholders. The principal and staff members should constantly discuss school goals, according to Hallinger (2013:14), "especially in the case of instructional, curricular, and financial decisions". Frequent stakeholder communication regarding the school's goals encourages a shift in their attitudes and views (Levin, 2000). According to research, it is crucial to constantly communicate and define school goals through both formal and informal channels, such as written documents, school assemblies, and educational conferences or chats (Brookover & Lezotte, 1982). The fundamental idea that the school can improve student performance is communicated to the faculty by instructional leaders who are good communicators (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

3.2.1.2 Managing the instructional programme

The principal's role in directing the school's curricula is the subject of the second dimension of the PIMRS framework. Effective instructional leaders "are deeply

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committed to inspiring, monitoring, and evaluating teaching and learning in the school" (Hallinger, 2013:15). Principals should be knowledgeable about teaching and learning and committed to enhancing the school's instructional programme to raise student achievement (e.g., Dwyer, 1986; Marshall, 1996). Curricular alignment, which involves coordinating the curriculum, is linked to effective IL; this happens when the learning objectives for schools and classrooms, the curriculum's resources, and the assessments are all closely related (Hallinger, 2013). Another sign of instructionally sound schools is cross-grade curriculum alignment, especially when teacher groups are given the chance to work together on instructional planning (e.g., Clark, 2016; Cohen & Miller, 1981; Cooley & Leinhardt, 1980; Wellisch, MacQueen, Carriere, & Duck, 1978). The chance for all learners to master the subject on which they will be evaluated in the classroom and at the state level is ensured by proper curricular alignment (Martone & Sireci, 2009). The principal's main responsibility in instructional monitoring and evaluation, according to Hallinger (2013:15), is to "make sure that the school goals are being turned into practice at the classroom level". Non-evaluative classroom observations and the accompanying instructional support offered to teachers play a significant part in the supervisory process in addition to official teacher evaluation (e.g., Levine, 1982; Lipham, 1981). Bambrick-Santoyo (2012) claims that in order for teachers to practise the skills they need to improve their work; IL requires the principal to work closely with them. Although they are not expected to be experts in all subject areas, principals are expected to oversee and support teachers as they offer children learning opportunities. Principals' content expertise has an impact on teachers' perceptions of the value of feedback (Marks & Printy, 2003; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Teachers' practices may change as a result of principals' oversight of instruction, which will improve student learning and accomplishment (Supovitz, Sirinides & May, 2009).

Effective IL relies heavily on data-driven management for monitoring student progress. According to Hallinger (2013:16), data should be gathered and analysed to "make a diagnosis of programmatic and student weaknesses, to assess the outcomes of changes in the instructional programme of the school, and to assist in doing classroom assignments". The principal should collaborate with the teachers and participate actively in the discussion and breakdown of pertinent data (e.g., Stallings 1980; Purkey & Smith,

1982; Stallings & Mohlman, 1981). When teachers and administrators use data successfully, schools and learners' benefit (Messelt, 2004).

3.2.1.3   Developing a positive school learning climate

The school learning climate is the subject of the third dimension of the PIMRS framework for Illinois. This component is based on "the idea that successful schools create an'academic press' through the development of high expectations and standards as well as a culture that encourages and rewards ongoing learning and improvement" (Hallinger, 2013:16). The key to fostering student accomplishment is for principals to endeavour to create and uphold a secure and orderly atmosphere where learners are supported and encouraged to see themselves as learners (Bryk, 2010). The leadership of the principal affects how well teachers and students learn (James & McCormick, 2009). Students are more involved in their studies and perform better when they feel that the school environment is conducive to learning (Van Ryzin, 2011). The principal is responsible for safeguarding instructional time by creating and enforcing school-wide rules that restrict disruptions to teacher instructional time, allowing teachers to effectively use their management and instructional skills (e.g., Bossert et al., 1982; Stallings, 1980; Wynne, 1980). A continuous learning environment that supports teachers and students is something that effective instructional leaders strive to establish (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005). A successful instructional leader will actively participate in promoting, preparing or delivering PD that is connected to school objectives (e.g., Clark, 2016; Little, 1982; Rutter, Maugham, Mortimore, Ouston & Smith, 1979). According to Bryk (2010:26), schools that are successful in raising students' test scores use "high-quality PD as a significant instrument for transformation". School administrators should encourage teachers to take advantage of official and informal learning opportunities to advance their careers (Parise & Spillane, 2010). The circumstances in which the principal is observed, Hallinger (2013:17) disclosed, "provide one manifestation to teachers and pupils of their key concerns" with regard to maintaining high visibility. Principals who prioritise work activities are more visible in the classroom contact with teachers and students, which improves the quality of education and student behaviour (e.g., Brookover, Schweitzer, Schneider, Beady, Flood, & Wisenbaker, 1988; Casey, 1980; Clark, 2016). When

principals conduct informal classroom inspections, teachers tend to have a more favourable perception of the educational climate of the school (Ing, 2010). Additionally, Blasé and Blasé (2004) contend that a principal's visibility and accessibility to students and teachers can be increased through the use of classroom walk-throughs.

Effective instructional leaders recognise that teachers are the school's greatest resource and reward exceptional teaching by offering incentives to teachers (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Hallinger (2013) advises that principals should regularly offer opportunities to give teachers genuine, merited praise. Latham and Wexley (1981) found that money, praise, and recognition are only marginally more effective motivators than praise. High performance is rewarded both internally and externally, which fosters job satisfaction (Locke & Lummis, 2014). Effective leaders coordinate employee incentives with the company's mission and objectives (Priem & Rosenstein, 2000). Providing incentives for learning allows instructional leaders to create"a positive school learning climate in which academic attainment is greatly valued by students by providing regular chances for students to be incentivised and acknowledged" (Locke, Edwin & Ass, 2001:34). In addition to public recognition, other ways to provide incentives for teachers include building teacher self-confidence, providing feedback, creating challenges through goal-setting, and delegation of additional responsibilities (Hallinger, 2013).

3.2.2 The dependent variables of the study

The dependent variable is the variable, the value of which may alter due to variation in the value of another variable. The dependent variables in this study were the perceived IL of principals, more specifically its dimensions. The perceptions of what establishes IL practices in schools vary among principals and detecting principals' perceptions of IL practices is a vital issue for the effectiveness of schools. Understanding the perceived IL practices of principals helps the schools and their management to support the classroom instructional practices of teachers and the academic achievements of students. Moreover, the IL of principals is one of the contributing variables of their perceptions towards practices.

3.2.3 The mediating variables of the study

School and principal-related factors such as principals' personal characteristics, principals' IL behaviours, accountability requirements of principals in the practice of IL, principals' commitments to practice IL, principals' understanding and familiarity with IL, and principals' abilities and capacities with the practice IL are variables considered by the researcher as likely to moderate the principals' perceptions and experiences on their IL practices.

3.2.3.1 Principals' personal characteristics

Principals' personal characteristics include their gender, age, years of experience in the current school and academic qualifications. The researcher correlated the principals' personal characteristics to their IL in order to determine their mediating effect on their perceptions and experiences with IL practices.

3.2.3.2 Principals' IL behaviours

According to Maarouf (2019:7), "reality is perceived by humans or social players in a dissimilar way, humans' perceptions of reality control their behaviours, relations among these behaviours make a new context over the time, and building a new context produces a new reality". More specifically, perceptions of principals and the behaviour of principals decides the degree to which school leaders influence organisational change for the enhancement of student achievement (Urick & Bowers, 2014). Leadership behaviours that create a conducive school climate have been found to have an augmented impact on teacher and student outcomes compared to managerial tasks (Hoy, Sweetland & Smith, 2002; Hoy, Tarter & Hoy, 2006). In a meta-analysis of studies on the influence of diverse leadership styles on student outcomes, Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe (2008) recognised five core measures of effective leadership behaviours, namely, establishment of school goals, fostering teachers' PD, instructional planning, coordinating and evaluating, managerial tasks of resourcing, and ensuring a secure and arranged environment. Hence, the researcher linked the principals' IL behaviours to their IL in order to determine their mediating effect on their perceptions and experiences with IL practices.

3.2.3.3 Accountability requirements of principals in context

Ontario's elementary principals are accountable for the learning that takes place in the schools (Powell, 2017). These principals are responsible to laws and policies of the province that influence their practice (Pollock & Hauseman, 2015), and their views and actions as they concern IL are not exempt from this accountability. They must take accountability and be held responsible for poor results. In supporting this, Mason (2013:13) urges that "education is a publicly financed programme, and there is, thus, a robust obligation for principals, teachers, and other staff to be accountable". According to Leithwood and Riehl (2003:2), accountability concerning learners' performance has placed pressure on all the stakeholders such as superintendents, principals, teachers and learners to improve learners' academic performance at district and school level. Standards of accountability demanded by the province or state add to the pressure experienced by principals to enhance achievement of students. Even though there is no written document on principals' accountability for student achievement in Ethiopia, the researcher associated the accountability of principals with their IL in order to determine its mediating effect on their perceptions of and experiences with IL practices.

3.2.3.4 Principals' commitments to practice IL

Principals at different levels of commitment are likely to have significantly varied perceptions and experiences with IL practices. So as to diminish the principals' commitment disparities, the researcher chose principals and teachers from public secondary schools for this study in preference to those from private public secondary schools, since they are likely to be affected by job commitment factors more uniformly compared to respondents in private secondary schools. This is because most principals in public secondary schools have one common employer, AACAEB and are, therefore, subject to the same system of employment, upward mobility, transfer, remuneration and discipline.

3.2.3.5 Principals' understandings and familiarities with IL

Scholars and researchers recognise that there is no single clear definition of IL or specific guideline as to what a principal as an instructional leader does in a school

(Geleta, 2015). However, some researchers (e.g., Brabham, 2017; Poloncic, 2016; Powell, 2017) show that, among school principal-related variables, variables such as how principals perceive their IL practices and how they understand IL severely affect their IL practices. Moreover, according to Powell (2017:90), "principals have varied understandings and familiarities that determine their actions". However, the researcher linked the principals' understandings and familiarities to their IL in order to determine their mediating effect on their perceptions and experiences with IL practices.

3.2.3.6 Principals' abilities and capacities to practice IL

The outcomes of a variety of research works have confirmed that, abilities and capacities of principals influence their perceptions on the IL practices. "More empowered (capacitated) principals have enhanced role performances, better quality IL practices, and more satisfaction of customers than less capacitated leaders" (Tsegaye, 2018:69). In order to establish their mediating effect on the perceived IL of principals, the researcher interconnected the principals' abilities and capacities to their IL. Figure 3.1 shows the relationships among the independent, mediating, and dependent variables of the study.
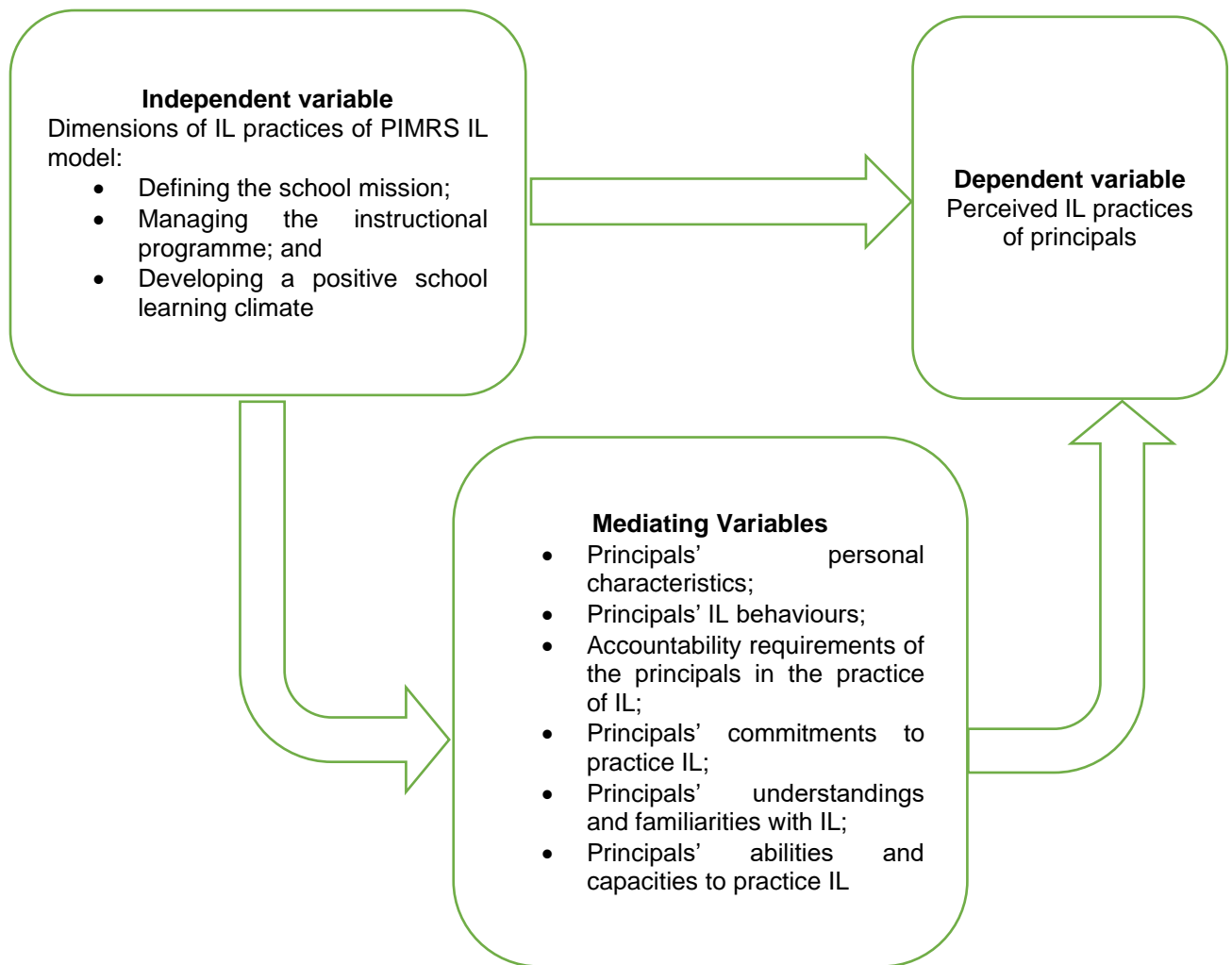
Figure 3.1: Conceptual model indicating the relationships among independent, mediating and dependent variables of the study

Source: Researcher (2020)

3.3 PERCEPTIONS ON IL PRACTICES OF PRINCIPALS

3.3.1 Self-perceptions of principals on their IL

This sub-section addresses research question 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model), and what experiences do they have with them?It determines the self-perceptions of principals on their IL practices. It is concerned with understanding the perceptions and experiences of principals regarding their IL practices. In addition, it adds to the body of knowledge on the topic of the perceptual effects of principals on their IL practices in that it creates awareness about giving equivalent consideration to the perceptions and practices, growing a culture of investigating principals' perceptions, and assessing their IL practices.

Few studies have examined principals' perceptions of their leadership styles (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Urick & Bowers, 2014). Leithwood and Jantzi (2008:522) suggested that a "succeeding study about leader effectiveness as measured by perceptions of principals on their own leadership should look to the technical alterations in the performance of main practices of leadership". Principals who reflect the main behaviours of leadership, for instance mission communication, fostering PD and instructional coordination, may not implement them in the sameway (Ylimaki & Jacobson, 2013). Moreover, according to Hallinger and Heck (2010), principals in diverse schools who implement these main behaviours of leadership with the same responsibilities or actions yield different outcomes with teachers and students.

It was established in the reviewed literature that perceptions of principals are strongly related to their IL practices. In this regard, for more than a decade, findings of a few studies have revealed a strong relationship between principals' perceptions and their IL practices (Ballibas, 2015; Harris, 2014; Powell, 2017). Harris (2014:111) suggested that "the solution to the recognised problem of practice depends in growing self-awareness of principals concerning their beliefs (espoused theory) and practices (theory-in-use) and the association between the two", and Harris (2014) concluded that focused association of principal beliefs (perceptions) and implementation (practices) of IL could

possibly be a means of enhancing IL practice. Furthermore, principals' perceptions of their IL practices have been found to be crucial in contributing to the effectiveness of IL. Moreover, principals' perceptions can be considered either as processes (means) or as goals (ends). According to Tengland (2008), principals' perceptions as a goal gives emphasis to control, while it calls attention to the process of defining the goals and the means required to build professional relationships. It is the principals' perceptions of their IL practices that lead to effective teaching and learning as a process (Darling, 1996; Rowlands, 1995) and are future-oriented rather than dealing with daily routines (Baird & Wang, 2010; Balkar, 2015). Furthermore, researchers such as Brabham (2017) and Poloncic (2016) showed that, among school principal-related variables, variables such as how principals perceive their IL practices and how they understand IL severely affect their IL practices. Moreover, according to Powell (2017), the practices of principals are decided by their diverse understandings. Powell (2017:130) further indicated that, "the perceptions of principals affect their IL practices, consequently principals' IL practices have direct and mediated effects on academic achievement of students". Furthermore, perceptions of a principal on their IL practice are evidently a prerequisite for accomplishment in IL role success, IL goal attainment, and IL commitment among principals.

The extent to which school leaders influence organisational change for student improvement can be determined by principals' perceptions and, in turn, principals' behaviour (Urick & Bowers, 2014). Mestry (2017) indicated that many school principals refused to acknowledge that their major function was to manage teaching and learning. However, those principals that put top priority on curricular issues have been shown to impact performance of teachers and learners. Additional investigation into perceptions of principals on their IL would illuminate the techniques that principals use to behave as leaders to direct their specific context for augmented student results via teachers' participation in the leadership of a positive school climate. According to Hallinger and Heck (2011), principals enhance practice of teachers via helpful managerial responsibilities, for instance hiring, spending, and an arranged school climate; however more significantly, through the making of a school climate and the regular communication of a common mission and vision, principals shape instruction. In more

current research, leadership behaviours that add to a making of a school climate have been established to possess an enlarged impact on results of teacher and students compared to managerial responsibilities (Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Hoy, Sweetland & Smith, 2002).

Harris (2014) showed numerous resemblances among the three principals concerning their beliefs about IL. All of the principals concentrated most deeply on actions associated with managing the school instructional programme when sharing their beliefs about what establishes IL. Harris (2014) further indicated that all three of the principals appeared to accomplish actions associated with defining the school mission at a much greater rate than their espoused theory/ beliefs showed. Moreover, Cheung Chan, Jiang, Chandler, Morris, Rebisz, Turan, Shu and Kpeglo (2019) indicated that principals of China, Ghana, Hungary, Turkey, Poland and the United States confront many similar problems in their daily school functions. Cheung Chan et al. (2019) further showed that the unique political infrastructures of their locations determined how they addressed these problems to meet the individual demands of their own societies. Understanding the common challenges and emerging roles of principals in changing social and political settings provides educational leaders of these countries the chance to share their distinctive experiences and achievements (Cheung, Chan et al., 2019). Furthermore, Poloncic (2016) found that a realistic understanding from the secondary principals' perspectives determined the experiences that impacted them most, the vital elements of successful leaders, and the secondary school principals' perceived needs in constantly growing as a leader. Brabham (2017) suggested that growth of principals in leadership development was out-of-focus and unmeasured. The study helps positive social change by offering PD to encourage and measure principals' IL development as they accomplished job embedded PD system for the respective school teachers. Principals, teachers, and eventually students will be advantageous from dedicated leadership development (Brabham, 2017). Manard (2017) showed that novice rural principals wear many hats while manipulating all that is expected of a school principal. Though the principals talked expressively about their understanding of IL, their daily experiences are encountered with needs and expectations that are unrelated to IL (Manard, 2017). Rehman (2019) revealed that principals implemented a number of styles of leadership.

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The chief styles of leadership comprised IL, transformational leadership and moral leadership. The implementation of these diverse styles of leadership was an indication the diverse circumstances that principals found themselves functioning in. Collins-Richey (2020) pointed out that principals require a steady sense of self-efficacy in order to cope with the incessant adaptation of structures and processes essential to meet the needs of a complex institution like a school. Collins-Richey (2020) further indicated that principals need to create structures and to develop processes that ensure they are not the only instructional leaders and managers within their schools.

3.3.2 Perceptions of other role players on IL practices of their principals

This sub-section addresses research question 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals? IL is not restricted to one individual. It is a process through which principals, teachers, and coaches (supervisors) engage in activities to improve teaching and learning (Hoy & Hoy, 2009) and to lead instruction (Neumerski, 2013). The focus of this study is IL; the core role players of this leadership in an Ethiopian school context are principals, teachers, and supervisors, because they have direct involvement in teaching and learning which impacts the academic achievement of students. Brief descriptions are provided on teachers' and supervisors' perceptions and experiences on their principals' IL practices.

3.3.2.1 Teachers' perceptions on their principals' IL practices

According to Drago-Severson (2004), the most valuable resource of a principal is the teacher. Moreover, teachers and principals are among the most prominent persons in a learner's life (Smialek, 2006). Hence, it is essential to support "these ambitious leaders acknowledge that effective teachers improve practice when they perceive that the improvement will progress their core goal: assisting learning of students" (Glover, 2007:3). In the literature on school leadership and effectiveness, teachers anticipate principals to take the lead in enhancing the achievement of learners. However, the literature on distributed leadership regards teachers as leaders and hence as important

as principals in practicing IL. It was recognised in the literature review that teachers' perception of their work environment and leadership of principals had a quantifiable influence on learning of students.

Taff (1997) indicated that teachers who regarded their principal as a great instructional leader also regarded their school as a highly successful school. Also, Blasé and Blasé (2002) found that the two major dimensions of effective IL are talking with teachers to promote reflection and promoting PD. Effective instructional leaders talk with teachers to encourage reflection by creating suggestions, offering feedback, soliciting opinions and advice, modelling, spending inquiry, and admiring their teachers. Through talk, growth and reflection, effective instructional leaders create a culture of collaboration, equality and the lifelong study of teaching and learning (Blasé & Blasé, 2002). Teachers will be more productive and motivated to impact the students' academic achievement positively, if they display positive perceptions of their principals and schools (Blasé & Blasé, 2002). Furthermore, DuPont (2009) pointed out that, elementary school teachers perceived their schools as having a positive and cooperative school culture whereas teachers in middle school had mixed perceptions and teachers in high school had the smallest positive perceptions of culture in their school. Principals, as instructional leaders, can create a positive and cooperative school culture by assisting teachers to cooperate, communicating a common vision, establishing shared leadership, and building strong personal associations with teachers (DuPont, 2009). Moreover, according to Mafuwane (2011), so that teachers do not feel isolated and left to their own devices, their principals should be visible in the school and in the classroom. The morale and performance of teachers can be enhanced if they feel that they are working together with the principal. Additionally, principals who build teachers' capacity, display advanced decision-making skills, and model confidence have positive perceptions of teachers (Hardman, 2011).

Kursunoglu and Tanrıogen (2009) found that perceptions of teachers on the IL behaviours of their principals and attitudes of teachers concerning organisational change have been revealed as "moderate". Kursunoglu and Tanrıogen (2009) further described that, according to perceptions of teachers, there was a positive relationship

between IL behaviours of their principals and attitudes of teachers concerning organisational change. Similarly, Yasser, Al-Mahdyand Al-Kiyumi (2015) found a moderate level of engagement of school principals in the three dimensions of IL. The highest rated dimension was defining the school mission while the lowest-rated dimension was managing the instructional programme. Yasser et al. (2015) also showed that, there were significant differences in defining a school mission in terms of gender. Furthermore, Erdem and Baysen (2020) showed that female teachers had better attitudes to dimensions of IL behaviour and organisation of learning, but no difference was found between male and female teachers concerning their experience. However, unlike Erdem and Baysen (2020), Bada et al. (2020) stated that there appeared to be significant differences between perceptions of male and female teachers on IL behaviour of the principals. This difference occurs in terms of managing the instructional programme". Also, in a USH private school Mandalay, Myanmar, Yu, Ye and Kanjanaphoomin (2017) found that the level of perceptions of teachers regarding IL of principals was moderate. However, there were no significant differences on perceptions of teachers regarding IL of principal according to their gender, age, educational background and work-experiences.

Yu et al. (2017) recommended that the principals should engage more closely in their IL practices related to management of teachers and students; for instance, communicating school goals, monitoring student progress, and protecting instructional time. Correspondingly, Mtanga (2016) found that teachers at high schools in Gauteng were comparatively impressed by the IL of the principal. The principal showed moderate participation in managing an instructional programme and promotion of teaching and learning culture.

The outcomes of these studies should help principals to recognise the value of the feedback from their teachers on their IL, thereby empowering them to be better instructional leaders.

Bada, Tengku, Ariffin and Nordin (2020) showed that there was a reasonable level of engagement of Nigerian school principals in the three dimensions of PIMRS. Specifically, "defining school mission" was rated highest, whereas "developing a positive

school learning climate" had the lowest rating. Likewise, Lingam, Lingam and Singh (2021) revealed that ratings for the principal were the highest for communicating school goals and protecting instructional time whereas supervising and evaluating of instruction were the lowest-rated job functions. The lack of professional preparation for an IL role and the dual role of the rural principal as a school leader and teacher, which requires carrying out both roles, may contribute to limited consideration being paid to the IL role (Lingam et al., 2021). In contrast, Yunus, Abdullah and Jusoh (2019) indicated that there was a moderate positive correlation among perceptions of secondary school teachers in Petaling Perdana concerning IL behaviours of the school principal and teachers' concerns about innovation of teaching and learning. Yunus et al. (2019) further found that there was a weak relationship between principals and teachers in defining a school mission as part of an instructional leader's role. This shows that the principals only engaged in defining a school mission at a low level.

Leech, Pate, Gibson, Green and Smith (2009) found that most teachers appear to agree that their principals seek to promote an instructional atmosphere. Principals are seen as being knowledgeable about curriculum and as promoting student learning and teacher PD. However, a large number of teachers still state that the principal focuses on issues of management rather than issues of instruction (Leech et al., 2009). Additionally, Ismail and Abdullah (2012) indicated that principals with positive and cooperative leadership styles produce a positive school environment. They further showed that teachers commented more on diverse styles of leadership based on their relationship with the principal, and also on their expectations of what a principal should be, not exactly about what their principal's chief style of leadership was. They usually expected principals to handle all problems in their school while still offering autonomy and freedom of teachers to make important classroom decisions and they required a robust leader who could make explicit and reliable decisions, while taking all views into consideration. They also expected a principal be ethical and appreciated somebody with honesty and empathy (Ismail & Abdullah, 2012).

Furthermore, Musandu (2018) revealed that a large number of the teachers regarded IL as of great advantage as it improves effectiveness of the school and enhances

attainment of students. The principal should, thus, offer leadership aimed at enhancing teaching and learning, and should focus lesson managerial and administration roles. Teachers needed to be supervised by principals who had subject knowledge expertise and who had formal training in school leadership. A large number of the teachers also supported the notion of a school having a vision focused on the learning of the students and a mission statement produced by the principal in discussion with other members of the staff. They expected both formal and informal communication channels to be used in communicating the school mission, vision and goals, and expected principals to play a role in ensuring that the syllabus was understood suitably and was sufficiently addressed (Musandu, 2018). Musandu (2018) further confirmed that that even though teachers expected their principals to play a role in motivating and developing the staff, a many principals were not committed to these activities.

Moeketsane, Jita and Jita (2021) showed that beliefs about IL tend to correlate negatively with perceived competencies and make no impact on such competencies. On the other hand, knowledge and perceptions showed a significant correlation and were thus considered to be better predictors of subject leaders' perceived competencies on IL. Moeketsaneet al. (2021) further indicated that perceptions may have a high impact on perceived competence. Consequently, they recommended interventions to deliberately target subject leaders' perceptions of IL to promote the practice of a more distributed leadership in schools.

Furthermore, according to Zvandasara (2016), principals were contributing to the crisis in South Africa's education system and the overall school system's ineffectiveness causing poor academic outcomes. The principals as instructional leaders were not undertaking their work capably as a result of their style of leadership and lack of skills of supervision. Skills include appropriate knowledge of how to run a school and how to motivate staff, to improve instruction in the classroom. Occasionally they do not involve other stakeholders and the community in the process of decision-making, and moral assistance and PD in the schools are also overlooked (Zvandasara, 2016).

3.3.2.2 Supervisors' perceptions on their principals' IL practices

According to Mason (2013), the role of the supervisor has historically swung from an emphasis on instruction to management and back to practices of instruction. Unfortunately, supervisors are required to be less focused on instruction, so consideration can be focused on managing the political climate that is necessary in working with numerous stakeholders, the MoE and trustees (Mason, 2013).

Successful supervisors are said to be important to the achievement of any enhancement endeavour (Byrd, Drews & Johnson, 2006). The supervisor's role has grown over the years to comprise an expectation by stakeholders that they be at the forefront of endeavours related to achievement of students. To make improvements in curriculum and instruction, a school district will not realise achievement without the active participation of the supervisor (Castagnola, 2005). School districts with better student performance have supervisors who participate in the implementation of curriculum and instruction. Byrd et al. (2006) further described that supervisors that experience achievement are actively engaged in making decisions about instructional priorities and problems that need specific consideration. For instance, if school district data analysis shows that there are particular gaps in achievement of students in a subject or grade area, supervisors intentionally direct staff, resources, and PD to meeting those gaps.

Abera (2017) found that teachers and supervisors had very diverse perspectives of the aspects of supervising practices, including instruction, communication, staff development, and evaluation. This is in relation to supervisors' perceptions of their principals' IL practices. The only aspect of supervision practice where instructors' and supervisors' evaluations were remarkably similar was the classroom observation aspect; both teachers and supervisors appeared to view these procedures favourably (Abera, 2017). Also, Gill (2013) explained that principals wanted more time with instructional supervisors. The Denver Public Schools district has reduced the number of district-level meetings, so supervisors can spend more time staying in touch with principals. Furthermore, according to Godden (2019), developing learning-focused partnerships entails establishing communities of practice between administrators and

teachers as well as supervisors. The co-development of leadership standards that act as benchmarks for effective IL practice by principals is the basis of this process. Additionally, Hvidston, Range, Anderson and Quirk (2019) noted that the supervisory procedure outlined in their article could be useful to other district supervisors because the supervision and assessment of principals were crucial components of successful and high-performing schools. Furthermore, Thessin, Shirrell and Richardson (2020) found that more engagement between the principals, supervisors and the IL teams was associated with improved organisational circumstances and more favourable perceptions of the school's leadership. According to Thessin et al. (2020), supervisors' main interactions with IL teams fell mostly under the headings of leadership for learning, PD, and team support.

In the Ethiopian context, according to the Professional Competence Standards for School Supervisors, FDRE MoE (2012), school supervisors are expected to carry out three sets of responsibilities comprising: control (in a sense of monitoring obedience necessities and offering feedbacks), support, evaluation and liaison (work as liaison) at schools to attain unification and standardisation in the school system. They must be capable of enabling communications both vertically and horizontally. They are expected to encourage communications vertically by updating schools on the policies and rules of the FDRE MoE bearing in mind the needs and actualities in the schools; and horizontally through enabling connections and networking between schools. The accomplishment of these all responsibilities of the supervisors needs the development and implementation of a generic professional competence standard for the supervisors as an essential part of guaranteeing quality teaching and learning in all schools. Thus, a general professional competence standard for supervisors should bedeveloped in alignment with the four PD levels: Beginner Supervisor, Proficient 1 Supervisor, Proficient 2 Supervisor, and Lead Supervisor. Supervisors play a role in monitoring, supporting, evaluating and liaising with schools vertically within the system, but they are not line managers. They further create a horizontal nexus among schools to enable communication and sharing of experiences or best practices, and to accomplish expected improvement in school performance. Supervisors should be able to encourage, create and support a favourable environment for successful teaching and

learning practices at schools. They need to use simple and suitable techniques of communication; to have a range of successful strategies of supervisory work and employ them to execute effective support, control and evaluation programmes. They are expected to create and facilitate communications between schools, woredas, Zone Education Offices, REBs and MoE vertically on one hand and to develop a horizontal relation amongst schools and the community on the other hand. They should frequently assess all aspects of their practices to make sure they are meeting the needs of the school communities.

In AACA, there are three kinds of supervisors, namely, immediate cluster supervisors in woreda (District) Education Offices to support and monitor all public and private primary schools (Grades 1-8) inside the woreda, immediate supervisors in SCEOs to support, supervise, and check all public and private secondary schools (Grades 9-12) within the sub-city, and non-immediate supervisors in AACAEB to help and control all primary and secondary schools rarely and suddenly (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019). The focus of this study is public secondary schools in the city. In each sub-city, there are also four types of supervisors, these are, Amharic and English languages supervisors, Mathematics and IT supervisors, Natural Sciences (Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Sport science, and Technical Drawing) supervisors, and Social Sciences (Geography, History, Civic and Ethical Education, Economics, and General Business) supervisors (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019). With regard to supervisors' perceptions on IL practices of principals, to the researcher's knowledge, no research has been conducted; for this reason, the researcher could not include any empirical evidence on this issue.

3.4 THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PRINCIPALS' SELF-PERCEPTIONS AND OTHER ROLE PLAYERS' PERCEPTIONS ON IL PRACTICES OF PRINCIPALS

This section responds to research question 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of the PIMRS IL model) of principals in AACA?

3.4.1 The differences between principals' self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions on IL practices of principals

In relation to IL practices, Gordon, Stockard and Williford (1992) founda lack of consistency between principals' and teachers' perceptions. Although teachers would be happy with the principal's visible involvement in the classroom, principals need to have certain abilities in order to fulfil this position. Additionally, Nix (2002) discovered that eight of the 11 job functions–framing school goals, overseeing and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, monitoring student progress, maintaining high visibility, promoting PD, creating and upholding academic standards, and offering incentives for learning–showed significant differences in how Texas high school principals and teachers perceived IL behaviours. Nix (2002) further revealed that principals' and teachers' perceptions of IL behaviours varied significantly. According to Harris (2014), although principals concentrated more on accomplishments in the school's instructional management, teachers perceived that principals were less often involved in tasks connected with instructional supervision and evaluation than principals assumed. Harris (2014) also indicated that teachers and principals often differed about which particular IL behaviours of principals would be sure to enhance the professional capacity of teachers. In addition, King (2017) indicated differences between the views of the principals and those of the teachers relative to the role of the principals as instructional leaders. The findings carry important educational implications for the administration of schools and the delivery of instruction (King, 2017). Furthermore, Lorei (2015) revealed significant differences among female principals' and teachers' perceptions of the PIMRS job function of promoting PD.

Lang (2015) found that teachers were not completely consistent with administrators in 4 of 6 job functions. Teachers believed that instructional supervision and evaluation, instructional time protection, providing incentives for teachers, and providing PD were not being practiced at the same level as perceived by administrators. Lang (2015) found that administrators agreed with the perceptions of teachers regarding their assistance on differentiated instruction practice. The study has implications for IL in that a misalignment of attitudes and beliefs on improvements needed by administrators and

teachers can co-incidentally lead to obstacles in execution. Therefore, planning for differentiated instruction should be included in evaluations by all stakeholders (Lang, 2015). Additionally, Poirier (2009) found a few differences between the perceptions of principal and teachers concerning the purpose of supervision where the teachers believed supervision was mainly evaluative, whereas the perception of principal was that supervision was focused on teacher growth and recognition.

Likewise, Gedifew (2014) revealed a few differences between the perceptions of principal and teachers. Regarding time for IL, teachers and principals did not agree on the amount of time a principal should spend on IL. Pertaining to the definition of IL, teachers concentrated on personal characteristics to describe an instructional leader, while principals stressed improving instruction.

With regard to the influence of the instructional leader on a school, the principals concentrated on creating school culture, while the teachers stressed the assistance teachers must receive from the principal. With regard to the influence of the instructional leader on a school, the principal concentrated on creating a school culture in which the community of the school could develop a common belief about the learning of students being the school's primary priority, while the teachers emphasised the supervisory or professional assistance teachers must obtain from the principal. Furthermore, Helms (2012) found that principals perceive themselves strong or weak, and compared those perceptions to the views teachers hold. Furthermore, Alkhuzam, Rabee and Alamad (2022) found that there were significant differences between perceptions of teachers and principals on leadership styles of principals in different domains. Inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, and contingent reward were among the behaviours where differences between perceptions of teachers and principals were most noticeable. Alkhuzamet al. (2022) determined that principals perceived themselves as exemplifying a transformational leadership style while teachers view principals displaying behaviours related more to transactional leadership.

Marshall (2005) found that there was no discernible variation in how middle school teachers and principals perceived crucial IL behaviours. When asked about the IL

behaviours of their principals, Marshall (2005) found that Texan public middle school principals complied with the expectations of Texan public middle school teachers. A substantial correlation between teachers' and principals' IL perceptions of four PIMRS job functions–supervising and evaluating instruction, managing curriculum, maintaining high visibility, and fostering PD–was also found by Lorei (2015). Similar to this, according to Owens (2015), statistically significant correlations between principal and teacher views of IL behaviours were revealed by the study's hypothesis testing results. Furthermore, Pettiegrew (2013) found that teachers and principals agreed that setting clear school goals was the most crucial IL behaviour. Pettiegrew (2013) also showed that middle school socioeconomic status and goal-setting were thought to be the main factors in explaining the variation in student performance. Lyons (2010) also found that principals of recognized high-achieving middle schools exhibited the PIMRS leadership behaviours more frequently than principals of low-achieving middle schools. Instructors were in agreement with their particular principals' data in that they believed that principals of recognised schools displayed these behaviours more frequently, despite teachers generally reporting that these behaviours were being demonstrated less frequently.

3.4.2 The differences between principals' self-perceptions and supervisors' perceptions on IL practices of principals

McKim, Hvidston and Hickman (2019) indicated that generally supervisors and principals were on the same wavelength in relation to 19 out of 20 statements describing the principals' supervision and evaluation. However, there was a significant difference in both supervision and evaluation perceptions between supervisors and principals. Results from this study indicate implications for those who supervise principals, besides for those who train supervisors (McKim et al., 2019). Principals and supervisors were on the same wavelength concerning the significance of supervision and evaluation (McKim et al., 2019). Principals who managed supervision and evaluation successfully could indirectly impact the work situation of teachers and enhance success of students (Clifford, Hansen, & Wraight, 2014; Clifford & Ross, 2011; Connelly & Bartoletti, 2012). One potential rationale for the difference between the

significant perceptions regarding supervision could be that not all instructional supervisors "made intentional moves to help principals value their own development as instructional leaders rather than to engage in IL work such as classroom observations as a matter of compliance" (Honig, 2012:747). It is possible that some supervisors might have difficulty creating this value in supervision with the past practice of supervision of principals emphasizing the use of checklists or compliance (McMahon, Peters & Schumacher, 2014) without developing trust or communication between principal and supervisor (Hvidston, McKim & Holmes, 2018).

Supervisors are charged with district instructional enhancement based on the instructional efforts of principals and the performance of schools, creating working schemes that flow from the top and down through the organisation (McKim et al., 2019). Principals who are effective leaders engage in creating cultures where high-quality instruction is demonstrated by increased student academic performance. If principals are also instructional leaders who develop strong teachers, supporting those principals by providing supervision and evaluation systems with supervisors who can mentor and coach to improve IL is a powerful concept. Although research regarding the roles of supervisors is limited, impetus is growing for schools to implement supervision because of its powerful impact on effective principals. A better understanding of how supervisors and principals perceive the effectiveness of a supervision and evaluation system for principals could lead to the improvement of principals' performance and thus the improvement of student achievement (McKim et al., 2019).

3.5 CHALLENGES PRINCIPALS EXPERIENCE WHILE ENGAGING IN IL ACTIVITIES AND THEIR POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

3.5.1 Challenges principals experience while engaging in IL activities

This sub-section addresses research question 4: What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging in IL activities? Accordingly, different findings of previous studies with regard to challenges principals experience during their IL practices were examined.

According to Malishan (1990), the challenges to IL are circumstances or behavioural issues that have been noted as hindering the IL practices of principals. Hallinger and Murphy (2013) pointed out the challenges confronted by principals; for instance, lack of knowledge to lead their schools, a heavy workload, school structures which have numerous layers, and busy schedules have caused problems for principals to manage the instructional programmes and coordinate the curriculum of the school. An additional noteworthy obstacle is the lack of skills and training in critical evaluation on how to carry out their roles successfully (Hallinger & Murphy, 2013). A study conducted by Mason (2013) revealed that there are major challenges to the ability of principal to effectively practice IL. These challenges to IL are classified into five themes: vision and mission; managing classroom instruction; time for teaching and planning; the success or progress of students; and a positive learning atmosphere. Among the five themes, the principals successfully practiced IL in all aspects except success and progress of students. More dedicated consideration and PD is needed on this issue. Mason (2013) further explained that financial limitations, working with reluctant staff members, ensuring stakeholder input, and requirements of accountability were the most substantial challenges to IL practices. However, the effective execution of IL requires well-organised schools in terms of expending human, material, financial and other related resources.

According to Scott (2017), while executing their roles as instructional leaders, principals would undeniably encounter some challenges, obstacles and barriers that might reduce the effectiveness of their IL. Scott (2017) pointed out that challenges such as a lack of finance and instructional resources and teachers' high turnover were faced by principals while practising IL. Similarly, Hussien (2019) indicated that a lack of commitment and opportunities for PD for the leadership, resistance to take on pedagogical roles, lack of facilities and resources, scarcity of budget and minimal financial support, low participation of stakeholders and lack of support from the local political leaders were challenges to the effective implementation of IL practices.

Rahman, Tahir, Anis and Ali (2020) revealed that secondary principals faced two main challenges: internal and external challenges. Internally, senior principals were

confronted with their inadequate knowledge and experience on IL which diminished their roles as instructional leaders and as a resource person to all teachers. Externally, principals encountered challenges from negative attitudes of teachers and parents, and even fewer monitoring from the stakeholders of the school.

Practically, there are reasons for the small amount of time for IL practices by principals which result from their heavy workloads on administrative matters in schools. In this sense, principals spent most of their school time handling disciplinary problems in their schools, managing paperwork and communicating via the telephone or internet (Abdullah, Ali, Mydin, & Amin, 2019; Hallinger & Murphy, 2013).

There were many challenges that many principals have recognised as impeding what they reflected to be their IL practices. Some of the challenges that principals complained and mentioned in the literature are discussed below.

3.5.1.1 Time required for IL

School principals are expected to be instructional leaders. However, numerous studies have concluded that principals truly devote little time to IL (Goldring, Jason, Grissom, Neumerski, Murphy & Blissett, 2015). Principals are presently facing an overload of administrative work and their IL practice is thus impacted owing to a lack of time (Pollock, Wang, & Hauseman, 2015). Furthermore, principals need to attend to both routine and urgent tasks; for instance, meeting parents, attending meetings and addressing conflict on the school grounds. These tasks leave principals with inadequate time to concentrate on their IL practices as effective instructional leaders. Rosa and Dwi (2021) showed that the three principals in their study shared the IL role, particularly in performing supervisory responsibilities. Despite this practice, the principals found it difficult to practice IL due to time constraints. Principals are in charge of IL and other responsibilities can be located to whoever is considered. Accordingly, principals feel accountable for being in charge of instruction inside schools. Hence, the concern of time is a high priority for principals. Principals resist integrating activities of IL into their role as instructional leaders. If the principals'first responsibility is IL, then the challenge is to fit the rest of the work into their schedule, as opposed to the other way around.

Accordingly, the principals should manage their IL responsibilities in order to support teachers and ensure the achievement of students (Goldringet al., 2015).

Time for IL is a concern for two reasons: dealing with administrative tasks and teaching and learning within a given timeframe. Time management is a problem owing to the priority principals place on daily administrative job functions (Pollock et al., 2015). Additionally, Marshall (2008) found that principals' time is dominated by actions that are important but not essential. The concern is expending excessive time on the "wrong things" and inadequate time on the "right" ones: The principal's first priorityis to ensure students' academic success (Marshall, 2008:17). Although there may continually be grievances about time, the challenge is for principals to link their activities to the achievement of the mission and vision of their school, continuously keeping the focus on the learning inside their school. This attitude is linked to a progressive outlook of IL.

There is no doubt, however, that "principals accomplish a heavy workload at a relentless speed; [and that] activities of principals are diverse, disjointed, and short" (Lunenburg, 2010:11). Due to their shifting responsibilities, principals frequently face challenges that limit their ability to perform to the best of their abilities, such as a lack of time for observing classroom activities. This is a result of their lack of adequate administrative or secretarial help to handle their everyday obligations (Smith & Andrews, 1989:25). Moreover, without the necessary knowledge and skills, IL is difficult. In general, most principals do not have the time necessary for IL (Jenkins, 2009). Hallinger (2009) confirmed that the problem of time is frequently experienced by principals in bigger schools and secondary schools, which characteristically have a more diverse discipline-based curriculum.

In the Ethiopian context, since IL is a precondition for offering quality education at any level of the school and as part of their work, principals are expected to be instructional leaders. Several studies have revealed that principals generally carry out administrative leadership responsibilities effectively but are less effective in IL practices. According to Geleta (2015:1), "principals are too pre-occupied in dealing with strictly administrative duties in their offices, leaving the instructional responsibilities in the hands of teachers alone". Several studies have also indicated that public secondary school principals in

urban settings are generally less effective in the use of time for IL practices although they perform effectively in administrative leadership responsibilities. In other words, principals' administrative leadership and other routine work took more of their time than IL. This means that public secondary school principals in the city are not instructionally oriented in the three core IL dimensions, namely, defining the school mission, managing the instructional programmes, and developing a positive school learning climate.

3.5.1.2 Budgetary constraints for IL

Similar to time, the budget for IL is well-known by principals as an IL issue. Principals needed more finance for instructional resources, both human and material. Principals stated that having restricted control of the finances given to their schools and the lack of adequate monies hinders their IL practices. According to Pollock et al. (2015), harmonising the budget is an indirect consequence of what principals are expected to accomplish.

Principals in Pollock et al.'s (2015) study demonstrated the fact that lack offinance hinders the implementation of the instructional programme. Nevertheless, as instructional leaders, principals must implement their numerous board policies to diminish the challenge. Mason (2013) stated that the principal is in charge of managing the budget and resource distribution within their schools; thus, principals must resort to fund management and creativity to decide how to use monies within their organisations to support the instructional programme. Though principals in his study were capable of getting by with the funds given, they had to evaluate their situation each school year to make budgetary decisions that would successfully support the instructional programme. This method to solve budgetarychallenges requires a broad-minded outlook as it links to IL.

According to Bellibas (2015), principals pointed out that their schools were too big and had inadequate financial resources for successful IL. According to Hussien (2019), shortage of budget and low financial support were among the challenges to appropriately practice IL accomplishments. In the developing world, most of the schools work on a shoe-string budget for their teaching and learning practices. This makes it

problematic for the principals to acquire the resources that are necessary for successful instructional practices. In the face of financial distress, principals are advised to make an effort to commit a considerable number of resources to the enhancement of teaching and learning (Bellibas, 2015). The restricted financial resources should not be seen as a reason for not channelling resources to enhancing the quality of the instructional programme and the academic growth of the students. According to Powell (2017), school principals are challenged not only with spending funds on suitable resources according to the standards of the education ministry, but also with acquiring additional funds to support their instructional programmes. The budget challenge to IL practices endures when principals have to determine whether their community stakeholders could assist with financing endeavours.

In the Ethiopian context, regional and city administration education bureaus are responsible for allocating the budget for education in general and the budget for teaching and learning in particular. In Ethiopia, similar to other developing countries in the world, public-school principals have indicated that their schools have inadequate financial resources for effective IL (Amsale & Beyene, 2022; Yohannes & Wasonga, 2021).

3.5.1.3 Unclear and inconsistent definitions of IL

The significance of IL was acknowledged in the late 1970s, yet it is not well-defined because the term has been defined in a different way by diverse researchers (Taole, 2013). Hallinger and Murphy (1987) explained that a barrier that limits principals from practising IL is lack of clear definition of the IL role of principal. According to Hallinger (2003), because the term IL means different things to different people and transforming practice takes a longer time than scholars and administrators have patience for, the term has constantly suffered from conceptual and practical limitations. Scholars and researchers recognise that there is no single clear definition of IL or specific guidelines as to what a principal as an instructional leader does in a school (Geleta, 2015). Geleta (2015) further indicated that lack of clarity and consistency in the concept of IL has resulted in challenges in practising it effectively. Similarly, O'Donovan (2015) confirmed that the lack of knowledge and skills of principals in their roles and responsibilities make

them run the school programme unsuccessfully. The lack of ability of researchers, authors, and practitioners to decide on a clear and consistent definition of IL generates a hindrance for school principals who want to enhance their knowledge and skills as instructional leaders. A clear and consistent definition of the term IL is hard to pin down. According to Leithwood et al. (2004), though definitions tend to focus on the importance of maintaining teaching and learning, the term IL is frequently more a slogan than an exact standard for leadership practices and expectations. The World Bank (2010) pointed out that almost all school principals have little understanding of the concept of IL. Most school principals in Zimbabwe did not sufficiently comprehend the concept of IL (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013). Manaseh (2016) identified that in Tanzania, most of the school principals were not acquainted with the concept of IL. Isaiah and Isaiah (2014) indicated that lack of understanding of IL makes it problematic for school principals to implement it.

According to researcher's observation, the doubt of exactly meaning of IL makes it problematic for role players to become effective at its practice. Moreover, the broad and sometimes ambiguous definitions of IL made it difficult to be understood effortlessly by the role players of IL in general, school principals in particular in Ethiopian education context, and these broadness and ambiguity are directly associated with low engagement of the role players in IL.

3.5.1.4 Too many demands on the school time of principals

School time allocation is a multifaceted challenge for principals in numerous countries. According to theory, IL includes the measures principals take to promote teaching and learning, with all other school activities serving as a support system for these major objectives (Hoy & Hoy, 2006). However, in reality, the practiceis usually at odds with the daily work of principals (Zepeda, 2003). According to Smith and Andrews (1989), a principal's typical day is filled with unforeseen interruptions, non-instructional demands from teachers, disciplinary issues, and other demands that leave little time for IL. The everyday battle caused by demands on the principals' time increases the difficulty of putting IL into practice. This conflict is made worse by the fact that school districts expect principals to be instructional leaders while rewarding them for running well-run,

efficient institutions (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Making IL the end goal of school leadership may ultimately miss the point, according to Portin, Schneider, DeArmond, and Gundlach (2003). Given the numerous demands placed on principals' daily schedules, it is unreasonable to expect them to spend time in the classroom as well. Principals' primary responsibilities have changed from being managers to being instructional leaders, yet the managerial parts of the job still persist. According to Davis, Darling-Hammond, La Pointe, and Meyerson (2005), principals are also expected to be experts in assessment, community builders, disciplinarians, public relations experts, facility managers, budget analysts, special programme administrators, and expert supervisors of legal, contractual, and policy mandates and initiatives. Principals are also expected to be educational visionaries and instructional and curriculum leaders. They must be sensitive to the expanding spectrum of needs of pupils as well as the frequently conflicting interests of teachers, students, parents, district officials, state and federal agencies, and unions. Additionally, about a third of most principals' school time is spent on administrative tasks like student discipline and paperwork that has little to do with the development of school performance (Horng & Loeb, 2010). Mestry (2017) also pointed out that school principals typically have a full plate of administrative and management tasks, including acquiring resources, overseeing student behaviour, handling unforeseen crises involving teachers and students, and resolving disputes with parents. These activities are signs that they are dealing with higher demands, more difficult choices, and additional duties than ever before. Additionally, Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018) found that important obstacles to principals' IL included their everyday administrative routines, the allocation of school resources, and an overly centralised structure. Furthermore, Wasyhun and Teshome (2019) found that administrative work overload was among the major challenges that negatively affected the effectiveness of instructional leaders. The leadership and administrative job functions take up most of the time of principals (Ning, 2021). In the meantime, interactions of principals with students impact their interactions with parents and community members. Ning (2021) further describes that the results indicate that context of school administration (work duties, power distribution and work challenges of principals) impacts their allocation of time with regard to the job domains of IL.

Regarding the time spent on IL activities, Willis (1980) explained that the principals of secondary school spent only 2% of their school time observing classrooms. Martin and Willower (1981) noted that only 17% of school time of principals and only 8% of their activities dealt with instructional issues. In addition, according to Horng, Klasik, and Loeb (2010), even though there are demonstrable connections in research between IL, the quality of the teachers and achievement of students, principals typically spend less than 15% of their school daily work time on IL tasks. Likewise, May and Supovitz (2011) shown that principals spent only 8% of their time on IL. In the same vein, Grissom, Loeb and Master (2013) revealed that typically, principals spent less than13% of their school time on instructional activities; school days of principals were rather overwhelmed by managerial and administrative tasks.

School principals face many obstacles when attempting to increase their instructional time, including organizational tasks that hinder IL, numerous demands on their time at school that make it difficult for them to focus on instruction, and potential knowledge and skill gaps in the area of instruction (Goldring et al., 2015). In contrast, day-to-day instruction activities are only weakly or not at all related to improvements in student performance and frequently have a negative relationship with teacher and parent evaluations, according to research by Horng, Klasik, and Loeb (2010). Time spent on organisation management activities is associated with positive school outcomes, such as student test score gains and positive teacher and parent assessments of the instructional climate. Further research by Horng et al. (2010) revealed that principals devote a significant portion of their day to management and organisation chores rather than regular education and programme management. Although those categorised as organisation management duties appear to be vital, perhaps even more so than those directly related to instruction, administrative tasks tend to contribute less to the school's overall wellbeing than other major activities.

3.5.1.5 Inadequate training for principals in IL

Many factors place hindrances in the way of the effective practice of IL in schools. According to Atkinson (2013), one of the factors acting as a challenge to the effective practice of IL in schools is a lack of formal training on IL on the part of the school

principals. Principals are inclined to visit classrooms infrequently, possibly only to make obligatory formal observations. This is because IL skills of principals are not as well-developed as other skills (Fink & Resnick, 2001). Principals who want to be successful instructional leaders are impeded by insufficient training. These obstacles happen to such an extent that principals who develop the knowledge and skills needed to become successful instructional leaders do so according to their own idiosyncrasies and standards, and frequently at some detriment to their profession.

Marks (2008) argued that the lack of training in IL prior to selection as principals is one of the main factors hindering the effective accomplishment of IL in schools. Likewise, Mapolisa and Tshabalala (2013) indicated that principals are appointed direct from teaching in the classroom with no previous training for taking on a principalship post. Furthermore, Jenkins (2009) explained that, among the reasons for not focusing on IL, is a lack of continuous and in-depth training. Moreover, Wasyhun and Teshome (2019) found that a lack of relevant, timely and sufficient professional training was among the major challenges that negatively affected the effectiveness of instructional leaders in Ethiopia. Furthermore, research has confirmed that most of the principals lacked the required skills essential for them to function as instructional leaders owing to a lack of appropriate training in IL. Naidoo and Peterson (2015) stated that numerous South African school principals work without the required competencies and skills necessary for them to serve effectively and efficiently as instructional leaders.

3.5.1.6 Lack of subject area and pedagogical knowledge of the principals

Subject-matter expertise is the teacher's fundamental knowledge of a certain subject and content area (Kultsum, 2017). Bellibas (2015) found that some school leaders frequently struggled to perform a number of their IL tasks effectively due to a lack of subject area understanding. Accordingly, the majority of principals, especially those at secondary schools, are thought to lack the necessary subject-matter expertise, which prevents them from carrying out IL (Stein & Nelson, 2003). Furthermore, Chen and Cheng (2017) acknowledged that given the distinctive nature of subjects available in secondary schools and the clear boundaries between knowledge in different academic disciplines, it is impossible for a principal to be an effective instructional leader in all

areas of the curriculum. Additionally, Bellibas (2015) noted that most administrators were aware of their lack of subject-matter expertise in a few of the subjects; as a result, during their classroom observations, they put greater emphasis on lesson planning and classroom management techniques. Additionally, Lingam and Lingam's (2016) study of schools in the Solomon Islands in the Pacific revealed that the majority of school heads consistently fell short when it came to exemplifying best practices in assessment. The importance of assessment in the teaching and learning matrix is acknowledged in the literature, yet school leaders frequently show a lack of understanding of this fundamental aspect of education. This deficiency can be attributed to the shortcomings in teacher preparation programmes. Most school leaders "attribute the origin of their problems to an original teacher training programme that featured little on assessment, which adversely affected their capacity to operate as instructional leaders in assessment for teaching and learning in schools", according to Lingam and Lingam (2016:91). Due to their lack of subject-matter expertise in some subjects, some teachers, according to Mapolisa and Tshabalala (2013), do not believe that their principals can participate in IL activities that promote effective teaching and learning. This attitude on the part of the teachers can seriously undermine the IL practices of principals.

The ability of teachers to provide a successful teaching and learning environment for all students is known as pedagogical knowledge (Shulman, 2004). According to Hallinger and Murphy (1987), one barrier preventing administrators from using IL is a lack of expertise about curriculum and instruction. The problem underlying it is that most principals lack the skills or understanding required to adopt IL. Bush (2013) argues that for principals to be successful as instructional leaders, they must be knowledgeable about the curriculum, teaching strategies, assessment methodologies and the most recent learning research. DeMatthews (2014) supported Bush's contention by pointing out that high-performing schools are regarded as leaders with knowledge of the curriculum, education and assessment. In addition, Manaseh (2016) found that teachers and principals concurred that the principals' participation in the classroom observation was a waste of time and did not benefit the instructors because of their lack of pedagogical understanding. Likewise, Quebec and Jimerson (2020) described that, IL is

a primary task of school leaders, but this work may be complicated when leaders and teachers do not share content area or grade level expertise. Among key interconnected attributes that school leaders bring to the tasks of IL are communication skills, content knowledge in curriculum and pedagogy, and the ability to solve complex problems (DeWitt, 2020; Grissom, Egalite, & Lindsay, 2021). Moreover, according to Musandu (2018), history teachers prefer to be supervised by school leaders who share the same area of specialisation with them and who possess formal training in the area of school leadership. Furthermore, Hallissey (2021) found that insufficient training and teaching experience of principals in the early elementary grades may affect their capacity to give teachers who want feedback on instructional improvement that is pertinent and of high quality.

3.5.1.7 Working with reluctant teaching staff

According to Eller and Eller (2013), while principals tried to promote a positive learning climate and create positive relationships, they were met with sporadic resistance and challenging behaviours from the members of the staff. Principals indicated that behaviours of the staff contributed to either the success or the failure of the instructional programme (Pollock et al., 2015). Whitaker (2011) explained that there is no doubt that behaviours with a damaging effect on the organisation's mission and vision can be damaging to the general institutional success. Principals emphasised that behaviour of the staff could negatively affect the instructional programme, particularly when change was looming (Pollock et al., 2015). Resistance from teachers to changes and enhancement on instructional capabilities and PD is a key challenge confronted by principals in the course of their IL practices. According to Mason (2013:14), the principal should have a helpful and friendly attitude, particularly for "developing the people and creating relationships". This mindset would develop a progressive view of IL.

3.5.1.8 Additional challenges

The challenges principals experience while engaging in their IL practices can be classified into two key categories: internal and the external challenges. Internally, principals confront challenges associated to their own limitations; for instance, many

meetings attended by the school principals and excessively large amounts of administrative work. Externally, challenges generated due to limitations of other stakeholders, for instance, lack of support from parents and poor supply of resources and materials are the notable challenges faced by principals.

i.   Many meetings attended by the school principals

Meetings comprise the largest percentage of principal time. School principals are presently facing a high workload, and their IL practice is thus impacted because of a lack of time (Pollock et al., 2014). The non-instructional tasks of principals hamper them in the effective execution of IL. Atnafu (2014); Belete (2017); Bogale (2018); and Fire (2017) showed that the education bureaus, zonal or sub-city education offices as well as the woreda and district education offices invite the principals to numerous meetings at least three times a week. Some of these meetings clash. The worst thing about these meetings is that school principals are not allowed to send vice-principals to speak on their behalf. Although research has shown that vice-principals and department heads help principals administer the curriculum indirectly, a principal still has to monitor teachers', department heads', and students' work. Due to the amount of time spent in meetings, this is not feasible. Additionally, they are unable to spend the required minimum of 15% of their school days on teaching and learning. In Ethiopian context, principals are overloaded by meetings arranged by principals themselves inside their schools and those meetings arranged by MoE or REBs or Zonal Education Offices/ SCEOs or WEOs. The researcher suggested the following strategies that can be used to minimize the impact of many meetings attended by school principals on their IL practices: they should reduce the unnecessary wastage of time in and out the school; they should make meetings arranged by them out of the daily school time, short and precise; if the agenda of the meeting is already known, they should discuss it with other colleagues at least one day before the meeting; and if the meeting arranged by others is not demanded their presence, they should delegate other people to freeup their time for other priorities.

ii. An excessively large amount of administrative work

Much of the discussion on obstacles to enhancing the quality of IL has concentrated on the administrative work that hinders principals from the core business of enhancing teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2005). Despite many challenging and contradictory tasks, principals tend to concentrate on administrative and managerial work at the expense of IL. Consequently, the core business of the school, which is teaching and learning, is extremely compromised. Also, doing administrative work, for instance disciplining students, completing observation paper work that does not relate to outcome development of the schools takes almost a third of most principals' school time (Horng & Loeb, 2010; Wasyhun & Teshome, 2019). Moreover, Mestry (2017) indicated that the days of school principals are usually plagued with diverse administrative and management functions such as procuring resources; managing learner discipline; dealing with unexpected teacher and learner crises; and resolving conflicts with parents. These are manifestations that show they are faced with more demands, more complex decisions and additional responsibilities than ever before. Additionally, Turkoglu and Cansoy (2018) determined that daily administrative routines, making resources available for schools, and an over-centralised structure were significant barriers to the IL of principals.

iii. Poor parental involvement

In order to bridge the culture gap between the home and the school, parents' involvement in their children's education is crucial. Poor parental involvement, according to the majority of participants, is a significant obstacle to the implementation of IL. Parents who are dedicated to assisting the school in the education of their children are necessary for the effective and successful implementation of IL. Teachers tend to spend large portions of their time correcting youngsters who are not being punished by their parents due to poor or absent parental engagement. Parents also play a key part in supporting and motivating the learners to thrive in their academic tasks. Therefore, the effectiveness of instruction is substantially hampered when parents are not involved.

iv. Poor supply of resources and materials

The majority of principals in IL studies expressed their concern regarding the scarcity of resources in their schools. The principals and their other role players in IL require sufficient resources so as to be able to implement IL successfully. Poor provision of resources and materials in schools includes shortages of text books, teacher's guides, classrooms, libraries, laboratories and internet access. Hussien (2019) indicated that lack of adequate facilities and resources, shortage of budget, and low financial support were challenges to the adequate implementation of IL practices. Furthermore, according to Scott (2017), principals stated that lack of financial support and resources, a lack of educational resources and high turnover of teachers were hindrances in implementing IL. Moreover, according to Gowpall (2015), principals articulated their concerns about the shortage of resources in their schools without they cannot implement IL effectively. Similarly, other earlier studies revealed that the majority of principals had the perception that their schools obtained inadequate resources from the suppliers such as district departments of education (Atkinson, 2013; Mason, 2013; Musandu, 2018). Consequently, a shortage of resources for instructional practices are challenges faced by principals that hinder the implementation of IL.

In sum, according to the findings of previous studies with regard to challenges principals experience during their IL practices, there were several challenges which directly or indirectly hindered the engagement of principals in their IL practices. However, the most important ones were time required for IL; budget constraints for IL; unclear and inconsistent definitions of IL; too many demands on the school time of principals; inadequate training for principals in IL; lack of subject area and pedagogical knowledge of the principals; and working with reluctant teaching staff. Additional challenges to IL of principals were the many meetings attended by the school principals, an excessively large amount of administrative work, poor parental involvement, and poor supply of resources and materials. In next sub-section, the possible solutions obtained from earlier studies to the challenges identified in the engagement of principals in their IL practices are presented.

3.5.2 Possible solutions to the challenges in the high engagement of principals in their IL practices

This sub-section is addresses research question 5: What possible solutions can be devised that contribute to high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA? It contributes to the possible solutions for engagement in IL practices of principals by exploring the literature in earlier studies. Geleta (2015) indicated that, for schools to be successful, principals have to balance administrative tasks and instructional tasks. Also, according to Tefera (2019), the following are possible strategies to address challenges of IL: encouraging and motivating principals; supplying adequate resources for schools; promoting PD and in-service training; diminishing the work load of principals to focus on academic matters; providing incentives for those principals who successfully play their IL roles; and offering regular supervision. More specifically, the possible solutions for each of the challenges mentioned in sub-section 3.5.1 are presented below.

3.5.2.1 Increasing the time required for IL

School principals are presently facing work, and their ILpractice is thus impacted owing to a lack of time (Pollock et al., 2014). Furthermore, principals have to accomplish several routine and urgent tasks, for instance, meeting parents, attending meetings and addressing conflicts in the school grounds. This situation has left principals with inadequate their time to concentration their IL practices as effective instructional leaders. Also, Jenkins (2009) emphasised that "IL requires principals to focus their efforts on improving teaching and learning by freeing themselves of bureaucratic tasks". Jenkins (2009) further argued that principals should free themselves from bureaucratic tasks and focus their efforts toward improving teaching and learning in order to take the role of instructional leaders". Inhibiting or diverting time-consuming activities and emergencies is vital to allocating time to IL (Marshall, 2008). Marshall (2008) advised that an evaluation of the time management strategies of principals was needed to address the challenge of time. Moreover, Marshall (2008) stated that principals found their time dominated by actions that were important but not essential. The problem of time can only be addressed if school leaders regard IL as a shared or distributed job.

Therefore, school principals should prioritise IL and allocate most of their school time to IL practices. They should delegate routine administrative work to supporting staff. Consequently, they would be able to be visible and accessible to provide support to their teachers and build good relationships with them.

3.5.2.2 Allocating adequate budget for IL

Like time, the budget for IL was identified by principals as an IL issue. Abdulrasheed and Bello (2015) stated that the government should make available sufficient finance openly to the state schools bank account for principals to implement their school accomplishments successfully. Principals needed more resources for practicing IL including human and material resources. Principals stated having limited control of the monies given to their schools and the lack of sufficient funds hinder their instructional practices. The running of an instructional programme takes many resources, and this costs money. Accordingly, AACAEB should allocate adequate budget for effectiveness of IL practices.

3.5.2.3 Using clear and consistent definitions of IL

According to Atkinson (2013), an obstacle for leaders who seek to improve their skills as instructional leaders is the consequence of the inability of writers, researchers, and practitioners to agree on a clear and consistent definition of IL. The lack of ability of researchers, authors, and practitioners to decide on a clear and consistent definition of IL generates a hindrance for school principals who pursue to enhance their knowledge and skills as instructional leaders. A clear and consistent definition of the term IL is hard to pin down. Moreover, scholars and researchers recognise that there is no single clear definition of IL or specific guidelines as to what a principal as an instructional leader does in a school (Geleta, 2015). However, O'Donovan (2015:243) declared that "school principals, as instructional leaders, need to be proficient enough to understand and accomplish their IL roles based on the current condition". Also, Gowpall (2015) revealed that the school principals needed to have a clear understanding of what their IL roles entail in order to enact this role. In relation to this, Bas (2012) recommended that, in order to apply IL behaviours better at their schools, school principals should take

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continuous seminars and courses on IL. Accordingly, FDRE MoE in collaboration with AACAEB should prepare a framework for IL implementation which defines and describes IL clearly and consistently to all role players of IL (principals, teachers, and supervisors) to facilitate a common understanding of them. Moreover, AACAEB should arrange continuous seminars and courses on IL for all role players of IL.

3.5.2.4 Using a scheduled school time on part of the principals

TALIS 2013 categorised work time of principals under six domains: leadership and administrative job functions; curriculum and instruction-related job functions; interactions of students; interactions of parents; interactions of community; and others (OECD, 2016a). In this categorisation, as summarised by educational stakeholders, administrative, instructional and interactive job functions are a major part of the school principals' daily activities in schools. Leadership of principals requires a well-adjusted school time allocation model for administrative, instructional and interactive job functions across countries (Ning, 2021). A general investigation of the 34 involving countries and economies in TALIS 2013 showed that principals with better skills of time management incline to expend additional time on management of classroom and instruction in their schools (OECD, 2016a). Likewise, Hallinger (2016) suggested that school principals tend to spend additional time on curriculum and instruction-related tasks to enhance academic performance of the school, given the high expectations for students by their parents and society. According to Grissom, Loeb and Master (2013), scholars have long argued that principals should be instructional leaders, but few studies have empirically linked specific IL behaviours to school performance. Grissom et al. (2013) suggested that time expended engaging in instruction is not itself adequate but rather that the quality of IL activities is determined by how that time is spent.

3.5.2.5 Providing continuous training and capacitation programmes for principals in IL

To order to improve IL practices of principals, attention should also be given to the training of principals. The government needs to make specific facilities available for this. Creating new programmes in training is important because the knowledge and skills of the principals in IL need to be updated and upgraded. Without the appropriate

knowledge and skills that are needed by IL, it is problematic for principals to lead the core business of the school, teaching and learning.

Sofo, Fitzgerald and Jawas (2012) stated that focusing on the principals' capabilities to learn to lead well was an essential leadership strategy. Abdulrasheed and Bello (2015) recommended that government secondary school principals should be retrained by participating in seminars and conference for enhancement of IL. Geleta (2015) stated that principals need to be skilled in school management and leadership so as to be capable as instructional leaders. Hussien (2019) recommended that school leaders be adequately trained to embark on IL activities in addition to the traditional school administration roles. For Feye (2019), improving the efficiency of schools and ensuring quality of secondary education the schools should be guided by professional instructional leaders, and PD strategies need to be put in place. Wasyhun and Teshome (2019) suggested that concerned stakeholders should offer appropriate training on the core IL dimensions in association with nearby colleges and universities.

Principals gain knowledge through capacity building which enables them to inspire others to learn and lead. For educational achievement, knowledge and experiences are effectively shared. Teachers can benefit from the experience and expertise of instructional leaders, and they frequently do so through PD. According to the OECD (2012), systems with strong principals purposefully work to develop a group of outstanding principals through ongoing formal training as well as through websites that allow them to stay current on their skills through knowledge based on research and by exchanging experiences with others in similar roles. The training of the principals and the potential autonomy granted to them in their jobs as trainers are crucial factors in the development of their abilities. Principals can increase their capacity by developing a team to deliver good instruction and by developing others' leadership. According to Knapp, Copland, Honig, Plecki and Portin (2010), capacity building calls for a learning leader who disperses resources, explains the business of their schools and forges connections.

In Singapore, principals are exposed to different types of formal and informal in-service training (Ng, 2015). Thus, Singapore has shown that the development of IL capabilities

cannot be left to chance. According to Eacott and Asuga (2014), the heart of the matter is that a dedicated focus on the training and growth of principals, government programmes intended at creating outstanding education systems will not be achieved.

In the Ethiopian context, MoE should encourage higher institutions with college of education to prepare framework for their IL courses. In addition, MoE should prepare guidelines and manuals for IL trainings in primary and secondary schools in the country. For study site, the researcher recommended AACAEB and SCEOs to give due attention in supporting and monitoring secondary school principals, teachers, and supervisors frequently, creating experience sharing programmes on good practices, and providing relevant trainings continuously on the meanings and core dimensions of IL in collaboration with nearby higher education institutions (colleges and universities).

3.5.2.6 Empowering principals to be experts in their subject areas and pedagogical knowledge

The content and pedagogical knowledge are considerably required in principal leadership to support the teaching and learning in the classroom effectively. The knowledge such as subject matter, curriculum, teaching strategy, and learners' learning will be an important element to be possessed by the principals in order to maintain teachers' instructional practices, and then students' learning attainment. Principals should be one step ahead of teachers in content knowledge and pedagogy. DeMatthews (2014) asserted that leaders in high-performing schools have experience in the key academic disciplines. Unfortunately, the majority of school administrators lack the knowledge necessary for efficient IL. Most principals are overworked and constantly fall short when it comes to managing the core role of the school because they lack the necessary abilities (Zepeda, 2007).

According to Stein and Nelson (2003), the problem could probably be addressed by embarking on programmes aimed at helping in-service principals to understand how teachers teach and how students learn different subject area. Also, Stein and Nelson (2003) suggested that sufficient short-term training on subject areas and pedagogy for principals should be organised by the educational authorities so that they can offer

appropriate and quality feedback to teachers who need instructional enhancement. Furthermore, Mizell (2010) stated that, like teachers, principals should also take part in PD with and without staff members. Principals need PD that helps them to carry out their roles and responsibilities, especially on content and pedagogical knowledge. Moreover, according to Bush (2013), to operate effectively as instructional leaders, principals should have the expertise in the curriculum, teaching methods, assessment techniques and current research on learning. Additionally, according to Lingam and Lingam (2016), the principals should be sufficiently trained in assessment techniques so that they would be in a position to give assistance and monitor teachers in conducting effective assessment. Furthermore, Shaked (2021) recommended that general pedagogical knowledge plays a vital role in IL but that this may decrease the focus on content knowledge of leadership. Accordingly, principals should be empowered via capacity building programmes (seminars, training, workshops, etc.) and PD sessions (updating and upgrading strategies) to be experts and one step ahead of teachers in their subject areas and pedagogical knowledge. Moreover, institutions that offer preparation and training for school principals should rethink the preparation and training of principals on their content and pedagogical knowledge.

According to researcher's view, a school principal as instructional leader should have adequate subject area and pedagogical knowledge in addition to leadership knowledge. School principals can be knowledgeable about subject area and pedagogical knowledge via different strategies. As suggestions to alleviate the problems of subject area and pedagogical knowledge of principals in Ethiopian context, MoE should arrange trainings in preferred subject area and pedagogical knowledge as one of their leadership courses of second-degrees or PGDSL for those their diplomas or first-degrees are non-subject areas; consider subject-specific leadership trainings in the teaching and learning of languages, mathematics, natural sciences, and social sciences; and provide rigorous formal trainings in IL in second-degrees or PGDSL. In the study site, AACAEB and SCEOs should select those candidates of principalship position their first-degrees are in subject areas; encourage principals to teach at least one class in their diploma or first-degree subject area in order to improve their subject area and pedagogical knowledge; and attach PD as a career-long tool for improving principals' IL practices.

3.5.2.7 Listening and supporting the reluctant teachers based on their needs

Another barrier to the proper use of IL in schools is the idea of teachers' autonomy in the classroom (Bellibas, 2015). There are some teachers who take classroom autonomy very seriously. The widespread consensus is that since teachers are experts in their fields and meddling in their classes is inappropriate. Classrooms are regarded as the private domains of teachers as a result of this notion. As a result, the majority of teachers in classrooms work behind closed doors (Hallinger, 2012). Bellibas (2015) claims that the majority of principals respect this private space and do not watch seasoned, capable instructors actually educate. The IL values, which encourage teachers to learn from their superiors and from one another during the actual lesson delivery, are at odds with the ethos of the classroom as a private space. Although there is no true method of reducing the likelihood of encountering such behaviour, principals have used a variety of strategies to reduce or transform the harmful effects of such intrusions (Whitaker, 2011). Principals emphasised the need for maintaining good manners while continuing to support the goals and vision established as a method of achieving success. Eller and Eller (2013) also suggested a "confront, listen, and create" strategy for dealing with difficult employees, especially when the issue relates to a leader's management style. Principals must listen to reluctant teachers and support them based on their needs, approach difficult situations with candour and an open mind and do a variety of other duties as part of their job.

In sum, the possible solutions to the challenges identified in earlier studies regarding the engagement of principals in their IL practices are increasing the time required for IL; allocating adequate budget for IL; using clear and consistent definitions of IL; using a scheduled school time on part of the principals; providing continuous training and capacitation programmes for principals in IL; empowering principals to be expertise in their subject area and pedagogical knowledge; and listening to and supporting reluctant teachers based on their needs. Therefore, implementing the possible solutions to all the above-mentioned challenges would have a major impact on the enhancement of principals' IL practices.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter focused on variables of the study which comprised the independent, dependent and mediating variables of the study and their relationships. Furthermore, self-perceptions of principals and perceptions of other role players on IL practices of principals were discussed with the intention of investigating effective IL in terms of principals' self-assessments and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) assessments of the engagement of principals in their IL practices. Moreover, the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions on IL practices of principals were discussed in this chapter. In addition, challenges principals experience while engaging in IL activities and their possible solutions were presented. In addition to the main sections of chapter, the research questions of the study were addressed in various sub-sections that form the major part of the conceptual framework of the study. The next chapter explains the research design and methods of the study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter deals with the concerns related to the course of actions to be followed to achieve the investigation. The purpose of the study is to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their IL practices in light of the dimensions and their job functions of PIMRS IL model. Moreover, the study was conducted to meet the following objectives:

- To determine the perceptions of public secondary school principals in AACA with their current and actual engagement in practices of IL (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) and identify their experiences with them;
- To determine the perceptions of public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA with the current and actual engagement in practices of IL (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRSIL model) of their principals;
- To compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals in AACA;
- To identify the challenges that public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging in IL activities;
- To contribute the possible solutions for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA; and
- To make recommendations that may be used as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA.

With regard to the sections of this chapter, it has eight sections. Section 1 describes the research design which comprises the research paradigm on which the study is founded, the research approach by which the study is guided, and research strategy by which the study is planned. Section 2 discusses the research methods used in the study. Section 3 articulates the research site of the study. Section 4 describes the target and research populations of the study. Section 5 presents the quantitative phase of the study which consists of sample, sample size, and sampling techniques used to select respondents

for the quantitative phase, instrumentation and data-collection methods used to collect quantitative data, the pilot test, quantitative data-collection procedures, techniques of quantitative data analysis and validity and reliability of quantitative data. Section 6 presents the qualitative phase of the study which includes sample size, and sampling techniques used to select participants for the qualitative phase, instrumentation and data-collection methods used to collect qualitative data, qualitative data-collection procedures, techniques of qualitative data analysis and trustworthiness of qualitative data. Section 7 examines ethical considerations followed throughout the process of the study. Finally, Section 8 summarises main points of the chapter.

The research questions guiding this study, calls for a profound investigation of the vital nature of the principals' perceptions and experiences with IL practices of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. Table 4.1 below shows research questions and their appropriate methods of data collections.

Table 4.1: Research questions and their appropriate methods of data collections

Research question	Appropriate methods of data collection to address the research question
1. How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRSIL model), and what experiences do they have with them?	i. PIMRSquestionnaire principal form ii. Semi-structured interview with principals iii. Document review iv. Literature review
2. How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRSIL model) of their principals?	i. PIMRSquestionnaire teacher and supervisor forms ii. Semi-structured interview with supervisors iii. Document review iv. Literature review
3. What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual	i. PIMRSquestionnaire principal, teacher, and supervisor forms ii. Semi-structured interviews with principals and supervisors

Research question	Appropriate methods of data collection to address the research question	
engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRSIL model) of principals in AACA?	iii.	Document review
	iv.	Literature review
4. What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging themselves in IL activities?	i.	Semi-structured interviews with principals and supervisors
	ii.	Document review
	iii.	Literature review
5. What possible solutions can be advised that contribute for the high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?	i.	Semi-structured interviews with principals and supervisors
	ii.	Document review
	iii.	Literature review
6. What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?	i.	Semi-structured interviews with principals and supervisors
	ii.	Researcher's suggestions based on the outcomes of the study
	iii.	Literature review

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Creswell (2014), the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis covered by plan and the procedure for research form a research design. It involves the intersection of philosophical assumptions, strategies for investigation, and detailed methods. The research design constitutes the decisions with regard to what, where, when, how much, by what means pertaining to a research study (Kothari, 2009). Moreover, the research design is the plan, structure and strategy of inquiry, which lead the data gathering and analysis (Olomolaiye, 1986). This is why Nwadinigwe (2002) described it as a means of transportation that moves the researcher from the state of lack of knowledge to a state of knowledge. In the following sub-sections, the research paradigm on which the study is anchored, the research approach by which how the researcher moves towards answering the research questions and the strategy of the study are explained.

4.2.1 Research paradigm

In this study, the PIMRS IL model (discussed in Chapter 2, sub-section 2.7.2) was adopted as a theoretical foundation and model upon which the principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL were discussed. A research paradigm is a model, method, or pattern for undertaking research. It is a set of beliefs, ideas, or understandings within which theories and practices can function (Mitchell, 2018). There are many forms of research philosophy, but this study was founded on pragmatism which is useful for the mixed methods approach (Creswell, 2014; Denscombe, 2008; Mitchell, 2018). Creswell (2014) has stated that pragmatism is the paradigm which allows for mixing research philosophies, assumptions, and data collection and analysis approaches and methods. In addition, pragmatism is a highly developed philosophy which gives the epistemology and the reason for uniting the approaches and methods of quantitative and qualitative inquiries (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Furthermore, the areas of association between quantitative and qualitative research, and between positivism and interpretive are the focus of pragmatism. According to Maarouf (2019), pragmatism is a philosophy that provides potential alternatives to a researcher in conducting the research to achieve the best outcomes. In addition, according to Creswell (2014), Hall (2013) and Shannon-Baker (2016), addressing realistic problems in the real world instead of being constructed on assumptions about the nature of knowledge (ontology) is the point of reference of pragmatism. This indicates that pragmatism guides "action-oriented" research processes. Furthermore, pragmatism accommodates the supplementary and supportive nature of the quantitative and qualitative phases of the research.

On the other hand, to provide reasons for the choice of a research design and methods, researchers must understand their epistemological commitments with respect to the nature and production of knowledge that underlies the investigation being conceptualised. Since this study was based on a pragmatic paradigm, which supposes the ontological and epistemological assumptions of both positivist and interpretive paradigms, that knowledge is external to the researcher (objective reality) while knowledge is subjectively constructed in the minds of both the researcher and the

research participants (subjective reality), because the topic of this study (principals' perceptions and experiences with IL practices) was a reality that was investigated with the help of self-perceptions of the researched (principals) and how it was perceived by other research respondents (teachers and supervisors) who responded to the different instruments (PIMRS survey questionnaires and interview guides) that were used in this study. With the aim of justifying their methodological options, mixed methods researchers should clearly describe their philosophical positions (Cameron, 2011). Based on this requirement, the researcher of this study describes the ontological and epistemological positions of pragmatism in a manner that combines the quantitative and qualitative world views. The ontological and epistemological stances of the study are discussed below.

4.2.1.1. The ontological position: The Cycle of Reality

Crotty (2003:10) describes ontology as "the study of being". Concerns include "what kind of world we are exploring, the nature of existence, and the basic structure of reality". The ontological assumptions are "those that answer to the query 'what is there that can be known?' or 'what is the nature of reality?'"according to Guba and Lincoln (1989:83). The ontological assumptions of both positivist and interpretive paradigms have been referred to by many researchers as a third paradigm, pragmatism. Being subjective and objective at the same time, accepting both the existence of one reality and that individuals have multiple interpretations of this reality is the "inter-subjective" nature of pragmatism and pragmatic research (Morgan, 2007). Moreover, according to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009), pragmatism involves acknowledging that reality is external to the researcher (objective reality) and multiple knowledge construed in the minds of both the researcher and the research participants (subjective reality) simultaneously and that a researcher selects the outlook that has paramount importance in meeting the objectives of his research. It is essential to understand both the objective and subjective views of reality in order to carry out mixed methods research (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). According to Maarouf (2019), pragmatism should run from an ontological position that is situated midway between the objectivity-subjectivity range in order to permit pragmatic researchers to scrutinise and employ

different ontological assumptions. Maarouf (2019) conceptualizes the ontological position of pragmatism as the cycle of reality. In line with this cycle of reality, in a certain context at a certain point of time, only one reality can exist, with the context being a determinant factor for the reality to exist and continue to exist. This implies that reality changes as the context changes and the existence of multiple realities is due to the existence of multiple contexts. However, the reality is perceived differently by the research participants who cause reality to change in a continuous process by changing the context as follows:

- Research participants perceive reality in different ways;
- Perceptions of research participants on reality direct their behaviours;
- Research participants' interactions of behaviours generate a new context through time; and
- A new reality is generated by creating a new context.

Although the variations in the context occur repeatedly, it does not have an instant effect, but it produces noteworthy variations in reality after a substantial period of time. Consequently, the cycle of reality assumes a pragmatic position which assumes that reality is usually constant and alters periodically. The cycle of reality is demonstrated below in Figure 4.1.
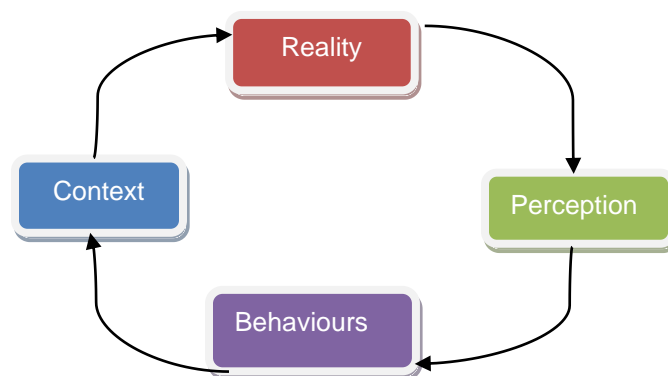
Figure4.1: The cycle of reality

Source: Maarouf (2019:7)

As illustrated in Figure 4.1, in this study, the cycle of reality assumptions permits the pragmatic researcher of this study to move between the one reality (external to the researcher) and the multiple perceptions of reality in minds of research participants (principals, teachers, and supervisors) and hence between the approaches and methods of quantitative and qualitative research.

First, supposing reality is usually constant (objectivity of the reality), the cycle of reality permits the researcher to assume the one realty outlook and employ the approaches of quantitative research to test a theory (model) about reality. The researcher has minimum knowledge regarding the phenomenon under investigation and the context within which this phenomenon exists. If the researcher has a theory (model) to be tested, this permits the researcher to develop variables to be measured, and then to address research questions 1, 2, and 3 of the study.

Second, as the cycle of reality also supposes that reality alters periodically (subjectivity of the reality), the pragmatic researcher considers that these overviews become outdated when the context alters, which needs to focus on and assess the theories in social sciences to ensure that they are valid. When the theory of the study becomes outdated, a pragmatic researcher needs to develop the current theory or create a new one. This may also occur while the researcher conducts research in a new context or confronts a new phenomenon. Then, the researcher confronts a condition where he does not have the minimum knowledge he requires because he has no theory to be tested and no notion about the variables that could be influencing or explaining this phenomenon. Thus, a pragmatic researcher could employ a qualitative approach to investigate the research participants' perceptions about reality (IL practices of principals). In this study, besides the quantitative data from principals, teachers and supervisors using their respective PIMRS survey questionnaires to show the objective reality, the researcher collected empirical qualitative data from head principals and resident supervisors using interview guides to explore the subjective reality of the topic under investigation.

Investigating perceptions of research participants supplied a profound knowledge of the context creating the reality and assisted the researcher to develop a new model of IL

practices for principals. Once the model was developed by the researcher, he went back to the one reality position (objectivity of the reality) and tested the new model quantitatively.

4.2.1.2. The epistemological position: The dual nature of knowledge

"A method of comprehending and clarifying how we know what we know" is epistemology (Crotty, 2003:3)."Pragmatism is clearly described from the epistemological position in the sense that a pragmatic researcher can employ any kind of research method to address his research objectives rooted in its real-world value and regardless of its fundamental philosophy," claims Maarouf (2019:8). "This separation between ontology and epistemology is an incessant source of criticism." As a result, Maarouf makes an epistemological assumption that directly follows from the perspective of the cycle of reality. The dual nature of knowledge is the name given to this epistemological perspective.

Depending on the researcher's ontological perspective rather than the ontology (nature of knowledge) itself, any sort of knowledge can be viewed as observable or unobservable, according to Maarouf's definition of knowledge. As a result, the pragmatic researcher is provided with both types of knowledge–objective (observable) and subjective (unobservable)–based on their current ontological position. As a result, the pragmatic researcher's main concern is choosing the best research methodology that is compatible with this position and most effectively achieves the goals of the study.

Maarouf (2019) makes the point that knowledge in the social sciences is very different from knowledge in the natural sciences because the bulk of it is not observable (subjective) by nature. The majority of the variables we deal with, like sentiments, beliefs, attitudes and intentions, are internal to us and can be measured similarly to how objects are measured in the natural sciences; they must be stated in order to be understood (Ma, 2012).

According to Maarouf (2019), the non-experimental quantitative methods, such as surveys, primarily deal with unobservable mental variables, such as feelings, beliefs,

attitudes, and intentions: they do not address observable knowledge. These methods are similar to qualitative, unstructured or semi-structured interviews.

The sole difference between quantitative and qualitative researchers is how they approach the source of knowledge. Quantitative researchers use quantitative techniques like questionnaires that restrict human replies to a set number of structured responses in order to be able to measure it.

Quantitative researchers assert that they only accept observable measurable knowledge even though the variables they are dealing with are not naturally observable and the measuring process in the social sciences never enjoys the same level of validity and reliability afforded in the natural sciences. Quantitative researchers are interested in a structured quantitative approach that aims to simplify the situation into variables and relationships.

Similar to quantitative experimental research, qualitative observation of human behaviour deals with observable human behaviours, but qualitative researchers deal with the same source of knowledge (observation) by providing detailed descriptions.

Overall, this means that both quantitative and qualitative researchers work with the same sources of knowledge all the time; however, each group of researchers uses a particular type of method that is matched with their philosophical presumptions and research objectives. This is because the claims of both quantitative and qualitative researchers that they can only accept either the quantitative (observable) or qualitative (unobservable) knowledge is simply a difference of opinion between these researchers. Founded on the cycle of reality position that believes by the mutual occurrence of one reality (objective reality) and the significance of research participants' perceptions of this reality (subjective reality), pragmatic researchers have the aim of unfolding reality for practical benefits and at other times investigate research participants' perceptions for more complete and profound understanding of a phenomenon. Consequently, pragmatists can deal with all sources of knowledge using appropriate techniques (such as questionnaires and interviews) that assist them to achieve their research objectives.

Thus, the double-faced knowledge stand produces a connection between the ontological and epistemological pragmatic assumptions.

Founded on the cycle of reality ontological stand, researchers move between the nature of knowledge as being objective and subjective and thus alternate between sources of knowledge as observable (quantitative) and unobservable (qualitative) knowledge. This indicates that the criticism that pragmatic researchers have produced an "anti-philosophical" attitude is addressed by the idea of double-faced knowledge. Furthermore, the idea of "what works" from the epistemological and methodological standpoints is well-matched with pragmatism.

In this study, based on the cycle of reality ontological position, the pragmatic researcher substitutes the two realities by assuming that there is one objective reality (reality is external to the researcher); it means that the mind of the researcher is thought to be separate from the world of objects of the study, and what is investigated. Therefore, the researcher separates himself from the objects of the study. The pragmatic researcher, however, understands that there is a subjective reality (multiple perceptions of reality in the minds of research participants). Accordingly, the researcher investigated principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL practices (as realities that exist in the world) using empirical quantitative data gathered from principals themselves, teachers, and supervisors via their respective PIMRS survey questionnaires. In addition, the researcher collected empirical qualitative data from the role players of IL (head principals and resident supervisors) to investigate their perceptions about the reality of the phenomenon under examination (principals' IL practices) by arranging face-to-face, semi-structured interviews.

4.2.2 Research approach

Creswell (2014) has stated that pragmatism is a paradigm which allows mixing of research philosophies, assumptions, and data collection and analysis approaches and methods. Furthermore, pragmatism is a highly developed philosophy which gives rise to using the approaches and methods of both quantitative and qualitative inquiries (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Also, as the third methodological movement,

the mixed methods research approach has been progressively recognised over the past two decades (Cameron, 2011; Ma, 2012; Molina-Azorin, 2016). Moreover, according to Creswell (2014) and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), quantitative and qualitative approaches are at two ends of a continuum: a study can be seen as more quantitative than qualitative or vice versa, and the mixed research approach is in the centre of the continuum. Hence, quantitative and qualitative are no longer seen as two discrete opposite approaches. In one study or a set of related studies, a mixed methods researcher employs a mix of quantitative and qualitative approaches. This can be done either concurrently when carrying out both components simultaneously or sequentially when carrying out one component first and the other second (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; Ma, 2012; Molina-Azorin, 2016).

In addition, according to Creswell (2014) and Molina-Azorin (2016), mixing quantitative and qualitative methods offers a more comprehensive understanding of the research problem than can be obtained from only one type of method. Moreover, Mitchell (2018) established that employing mixed methods research provides both quantitative and qualitative reasoning that led to optimal data clarification and best understanding of the phenomenon of the study under investigation. Furthermore, mixed methods researchers believe that employing only quantitative or qualitative research is inadequate and incomplete for many research problems. Quantitative and qualitative approaches should be united in a way that enhances quality of a research by gaining integral strengths and avoiding overlapping weaknesses; this is because of the strengths and weaknesses every approach has (Johnson & Christensen, 2012; UKEssays, 2018).On the other hand, according to UKEssays (2018), mixing quantitative and qualitative research approaches has the following disadvantages: owing to its duplicity content, the application of the mixed methodology in one study can prove difficult to handle by any one single researcher, especially when the researcher has two apply two or more approaches concurrently; a researcher choosing to rely on this method of research has to learn about multiple methods and approaches and understand how to appropriately mix them; the mixed method of research is more expensive and time consuming than any other method of research due to its duplicity content; and a lot of researchers have

as yet to fully workout problems of interpreting conflicting results, quantitative data and the paradigm mixing.

In this study, a mixed methods approach consisting of a quantitative PIMRS questionnaires followed by a qualitative semi-structured interviews and document reviews, was used to gather data. Quantitative and qualitative data were merged after the separate data gathering and analysis of the two approaches.

4.2.3 Research strategy

In order to fully understand a research problem in a single study, Creswell (2012) defines mixed methods research (MMR) strategy as a way for gathering, analysing, and "mixing" both quantitative and qualitative research and methods. There are basically two main research methods for the MMR methodology, each of which includes the remaining two types (Creswell, 2014). First, the term "concurrent (parallel) mixed methods strategy" refers to a style of study in which a researcher simultaneously collects both quantitative and qualitative data, then incorporates the overall findings to produce a thorough analysis of the research problem. There are two variations of this research design: "the concurrent triangulation design," in which two research methods are used, one of which is primarily used to verify the findings of the other, and "the concurrent nested (embedded) design," in which one major research method is used for various purposes, such as addressing a different research question or concentrating more on a minor subset of a major group. Second, a research strategy known as "sequential mixed methods" entails collecting and analysing quantitative or qualitative data first, followed by quantitative or qualitative data, with the first phase being used to inform the development of the second. The "explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy" is a research strategy where a researcher conducts quantitative research first, followed by qualitative research. This research design might take one of two forms. To provide a more thorough justification for the findings of quantitative research, the researcher conducts qualitative research. Further, an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach is "characterised by the gathering and analysis of quantitative data in a first phase, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data in a second

phase that builds on the conclusions of the original quantitative results" (Creswell, 2014). According to Plano Clark (2011), a "exploratory sequential mixed methods strategy" is a research strategy where a researcher starts with qualitative research then conducts quantitative research. Data from the qualitative phase may be used to create a new instrument, choose an appropriate one, or choose variables for the subsequent quantitative research phase (Barnes, 2019; Creswell, 2014).

The research in this study was based on an explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy in which the quantitative data preceded the qualitative data, and the latter was used to complement and explain the quantitative results, to identify reasons for statistical results, and to address some research questions of the study which were better treated via qualitative methods. The rationale for using an explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy was to build on the advantages of each approach to grasp the phenomenon under investigation more adequately than was possible using either approach on its own (Yin, 2012). Moreover, explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy provides deeper insight and richer information on a researched phenomenon such as principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL practices. In addition, it allows interpretation and discussion of a combined and sequential data set. Furthermore, the quantitative data and results provide a general picture of the research problem; more analysis, specifically through qualitative data collection is required to filter, expand or give details of the general picture. Figure 4.2 shows that the explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy consists of two separate phases: quantitative data collection and analysis followed by qualitative data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2003). The researcher first gathers and examines the quantitative (numeric) data using this technique. The quantitative results obtained in the first phase are expanded upon or explained using the qualitative (text) data, which are collected and processed second in the sequence. The first, quantitative phase serves as a foundation for the second, qualitative phase, and the two phases are interconnected in the study's middle stage. Figure 4.2 below shows the explanatory sequential mixed methods design.

Figure 4.2: Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design

Source: Creswell (2014:112)

4.3 RESEARCH METHODS

According to Creswell (2014), the third major constituent in framework of research is the specific research methods that involve the forms of data gathering, analysis, and interpretation that researchers suggest for their investigations. Creswell (2014) further describes that, it is useful to consider the full range of possibilities of data collection and to organise these methods, for example, by their degree of predetermined nature, their use of closed-ended versus open-ended questioning, and their focus on numeric versus non-numeric data analysis. Accordingly, there are three types of research methods: quantitative methods (e.g., predetermined and instrument based questions; performance data, attitude data, observation data, and census data; statistical analysis and interpretation), qualitative methods (e.g., emerging methods; open-ended questions; interview data, observational data, document data, and audio-visual data; text and image analysis, themes, patterns, and interpretation), and mixed methods (e.g., both predetermined and emerging methods; both open and closed-ended questions; multiple forms of data drawing on all possibilities, statistical and text analysis; across databases interpretation). The type of data needed to address the given research questions should be considered when planning the research techniques (Creswell, 2012). In this study, mixed methods were employed to investigate the the topic under consideration. For the quantitative and qualitative phases of the investigation, both quantitative and qualitative data were progressively collected. The quantitative data were used to address research questions 1, 2, and 3; and the qualitative data were used to complement the results of quantitative data and to address research questions

4, 5, and 6. Quantitative data were collected from principals, teachers and supervisors using their respective PIMRS questionnaires. Qualitative data were collected from head principals and resident supervisors using their respective interview guides. Additionally, document reviews were carried out to gather relevant data regarding the IL practices of principals of the sampled schools.

4.4 RESEARCH SITE

The AACA is situated in the centre of Ethiopia, surrounded by Oromia regional state. It is the capital of FDRE, one of the biggest urban centres in sub-Saharan Africa and diplomatic capitals in the world, serving today as the headquarters of United Nations Economic Commission for Africa, African Union, the UN Regional Bureau, the African Standby Force, the Pan African Chamber of Commerce and Industry, and many global non-governmental organisations (NGOs) focused on Africa (AACAILIC, 2015).The city is geographically located between 8 degrees 49'55.929" and 9 degrees 5'53.853" North latitude and between 38 degrees 38'16.555" and 38 degrees 54'19.547" East longitudes, covers an area of 519.49 square kilometres with an altitudinal zone ranging from 2 054 to 3 023 metres above sea level (AACAILIC, 2015). Long-term annual maximum and minimum temperature of the city is 22.8 and 10.6 degree centigrade respectively and long-term mean annual rainfall of the city is 1 180.4 millimetres. The city is administered by the city council and organised into 10 sub-cities; namely Addis Ketema, Akaki-Kality, Arada, Bole, Gullele, Kirkos, Kolfe-Keranyo, Lideta, Nifa-Silk and Yeka, and 117 woredas (districts). The city is multicultural; it consists of severalethnic groups with their own distinct languages, cultures, and social identities living together. Amharic is the official and work place language of the city (AACAILIC, 2015). The population of the city is more than 5 million; among this the female population numbers 2.6 million (52%) and the rest are males which is 2.4 million (48%) (AACAILIC, 2015:6). This constitutes about 60% of the total urban population of Ethiopia with a population density of 142 persons per square kilometres, which makes the city the most populous part of the country (CSA, 2018). The rate of population growth of the city is expected to be 2.1% per year (AACAILIC, 2015). Such a huge population has put a tremendous pressure of the demand for education and job opportunities. In the 2018/19 academic

year, at different grade levels in the city, there were a total of 1 548 041 students. Of these 163 289 were pre-primary students, 505 619 were primary school students, and 147 947 were secondary school students (AACAEB, ESAA, 2019). In the same year data, there were 2 808 schools of which 1 108 were pre-primary, 814 were primary schools and 310 were secondary schools (Grades 9-12). Out of the 310 secondary schools, 66 were public secondary schools. In addition, there were about 33 public TVET colleges, one metropolitan university and five federal government universities and colleges in the city.The map of AACA is demonstrated below in Figure 4.3.

Figure4.3: Map of AACA

Source: AACAIntegrated Land Information Centre (2015:8).

4.5 THE TARGET AND RESEARCH POPULATIONS OF THE STUDY

The target population of this study was all public secondary school principals in AACA. Moreover, all public secondary school teachers and supervisors formed part of the research population of the study because their responses were used as a basis of comparison with the principals' responses to reduce self-bias inherent in self-assessment. Thus, they were informants in the study: the principals were the focus (target) of the study (i.e., they were the researched) and instructional leaders in their

schools; teachers were implementers of classroom instructional practices; and sub-city supervisors were the immediate supporters, controllers and promoters of classroom instructional practices and IL. Generally, all of informants are the role players in IL and responsible for ensuring that principals implement effective IL in their schools in Ethiopian context. Furthermore, the review of related literature and relevant school-based and MoE documents on the topic of the study were used to address some of the research questions and to enrich and check the authenticity of the data obtained from the above informants of the study.

4.6 THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE OF THE STUDY

4.6.1 Sample, sample size and sampling techniques for quantitative phase

To select a sample school from each sub-city, as a criterion, all public secondary schools with principals and supervisors who had served for at least two years in those schools were listed on pieces of paper, excluding those involved in pilot testing. After that a sample school was selected from each sub-city by using simple random sampling technique, essentially drawing the names of the schools 'out of a hat'. The 10 schools, one from each sub-city, were used as sampled schools. Table 4.2 shows the sub-cities, the total number of public secondary schools in each sub-city, the number of public secondary schools which fulfilled the criteria, and the number of sampled schools selected.

Table 4.2: Sample selection

Sub-city	Total number of public secondary schools in each sub-city	Public secondary schools in each sub-city which fulfilled the criteria	Number of sampled schools selected
Addis Ketema	4	2	1
Akaki-Kality	8	5	1
Arada	8	4	1
Bole	7	4	1
Gulelle	5	3	1
Lideta	4	2	1

Sub-city	Total number of public secondary schools in each sub-city	Public secondary schools in each sub-city which fulfilled the criteria	Number of sampled schools selected
Kirkos	4	3	1
Kolfe-Keranyo	10	6	1
Nifas-Silk Lafto	8	5	1
Yeka	8	4	1
Total	66	38	10

All the principals in each sampled school were selected as informants of the study using the convenience sampling technique, so the total number of principals in the 10 sampled schools was 40 (100%). On the other hand, to select the sampled teachers, the formula suggested by Bartlett et al. (2001, cited in Taherdoost, 2017: 237) was used at 95% level of confidence (Z=1.96), error margin (E=.05), and variance of the population (P=50%).

$$n= N (p (100-p) Z^2)/E^2 (N-100) + Z^2 P (100-P)$$

Where

- n is the required sample size;
- P is the percentage occurrence of a state or condition;
- E is the percentage maximum error required;and
- Z is the value corresponding to level of confidence required.

Using the above formula, out of 4 222 teachers in public secondary schools in AACA in the 2019/20 school year (AACAEB, ESAA, 2018/19), a sample size of 350 teachers was needed. Then, based on the total number of teachers in each sampled school, 350 sampled teachers were selected from the 10 sampled schools proportionally. The sampled teachers were selected from each department and among teachers with at least three years experience in their respective schools using the simple random sampling technique.The assumption for focusing on experienced teachers is that they have rich information and well-established perceptions about their principals' IL practices. Finally, in each sub-city education office, there were three types of

supervisors (Languages, natural sciences, and social sciences). The sum number of supervisors in the 10 sampled schools was 30. The researcher took 30 (100%) supervisors for the study using convenience sampling technique. Table 4.3 below shows the population, population size, sample size, percentage of sample taken, sampling techniques, and instruments of quantitative data collection.

Table4.3: Population, population size, sample size, percentage of sample, sampling techniques and instruments of quantitative phase

Population	Type of population (target or research)	Population Size	Required sample size	Sampling techniques used	Instruments used to collect data
Principals	Target population	40	40	Conveniencesampling	PIMRSquestionnaire principal form
Teachers	Research population	4 222	350	Simple random sampling	PIMRSquestionnaire teacher form
Supervisors	Research population	30	30	Conveniencesampling	PIMRSquestionnaire supervisor form

4.6.2 Instrumentation and data-collection methods

In this study, the researcher used an explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy to collect both quantitative and qualitative data for this study. Priority and weightings were generally used in the first phase (quantitative data). Qualitative data were collected after the collection and analysis of quantitative data. The PIMRS survey questionnaires (principal, teacher and supervisor forms) were used to collect quantitative data from respondents on the phenomenon of principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL practices.

4.6.2.1 PIMRS survey questionnaires

Survey questionnaires are frequently viewed as "an objective research instrument that can produce generalisable consequences because of large sample sizes" (Creswell, 2009: 102). Ease of data collection; easily accessible in face to face and via online

channels like web, mobile, email, etc.; low price compared to other methods; easy to analyze and present with different data visualization types; and a wide range of data types can be collected such as attitudes, opinions, values were some of the advantages of survey questionnaires. On the contrary, they had the following shortcomings: answers may not be honest; many questions might be left unanswered and respondents may not stay fully engaged to the end; without someone to explain, respondents may have different interpretations of your questions; and cannot fully capture emotions and feelings.

In this study, survey questionnaires were the chief data-gathering instrument. The study adopted and used the standardised questionnaire of PIMRS which was first designed and developed by Philip Hallinger in 1983 and amended many times (Hallinger, 2012). Three equivalent forms of the PIMRS survey were established and verified to be completed by the principals, teachers and supervisors. Professor Hallinger gave his permission for the researcher to use the instrument (Appendix M). Identical items were included in each form; only the stems of the questions were changed to reveal the different perceptions of the role players. In addition, according to Hallinger and Wang (2015), the outcomes of the latest assessment of the measurement properties of all forms of PIMRS show that the instrument achieves appropriate standards of validity and reliability essential when used to gather quantitative data.

Since the study was intended to investigate public secondary school principals' perceptions and experiences with IL practices in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, this questionnaire was suitable for this study, because: it is a 360-degree instrument that measures frequency of specific principal IL behaviours; it is a behaviourally rooted scoring scale; it focuses on specific behaviours related to IL practices in the Ethiopian education context; it is appropriate to address the research questions of the study from respondents based on the theoretical foundation of the study (PIMRS IL model); it is ideal to investigate the principals' self-perceptions and experiences on their IL practices (behaviours); it can investigate the perceptions of other role players on IL practices of principals in their schools; and it has been effective in different doctoral studies worldwide.

The researcher collected a wide range of information from the sampled principals, teachers and supervisors using their respective PIMRS questionnaires. PIMRS teacher and supervisor forms were used to collect data from teachers and supervisors respectively regarding their principals' current and actual IL practices. The PIMRS principal form was distributed to principals to rate their own current and actual IL practices. Accordingly, research question 1 of the study was mainly answered by the data obtained using the PIMRS principals' form; data collected using PIMRS teacher and supervisor forms were chiefly used to address research question 2; and research question 3 was predominantly addressed by the data gathered through PIMRS principal, teacher, and supervisor forms.

All forms consist of 50 items to be answered on a five-point scale of measurement: almost always (5), frequently (4), sometimes (3), seldom (2), and almost never (1). Moreover, all forms contained items pertaining to the 10 principal job functions/ practices and behaviours of IL as indicated in Table 4.4. The 50 items in the scale were classified according to each job function as indicated in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: PIMRS job functions and their related items

Dimension	Job function (Sub-scale)	Number of items	Items comprised
Defining the school mission	Framing the school goals	5	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
	Communicating the school goals	5	6, 7, 8, 9, 10
Managing the instructional programme	Supervising and evaluating instruction	5	11, 12, 13, 14, 15
	Coordinating the curriculum	5	16, 17, 18, 19, 20
	Monitoring student progress	5	21, 22, 23, 24, 25
Developing a positive school learning climate	Protecting instructional time	5	26, 27, 28, 29, 30
	Maintaining high visibility	5	31, 32, 33, 34, 35
	Providing incentives for teachers	5	36, 37, 38, 39, 40
	Promoting professional development	5	41, 42, 43, 44, 45
	Providing incentives for learning	5	46, 47, 48, 49, 50
Total number of items in the PIMRS scale		50	1-50

Creswell (2012) contended that the mean is perhaps the most acceptable measure of central tendency to demonstrate a group of respondents. As stated by Creswell (2012: 175), "mean scores in the interval of 1.0–1.49 can be considered to be very low/ almost never; mean scores of 1.50–2.49 can be considered as low/ seldom; mean scores from 2.50–3.49 can be considered to be medium/ sometimes; mean scores in the interval of 3.50–4.49 can be considered to be high/ frequently; and mean scores from 4.50–5.00 can be considered to be very high/ almost always". In this study, the mean scores of respondents on their respective PIMRS were interpreted and classified as "low engagement", "medium engagement" or "high engagement" of principals of the sampled schools on their IL practices (i.e., on the three dimensions and their 10 job functions). Accordingly, mean scores of respondents in the interval of 1.0–2.49 were considered as "low engagement"; mean scores of respondents from 2.50–3.99 were classified as "medium engagement"; and mean scores of respondents in the interval of 4.00–5.00were regardedas "high engagement".

4.6.3 Pilot test

A pilot test of the tools of data collection such as a questionnaire or an interview is done before gathering data for the study. According to Wright, Courtney and Crowther (2002), one of the advantages of a pilot test is to recognise the possible difficulties in the data-collection instruments which allow the researcher to rethink about the methods and instruments prior to the actual study. Moreover, a pilot test collects information before conducting the main study in order to ensure the effectiveness of the data-collection instrument. Accordingly, the pilot test was conducted in this study with the following purposes:to ensure the clarity of the questionnaire instructions and items; to get rid of poor wording; to ensure the understanding of the respondents; to get feedback on the required time to complete the questionnaire; to obtain feedback from the respondents on the appropriateness of the questionnaire items; to test the validity and reliability of the instruments; and to determine the financial and human resources needed for the proposed study.

In this study, all forms of the PIMRS survey questionnaire were pilot tested in two public secondary schools that were not included in the main study. Based on the

comparatively large number of public secondary schools compared to other sub-cities, two secondary schools were randomly selected from two sub-cities, excluding the schools selected as samples for the main study; accordingly, Lafto secondary school from Nifas-Silk sub-city and TesfaBirhan secondary school from Yeka sub-city were chosen as schools of the pilot test for the study. Ten experienced teachers were selected by the simple random sampling technique, four principals and four supervisors were selected by the convenience sampling technique from each pilot test school and a total of 20 teachers, eight principals and eight supervisors were involved in the pilot test. Besides completing their respective questionnaires, the teachers, principals and supervisors were invited to suggest improvements for the items in their respective PIMRS questionnaires that were not clear to them. Suggestions from the pilot testing process on the questionnaires were used to improve unclear items, to replace duplicated items, and to remove items that were regarded as inappropriate. Finally, to check the overall reliability of the instruments, the internal consistency method was used and the outcome of a Cronbach's alpha of .93 was established for PIMRS principal form. The generalisability theory test outcomes were determined for the teacher and supervisor forms of PIMRS based on the data that were gained from the two pilot schools shows .92 and .91 respectively. Moreover, the PIMRS surveys' content validity was verified by the researcher's thesis supervisor and a group of experts from Addis Ababa University. Based on the suggestions that were provided by the respondents, my supervisor, and the experts, the three forms of PIMRS were modified before they were used for the main data-collection purpose.

4.6.4 Validity and reliability of quantitative data

In any research project, validity and reliability are essential concepts as they are used for increasing the truthfulness of the assessment and evaluation of a research work. They are the most important concepts that a researcher uses to ensure that the collected data will lead to meaningful conclusions. Moreover, the measuring instrument used to collect data must be both valid and reliable in order for a researcher's interpretation of this data to be valuable. Thatcher (2010:125) defined validity as "the extent to which the measuring instrument measures the characteristics or dimensions

that the researcher aims to measure". On the other hand, reliability is "the consistency, stability and repeatability of results, i.e., the result of a researcher is considered reliable if consistent results have been obtained in similar situations but different circumstances" (Twycross & Shields, 2004:36). Lang and Heiss (1998) defined reliability as the consistency with which an instrument produces the same or similar responses across settings and time. The validity and reliability of all forms of PIMRS survey questionnaire used in this study are discussed below.

4.6.4.1. Validity of PIMRS survey questionnaires

All the three types of validity (content, construct and criterion) are "potentially relevant with respect to the three forms of PIMRS, since they are served for multiple functions: evaluation of the principal, needs assessment and research" (Hallinger & Wang, 2015:65). The researcher used the two types of validity–content and construct–to ensure the accuracy of all the forms of the PIMRS instrument.

Regarding to the content validity, it is the degree to which an instrument measures an intended content area. Content validity is focused on testing the extent to which the instrument's items impartially, relevantly and accurately represent all the sub-scales of the topic under consideration. Content validity is usually determined by judgements of experts in the field. According to Hallinger (2014), to be considered a valid measure of each PIMRS sub-scale (job function), a least standard of 80% agreement among judges needs to be established for each sub-scale. The 10 job functions of the PIMRS were tested for content validity and the results were adequately high (Hallinger, 2014).

In this study, content validity of all forms of PIMRS was judged by the researcher's thesis supervisor, the group of experts from Addis Ababa University and from the comments that were collected from participants during the pilot test of the instruments. Moreover, according to Hallinger and Wang (2015:91-92), "an additional test of the PIMRS instrument's content validity [needs to be] conducted through a comparison of data collected by the instrument with information related to the principals' IL contained in school documents". Hence, in this study, the content validity of the all forms of PIMRS was assessed by using the reviews of sampled school-based documents linked to the IL

behaviour of the principals. Based on the opinions and assessments gained from the respondents, the thesis supervisor, the experts and a school-based document review, the PIMRS surveys were revised before they were used for the main data-collection purposes.

The second aspect is construct validity which is the clear relatedness of an instrument or a test item to the characteristic (behaviour) being measured by the instrument or test. Moreover, construct validity is more a matter of whether an instrument or a test item are indicators of the underlying latent construct in the item. With regard to the construct validity of PIMRS questionnaires, according to Hallinger and Wang (2015), the Rasch analysis was used to obtain further understanding of the PIMRS construct validity. The Rasch analysis measures the extent of association or suitability between the PIMRS IL model and empirical data at the item level (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). Accordingly, "the outcomes of Rasch analysis showed that most of the items including the three dimensions of PIMRS suitable to the unidimensional supposition that was established as the standard for evaluating suitability of sub-scale structure" (Hallinger & Wang, 2015:112). Moreover, the Rasch analysis permitted an investigation of the Differential Item Function (DIF). If the data for all items are suitable to the expected measurement model and no item indicates DIF bias, this offers additional validation that all the PIMRS forms have good construct validity.

4.6.4.2. Reliability of PIMRS survey questionnaires

In their meta-analysis of reliability studies, Hallinger, Wang and Chen (2013) reported that estimates of reliability gained from studies which used PIMRS principal and teacher forms from 1983 up to 2015 enabled them to obtain a completer and more exact picture of the instruments' reliability when used under different circumstances. With regard to PIMRS principal form, Hallinger et al. (2013) indicated that Cronbach's alpha for the whole scale reliability estimate was .96. Also, they confirmed that reliability estimates for the three dimensions were .88 for 'defines the school mission', .91 for 'manages the instructional programme', and .93 for 'develops a positive school learning climate'. Furthermore, Hallinger et al. (2013) reported that the reliability estimates for the 10 job functions of PIMRS ranged from a low of .74 on 'provide incentives for teachers' to a

high of .85 on 'frame the school goals'. All these results suggest that the whole scale, the three dimensions and the 10 sub-scales meet a sufficiently high standard of reliability for use in research. Moreover, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), the reliability estimate of Cronbach's alpha test value needs to be higher than or equal to.70 to determine that the scale is reliable. Accordingly, the PIMRS principal form is reliable, because all the three level of scale measurement reflect high level of scale reliabilities that are above .70. Furthermore, its whole scale internal consistency of reliability was estimated during pilot study and Cronbach's alpha test was resulted to .93.

Regarding PIMRS teacher form, according to Hallinger et al. (2013), the nature of data gained via the PIMRS teacher form demands for a different sort of test, and then they determined that generalizability theory test was assumed to be the most precise method to test the reliability of PIMRS teacher form, because it has the ability to develop the reliability from teachers grouped by school and from item level rather than averaged responses, it also gives up the most precise estimates of internal consistency in conditions where teachers are rating their principals. Based on this evidence, the results of the generalisability theory test of Hallinger et al. (2013) indicated that a whole scale of PIMRS teacher form reliability was .99, with estimates of .97 for 'defines the school mission', .98 for 'manages the instructional programme' and .98 for 'develops a positive school learning climate' of the three dimensions. In addition, the combined reliability estimates for the 10 job functions ranged from a low of .90 for 'maintain high visibility' to a high for .95 on other job functions. All three levels of the scale measurement on the PIMRS teacher form revealed a high level of generalizability theory test of reliabilities that are higher than .90. In relation to the PIMRS supervisor form, the researcher of this study did not found examples of reliability from any source. To the knowledge of the researcher, the reliability of the PIMRS supervisor form has not been tested yet. This study was pioneer in computing the reliability of this form.

On top of the findings of different studies about reliability of the PIMRS instruments described above, in order to make contextual, in this study from the ten sampled schools the internal consistency of whole scale PIMRS principal form was calculated

using Cronbach's alpha test and the value was .82. On the other hand, to measure the internal consistency of all the PIMRS teacher and supervisor forms, generalisability theory tests were computed and the values were .93 and .92 respectively. All these reliability estimates were made in addition to the test that was established during the pilot study and internal consistency of reliability of both the PIMRS teacher and supervisor forms was estimated during pilot study and their generalisability theory tests were resulted to .92 and .91 respectively.

4.6.5 Quantitative data-collection procedures

After obtaining clearance for research ethics from College of Education Research Ethics Committee of UNISA for gathering both quantitative and qualitative data (Appendix A), the request letter was written to AACAEB (Appendix B), accompanied by the ethical clearance and a cooperation letter from director of UNISA-Ethiopia Regional Learning Centre (Appendix C). The request letter clarified the aim of the study. The researcher requested authorisation to AACAEB to undertake research in sampled schools in AACA. After getting the authorisation letter from AACAEB (Appendix D), the researcher disseminated copies of the letter to each sub-city education office and the sampled schools, and then personally contacted each sampled principal to clearly acquaint them with the aim of the study and to obtain their consent. The principal of each sampled school was assured that the information that obtained from principals, teachers and supervisors used only for the purpose of study and cared for confidentiality.Then, a scheduled time was set with each principal based on the timetable for collecting quantitative data. The researcher also ensured that the research project adhered to the relevant guidelines set out in the UNISA Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached (see Appendix A).

After the sampled teachers were identified, at their respective schools, orientation was given to them on the aim of the study and on how to complete each questionnaire. Copies of the PIMRS survey teacher form were disseminated by the researcher and four research assitants to each of them (Appendix H). The principal and supervisor respondents were given orientation and their respective PIMRS questionnaires to complete (Appendix G and I).

Finally, all the respondents (teachers, principals and supervisors) were provided adequate time (one week) to complete the questionnaires. The researcher and research assitants collected all questionnaires from the respondents in each sampled school after one week, and the collected data were arranged and assembled in the SPSS software, version 29 to ease the process of analysis.

4.6.6 Techniques of quantitative data analysis

The data collected during the quantitative phase of the study were analysed using their techniques of data analysis. According to Hallinger and Wang (2015), PIMRS can be used to provide profiles on principals' IL on one or more of the following three analytical levels: the whole (total) scale, the three dimensions, or the 10 job functions. Moreover, when employing the PIMRS for research purposes, the three dimensions (defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate) usually offer adequate evidence of aspects of the principal's IL role (Hallinger & Wang, 2015). In this study, the data obtained from PIMRS respondents (principals, teachers, and supervisors) to assess the IL practices of principals were analysed in terms of the three dimensions using mean scores on their job functions. With the principals, teachers and supervisors of sampled schools as the units of analysis, the PIMRS survey data collected from principal, teacher and supervisor respondents were analysed separately. Accordingly, the biographical data of respondents were analysed using descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages). On the other hand, the PIMRS data collected from respondents of sampled schools were organised and tabulated around each of the three dimensions and whole (total) scale of PIMRS IL model, and analysed using descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) to describe the PIMRS scores in order to address research questions 1, 2, and 3. Furthermore, inferential statistics (t-tests) were used to understand the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of their principals' IL practices so as to strengthen the answers obtained for research question 3 which used descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations). All the analyses were made by entering the data in to spread sheet of the computer software package of SPSS, version 27.

Based on the PIMRS IL model, the items were grouped into three dimensions and their 10 job functions of IL practices and behaviours of principals. To measure the perceptions of respondents on IL practices of principals, their responses were based on the 50 items identified in all PIMRS survey questionnaires and each item was addressed on a five-point scale measurement: almost always (5), frequently (4), sometimes (3), seldom (2), and almost never (1) were used.

To explore and find the results on the various IL practices of principals in public secondary schools of AACA, the researcher collected and analysed the responses of the respondents as presented in the various tables in Chapter 5, Section 5.4. Table 4.5 displays the research questions of the study and their hypotheses and corresponding data-gathering instruments, techniques of data analysis, and reasons for using the data analysis techniques.

Table 4.5: Research questions and hypotheses of the study and their corresponding quantitative data gathering instruments, techniques of data analysis, and reasons for using the techniques

Research question	Research hypothesis	Quantitative data-gathering instrument(s)	Techniques of data analysis	Reasons of using the data analysis techniques
How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model), and what experiences do they have with them?	There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) as perceived by principals themselves in AACA public secondary schools.	PIMRS principal form.	SPSS descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations).	to describe the PIMRS scores of principals self-perceptions on their IL practices.
How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals?	There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) as perceived by teachers and supervisors of public secondary schools in AACA.	PIMRS teacher and supervisor forms.	SPSS descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations).	to describe the PIMRS scores of teachers' and supervisors' perceptions on their principals' IL practices.

Research question	Research hypothesis	Quantitative data-gathering instrument(s)	Techniques of data analysis	Reasons of using the data analysis techniques
What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of principals in AACA?	There are statistically significant differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of the extent to which principalsof public secondary schools in AACA engage in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model).	PIMRS principal, teacher and supervisor forms.	SPSS inferential statistics (t-tests).	to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of IL practices of their principals.

4.7 THE QUALITATIVE PHASE OF THE STUDY

As described in sub-section 4.2.3 of this chapter, the research was based on an explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy in which the collection of the quantitative data precedes the collection of the qualitative data and the latter is used to complement and explain the quantitative results, to identify reasons for statistical results, and to address some of the research questions of the study which were better to be treated via qualitative methods. In addition, in relation to research questions 1, 2, and 3, more emphasis was given to the quantitative data because the results of quantitative data offer a general picture of the research problem. The rationale for using this strategy is that the qualitative data and their analysis refine and clarify those statistical results of the quantitative data by exploring participants view in more depth; and it provides deeper insight and richer information on a researched phenomenon (principals' perceptions of and experiences with their IL practices). Moreover, it allows interpretation and discussion of a combined and sequential data set.

4.7.1 Sample, sample size and sampling techniques for the qualitative phase

For the qualitative phase, the principal and the supervisor of each sampled school used for quantitative phase were selected using purposive sampling. Accordingly, from the 40 principals and 30 supervisors in 10 sampled schools, a total of 10 head principals and 10 resident supervisors, respectively were selected for semi-structured interviews. All the interviewed head principals and resident supervisors has at least two years experience in their current schools. The focus was on the head principals and resident supervisors in order to obtain rich information for the study, because the head principals are the chief executive officers and instructional leaders in their schools and resident supervisors are the immediate supporters, controllers, and promoters of classroom instructional practices and IL. The interviews were conducted after the quantitative data were analysed and results were known. Table 4.6 shows the population, population size, sample size, sampling techniques and instruments of qualitative phase.

Table 4.6: Population and sampling

Population	Population Size	Required sample size	Sampling techniques used	Instrument to collect data
Principals	40	10	Purposive sampling	Semi-structure interview guide
Supervisors	30	10	Purposive sampling	Semi-structure interview guide

4.7.2 Instrumentation and data-collection methods

For qualitative phase of data collection, two data-gathering instruments, namely, semi-structured interview guides and document review checklists were used to collect empirical data from study informants on the phenomenon of principals' perceptions of and experiences with their IL practices. The interview guides were developed based on the research questions of the study and the important themes raised by the quantitative surveys to triangulate the quantitative data obtained from PIMRS survey respondents; to address research questions 4, 5, and 6 (which were better to be addressed via qualitative methods); to gain rich information; and to obtain reasons for quantitative results. The alignment of the interview items with the research questions was checked by the experts in Addis Ababa University, before the questions were used. Based on their comments, the items were modified or replaced by other items where necessary. The association between the research questions, derived semi-structured interview questions and themes that emerged from interview questions and participant(s) to address the questions are indicated in the Table 5.9 in Chapter 5.

4.7.2.1 Semi-structured interviews

An interview is among the major data-gathering tools used to obtain deeper information from the interviewee by the interviewer (Kothari, 2009). Some of the advantages of interview were, the interviewee can't provide false information such as gender, age, or race; the interviewer can capture raw emotions, tone, voice, and word choices to gain a deeper understanding; and the interviewer can ask follow-up questions and require additional information to understand attitudes, motivations, etc. However, interviews had the following disadvantages: high costs as these

methods require a group of people to perform the interview, and the quality of the collected data depends on the ability of the interviewer to gather data well. Therefore, the researcher decided to use semi-structured interviews as a qualitative data-gathering instrument. In qualitative social research, a semi-structured interview is the most common type of interview used (Bearman, 2019). A semi-structured interview inspires two-way communication, as those being interviewed can ask questions of the interviewer. Moreover, a semi-structured interview is type of interview that provides participants with the freedom to express their views in their own terms and it can offer qualitative data that are reliable and comparable (Russell, 2012). According to Dawson (2007), in the course of an interview, the researcher needs to know specific information which can be compared and contrasted with information obtained from other instruments. To do this, the same questions as in other instruments need to be asked in each interview. However, the researcher also needs the interview to be flexible so that other essential information can still arise. Furthermore, a semi-structured interview can also function as an extension tool confirming what is already known but also providing the opportunity for better interaction with the participants and helping the researcher to get a better understanding of the topic under investigation.

In this study, semi-structured interview questions were prepared based on all research questions of the study for head principals (Appendix J) and for resident supervisors (Appendix K) to obtain information from head principals and resident supervisors about their perceptions of IL practices of principals in their respective schools. The purpose of all interviews was to complement and triangulate data gathered from principals, teachers, and supervisors in addressing research questions 1, 2 and 3 using their respective PIMRS questionnaires and to address research questions 4, 5, and 6. Accordingly, following the quantitative data gathering and analysis, in-depth interviews were conducted with both head principals and resident supervisors in their offices at a time convenient to them. The sessions took approximately 60 minutes. Since English was a foreign language for the participants, all the interviews were conducted in the local language, Amharic, to avoid communication obstacles which might happen when using English. All the interviewees were agreeable to the conversations being audio-recorded for later transcription, translation and interpretation of data.

4.7.2.2 Document review

Document analysis is the other essential data collecting method to cross-check the correspondence between what informants said and what they practically did. Reviewing school documents relevant to the study had several advantages. Some of these advantages were the data already exists and no additional effort is needed to collect data; no need of searching and motivating respondents to participate; helps you understand the history behind an event and track changes over a period of time; supplementing data gathered from PIMRS questionnaires and semi-structured interviews; determining meaning; developing understanding; and discovering insights relevant to the research problem, offer an objective justification for the formulation of policies and strategies. Although there are benefits to document review, shortcomings were also obvious and had to be considered. While documents are valuable, bias is a potential factor to consider; information may be out of date or inapplicable; the process of evaluating documents and records can be time-consuming; and can be an incomplete data collection method because the researcher has less control over the results (Yin, 2009).

In this study, documents were used as secondary sources of data and a number of relevant school-based and MoE documents used by the principals in each sampled school during their IL practices were reviewed. These included the school vision and mission statements, school goals, curricular and co-curricular implementation documents, yearly and daily lesson plans of teachers, instructional supervision and evaluation checklists and feedback given. Furthermore, documents on instructional schedules, attendances of teachers and students, instructional time-control mechanisms, assessment of learning, CPD practices and portfolios, teachers' and students' incentive strategies, and SIP plan were reviewed.

4.7.3 Qualitative data collection procedures

The second phase was a qualitative approach that used semi-structured interviews and document reviews. The data gathered using qualitative methods were used to complement the data obtained in addressing research questions 1, 2 and 3 by quantitative phase, and addressing and elaborating on research questions 4, 5, and 6. Therefore, the interview guide items were developed based on the research questions of the study and the main themes raised by the quantitative PIMRS

surveys to gain rich information and support the quantitative results. As in the quantitative phase, researcher also ensured that the research project adhered to the relevant guidelines set out in the UNISA Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached (Appendix A). Accordingly, after the quantitative data analysis was completed and consent was obtained from the purposely selected head principals and resident supervisors, individual interviews were conducted with all the head principals and the resident supervisors of the sampled schools to triangulate the quantitative data obtained from PIMRS survey respondents and find out rationales for quantitative results during their office hours in the presence of the researcher within 60 minutes. Then, qualitative data from interviewees through field notes and transcripts were organised for analysis.

Finally, to cross-check the association between what PIMRS survey questionnaire respondents responded and semi-structured interview participants said, in each sampled school a number of relevant school-based and FDRE MoE documents used by principals during their IL practices were selected and reviewed using document review checklists.

4.7.4 Trustworthiness of qualitative data

Trustworthiness refers to strength of the qualitative data, richness, honesty, authenticity and depth (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011). It is also minimising bias is the most practical way of achieving greater validity in qualitative method (Cohen et al., 2011). According to Okeke (2017), trustworthiness is at the heart of a qualitative research study and is demonstrated by four criteria including credibility; dependability; confirmability; and transferability. Moreover, qualitative research searches for trustworthiness for dealing with issues of credibility and dependability, as quantitative research involves reliability and validity (Bloomberg & Volpe, 2012). In this study, the trustworthiness of the findings of qualitative data collected from individual semi-structured interviews with head principals and resident supervisors were ensured using credibility; dependability; confirmability; and transferability.

4.7.4.1   Credibility

Credibility refers to the trustfulness of the data and the assurance one has in the reality of the findings. According to Schwandt (2007), credibility refers to the

communication between the information offered by the informants and how that information is described and interpreted by the researcher. In reality, the closer the match, the stronger the credibility of the research. The purposeful searching of data from different sources using a variety of data-collection techniques ensure the trustworthiness of findings of qualitative study. Date collection included principals', teachers' and supervisors' PIMRS survey questionnaires, individual semi-structured interviews with head principals and resident supervisors, and reviews of documents related to principals' IL practices in each sampled school.

The researcher established credibility of qualitative data obtained from semi-structured interviews with head principals by using member-checks of the transcripts from the semi-structured interviews with head principals. The transcripts from the head principal's interviews were compared to the data collected from the teachers' and supervisors'PIMRS survey questionnaires and the transcripts of the semi-structured interviews with resident supervisors to determine what the teachers and supervisors as the other role players in IL believed about the topic of the study. Secondly, the literature review as a secondary source of data of the study supplied the researcher with a more complete image of the topic of the study, IL practices of principals that were forwarded by different scholars and researchers. Thirdly, methodological triangulation, which is the use of multiple methods to study human behaviour, was one way of demonstrating trustworthiness. Therefore, triangulation of the data gained from principals', teachers' and supervisors' PIMRS survey questionnaires with the data from the semi-structured interviews with head principals and resident supervisors, and reviews of relevant documents in each sampled school determined consistency.

4.7.4.2 Dependability

Dependability centres on the constancy of the data and research findings. It is the surrogate for reliability in quantitative research where a researcher tries to account for altering conditions in the phenomenon. In qualitative research, reliability appears challenging as human perceptions and experiences are not static. This entails that duplication in qualitative research will not render similar outcomes; however, the outcome in a particular study is not discredited as data are subject to subjective interpretations. Dependability in qualitative research means that an outsider obtains

similar outcomes in conducting a similar study (Merriam, 2009). In this study, the researcher tested the dependability of qualitative data obtained via semi-structured interviews triangulated with data from principals', teachers', and supervisors' PIMRS survey questionnaires and by doing a peer review of the findings with professional experts in the field. Furthermore, the audio-recorded interviews and documents of the interviews were accumulated and reserved securely for purposes of corroboration.

4.7.4.3   Confirmability

Confirmability refers to "the degree to which the findings of qualitative research could be confirmed or corroborared by others" (Trochim, 2010:163). Confirmability is often demonstrated by providing an audit trail that details each step of data analysis and shows that your findings are not coloured by conscious and unconscious bias but accurately represent the participants responses (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). In this study, the researcher enhanced the confirmability the findings of the study by documenting the procedures of qualitative data collection and analysis for checking and rechecking the data throughtout the study by another person. Moreover, owing to his presumptions and beliefs, the researcher kept consciousness of the likely consequences of bias.

4.7.4.4   Transferability

Transferability refers to "the degree to which the findings of qualitative reserch can be generalised or transferred to other contexts or settings" (Trochim, 2010:162). Guba and Lincoln (1989) deliberate transferability as a substitute to generalisability or external validity. The findings of the study were derived from context and situation of AACA and can only be transferred or generalised to all public secondary schools in AACA and other study areas with similar settings. Accordingly, the researcher has given as much description on the qualitative data sources so as to make the context of the research explicit to the readers so that they can compare the number of sampled schools and informants to other possible settings to which transfer could be considered.

4.7.5 Techniques of qualitative data analysis

In this study, qualitative data were obtained from semi-structured interviews with head principals and resident supervisors, reviews of documents related with IL practices of principals in sampled schools, and the literature review. Interviews were audio-recorded so data could be transcribed for analysis. The participants' responses were transformed in to a transcript which was then summarised. The original and summarized transcripts of each interview were returned to each individual participant for review and comments. The summaries were revised based on the comments and amendments were made. The qualitative data from semi-structured interviews were analysed through thematic analysis that recognised codes, categories and themes using the computer software package of ATLAS.ti, version 9.The summarised transcribed texts from each interview were organised, coded and analysed for themes, patterns and trends to be presented under research questions 4, 5, and 6 and to complement, confirm and validate the results of the quantitative analysis. Later, the data were presented as summaries and narratives, using examples and verbatim quotations reflecting participants' personal perceptions and experiences. In addition, using document analysis checklists, a number of school-based and MoE documents used by the school principals during their IL practices were reviewed.

Finally, the findings of qualitative data were merged with the results of quantitative data and interpreted and discussed in relation to relevant literature and the researcher's personal experiences presented in Section 5.6 in the next Chapter 5.

4.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research scholars (e.g., Creswell, 2012; McMillan, 2012) established that, the most frequently emphasised ethical considerations in research process include anonymity or privacy; granting confidentiality; being respectful to the research site and the participants; refraining from deceptive practices; assessment of risks; granting data access and ownership; and obtaining permission and informed consent. These criteria were observed at both the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. Additionally, in applying research ethics, researchers should take care in asking about private issues and procedures: how they ask for it, what they anticipate from interviewees, and whether and how they promise confidentiality and anonymity of the

interviewee. Furthermore, the interview can be audio-recorded with the knowledge and permission of the interviewees. A researcher is responsible for the ethical value of the investigation and should take immense care when they gather data. Informants of the study need to come in the research project willingly and know the significance of the study and the risks and commitments that are involved. The researcher should protect the informants from any danger, indulge them with esteem, and ask for their support in the study. Deterioration to acquire consent to use a location will guide to collapse in the study. Such informed permission has to be established by a signature.

In this study, the researcher supplied informants with explanations and clarification about the intentions of the study and how he would guarantee confidentiality of the data and anonymity by not using their names in the final report. In view of that, the researcher obtained clearance from the College of Education Research Ethics Committee in UNISA for gathering both quantitative and qualitative data (Appendix A). Once this permission was available, the researcher requested consent in writing from all sampled schools and informants to collect data for the study (Appendix E and F).

4.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The intention of this chapter was to describe the design and methods of the study. The chapter explained the research design used which comprised research paradigm on which the study is founded, namely, pragmatism and its ontological and epistemological positions; the research approach adopted, namely, the mixed methods approach; and research strategy planned, namely, the explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy. The chapter also discussed the research methods used in the study and presented a description of the research site and the target and research population of the study. Furthermore, the chapter described the quantitative phase of the study which consisted of sample, sample size, and sampling techniques used to select respondents, instrumentation and data-collection methods used to collect quantitative data, the pilot test, validity and reliability of quantitative data, quantitative data-collection procedures, and techniques of quantitative data analysis. Moreover, the chapter described the qualitative phase of the study which included sample size and sampling techniques used to select

participants for qualitative phase, instrumentation and data-collection methods, data-collection procedures, trustworthiness of qualitative data and techniques of qualitative data analysis. Finally, the chapter examined ethical considerations followed throughout the study. The next chapter offers presentation, analysis and interpretation of data.

CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, the researcher described the research design and methods used in the study. This chapter focuses on the presentation and analysis of data collected through the PIMRS questionnaires; semi-structured interview guides and document review checklists from the sampled school principals, teachers and supervisors and interpretation of the outcomes of the study to investigate the perceptions and experiences of principals with IL practices of public secondary school in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia by addressing the following specific research questions:

- How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model), and what experiences do they have with them?

- How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals?

- What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of principals in AACA?

- What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging in IL activities?

- What possible solutions can be devised that contribute to high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

- What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

The chapter has eight sections. The first section of this chapter presents the introduction. The second section presents the research process during the data collection. The third section presents the return rate of the survey questionnaires. The fourth section depicts the presentation and analysis of data obtained from quantitative phase of the study which consists of respondents' biographical data and

respondents' perceptions on IL practices with regard to defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, developing a positive school learning climate, and comparisons of the scores from the questionnaires. The fifth section explains the presentation and analysis of data obtained from the qualitative phase of the study which comprises interview participants' codes, participants' biographical data, and data obtained from semi-structured interview participants and document reviews. The sixth section presents the mixing of data obtained from quantitative and qualitative phases which addresses the research outcomes from the quantitative and qualitative phases backed up by literature. The seventh section is the summary of the chapter.

5.2 RESEARCH PROCESS

This section focuses on the process of the research that the researcher did during the two phases of data collection in order to address the research questions. The purpose of this sequential explanatory mixed methods design study was to completely investigate the perceptions and experiences of public secondary school principals about their current and actual IL practices in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

5.3 RETURN RATE OF SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRES

Quantitative data of the study were collected from sampled principals, teachers, and supervisors though their respective PIMRS survey questionnaires. The data-collection period for this study was the academic year of 2021 from April to June, the researcher and four research assistants administered the questionnaires face-to-face with respondents. Calculating the percentage of completed survey instruments is the precondition to start data analysis. Even though a high return rate does not guarantee representativeness, a high percentage of completed responses are more likely to create a representative sample than a low response rate. Table 5.1 shows the return rate of the survey instruments.

Table 5.1: Return rate of PIMRS survey questionnaires

Sample school code	Sampled principals			Return rate of principals				Sampled teachers			Return rate of teachers				Sampled supervisors			Return rate of supervisors			
	M	F	T	M	F	T	%	M	F	T	M	F	T	%	M	F	T	M	F	T	%
A	4	-	4	4	-	4	100	31	17	48	27	16	43	89.58	1	2	3	1	2	3	100
B	3	1	4	3	1	4	100	26	9	35	23	9	32	91.42	1	2	3	1	2	3	100
C	3	1	4	3	1	4	100	23	6	29	23	6	29	100	2	1	3	2	1	3	100
D	4	-	4	4	-	4	100	30	11	41	28	10	38	92.68	2	1	3	2	1	3	100
E	4	-	4	4	-	4	100	34	12	46	34	12	46	100	2	1	3	2	1	3	100
F	3	1	4	3	1	4	100	28	10	38	25	8	33	86.84	1	2	3	1	2	3	100
G	4	-	4	4	-	4	100	20	13	33	18	13	31	93.93	3	-	3	3	-	3	100
H	3	1	4	3	1	4	100	17	5	22	17	5	22	100	1	2	3	1	2	3	100
I	4	-	4	4	-	4	100	19	7	26	19	6	25	96.15	2	1	3	2	1	3	100
J	2	2	4	2	2	4	100	23	9	32	23	9	32	100	2	1	3	2	1	3	100
Total	34	6	40	34	6	40	100	251	99	350	237	94	331	94.57	17	13	30	17	13	30	100

Each of the gathered instruments was complete and no instrument was rejected because of mistakes or missing data. Table 5.1 shows that 70 copies of the PIMRS survey instrument principal and supervisor forms were dispensed (40 for principals and 30 for supervisors). All the survey instruments of principals and supervisors were properly completed and returned which was a 100% return rate for both sets of respondents. With regard to teacher respondents, 350 copies of the PIMRS survey instrument teacher forms were distributed to the sampled teachers in all sampled schools. In schools C, E, H and J the return rate was 100%. School F, conversely, was a school with the smallest return rate; only 33 (86.84%) of the dispensed survey instruments were completed and returned.

In relation to gender of teacher respondents, 237 (94.42%) of the sample of 251 were male teachers while 94 (94.94%) of the sample of 99 were female teachers. A total of 331(94.57%) of the 350 survey instruments dispensed to the sampled teachers were returned. In general, all groups of respondents returned more than 85% of the dispensed survey instrument as seen in Table 5.1.

5.4 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA OBTAINED FROM THE QUANTITATIVE PHASE

In this section of the study, biographical data of respondents and the data obtained from the PIMRS survey questionnaires with regard to the three dimensions of IL (defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate) and the total PIMRS scores of all sampled schools are presented and analysed below.

5.4.1 Respondents' biographical data

This sub-section presents the biographical data of the respondents. Biographical data of respondents of a study are significant because in some cases they are needed to identify the type of respondents who give answers to the research questions. Biographical data permit the researcher to decide whether the data sources are convincing. Moreover, recognising the distribution of the biographical characteristics of the respondents assisted the researcher to establish how representative the sample

was of the population of study and allowed the researcher find out significant and exploitable insights to help in drawing better conclusions. Table 5.2 indicates the biographical data of 40 principals, 331 teachers, and 30 supervisors.

Table 5.2: Biographical data of principal, teacher and supervisor respondents

Biographical data	Category	Principals (n=40)		Teachers (n=331)		Supervisors (n=30)	
		F	%	F	%	F	%
Gender	Male	32	80	237	71.6	17	56.7
	Female	8	20	94	28.4	13	43.3
Age group	29 and under	3	7.5	53	16	-	-
	30-39	17	42.5	180	54.4	8	26.7
	40-49	20	50	91	27.5	20	66.7
	50 and above	0	0	7	2.1	2	6.7
Academic qualification	Bachelor degree	0	0	202	61.03	2	6.7
	Master's degree	40	100	129	38.97	28	93.3
Specialisation	Educational/School leadership	14	35	-	-	26	92.8
	Curriculum and Instruction	3	7.5	-	-	0	0
	Subject areas	23	57.5	129	100	2	7.2
Position in principalship (for principals)	Principal	10	25	-	-	-	-
	Vice-principal	30	75	-	-	-	-
Field of supervision (for supervisors)	Languages	-	-	-	-	5	16.7
	Natural sciences	-	-	-	-	14	46.7
	Social sciences	-	-	-	-	11	36.6
Years working as a principal/vice-principal in the current school.	1-4	26	65	232	70.1	24	80
	5-9	7	17.5	71	21.45	5	16.7
	10-15	5	12.5	25	7.55	1	3.3
Years working with the current principals as a teacher/ supervisor.	More than 15	2	5	3	0.9	0	0
Years of experiences as a principal/vice-principal/ teacher/ supervisor.	1-4	13	32.5	31	9.37	3	10
	5-9	8	20	84	25.37	1	3.3
	10-15	9	22.5	128	38.67	5	16.7
	More than 15	10	25	88	26.59	21	70

F=Frequency and %=Percent

Gender-wise, of the principals, only 8 (20%) were women, the remaining 32 (80%) were men. It is clear that most of respondents were men. This is because the percentage of male principals in public secondary schools in AACA is greater than that of their female counterparts. However, both genders were proportionally represented. Teachers and supervisors' responses were compared with the responses of principals about their IL practices.

Table 5.2 shows that, out of the 331 teacher respondents, 237 respondents were men while 94 were women. This is so because that percentage of male teachers in public secondary schools in AACA is greater than that of their female counterparts. However, both genders were reasonably represented. Table 5.2 also indicates that majority 17 (56.7%) of the supervisors were men compared to 13 (43.3%) women. Both genders were proportionally represented.

With regard to the age distribution of respondents, Table 5.2 indicates that 20 (50%) of the principals, 91 (27.5%) of the teachers and 20 (66.7%) of the supervisors were between 40 and 49 years of age. The results also indicate that 17 (42.5%) of the principals, 180 (54.4%) of the teachers and 8 (26.7%) of the supervisors were in the age category of 30 to 39. It was further show that 3 (7.5%) of the principals and 53 (16%) of the teachers were 29 years and under, and no supervisor was in this age category. The results lastly show that 7 (2.1%) of teachers and 2 (6.7%) of supervisors were in the age of 50 years and above, while no principal was in this age group. The majority of informants were between 30 and 50 years of age, and it could be assumed that they gave honest responses to the items of study.

Concerning academic qualifications and specialisations of respondents, the maximum qualification achieved by principals, teachers and supervisors was a decisive factor in determining the informant's level of professionalism. Accordingly, Table 5.2 indicates that no principals, 202 (61.03%) teachers and 2 (6.7%) of supervisors had bachelor degrees. On the other hand, 40 (100%) principals had master's degrees with specialisations of 23 (57.5%) in different subject areas, 14 (35%) in educational (school) leadership and the rest 3 (7.5%) in curriculum and instruction. This is because, in AACA, principals should have master's degrees. Furthermore, 129 (38.97%) of teachers

had master's degrees in subject areas, and 28 (93.3%) of the supervisors had master's degrees in educational (school) leadership, 26 (92.8%) in subject areas, and 2 (7.2%) had a specialisation in curriculum and instruction. It is clear that most of the respondents were professionals and had a good knowledge of IL which enabled them to evaluate the principals in their schools.

In relation to their position as principals, each sampled school had four principals (one head and three vice-principals). Table 5.2 reveals that 10 (25%) principals and 30 (75%) vice-principals were represented proportionally as informants of the study. Since the target population of the study were principals, their responses were used to provide insight into their IL practices.

With regard to their fields of supervision (for supervisors), in every public secondary school in AACA there are three fields of supervision, namely, languages, natural sciences and social sciences. Table 5.2 reveals that 14 (46.7%) supervisors were from natural sciences, 11 (36.6%) were from social sciences, and 5 (16.7%) were from languages. As informants of the study, they were represented proportionally based on the areas of supervision.

In connection with years working as a principal in the current school, one criterion for selecting the sampled principals was that of having served in the current school for at least two years, which the researcher assumed could have made an impact on their IL practices. Table 5.2 shows that majority 26 (65%) of the principals had served in their current schools for between 1 and 4 years. Principals who had leadership experience of between 5 and 9 years in the current school accounted for 7 (17.5%). Moreover, 5 (12.5%) of the principals had worked for the years between 10 and 15 in their current schools. The rest 2 (5%) had served for more than 15 years in the current school. Hence, the principals had sufficient expertise to assess their IL practices in the current schools.

With regard to years working with current principals as a teacher and supervisor for teacher and supervisor respondents, one criterion for selecting the sampled teachers and supervisors was that of working with the current principals for at least three and two

years respectively, so that they could give reasonable information about the IL practices of the principals in their schools. Table 5.2 confirms that the majority (232; 70.1%) of the teachers and 24 (80%) of the supervisors had worked with current principals in their schools for between 1 and 4 years. Teachers and supervisors who had worked for the between 5 and 9 years with the current principal accounted for 71 (21.45%) and 5 (16.7%) respectively. Moreover, 25 (7.55%) of the teachers and 1 (3.3%) of supervisors had worked for between 10 and 15 years with their current principals. The rest (3; 0.9%) of teachers had served for more than 15 years with the current principal. Hence, both teachers and supervisors had sufficient years of service to assess the IL practices of principals in their current schools. Moreover, the years of service of the role players in IL (i.e., teachers and supervisors) with the principals increased the validity of the PIMRS results.

Relating to years of experience as a principal, teacher and supervisor, Table 5.2 shows that 13 (32.5%) of the principals, 31 (9.37%) of teachers and 3 (10%) of supervisors had worked for between 1- and 4-years experience. Ten (25%) of principals, 88 (26.59%) of teachers and 21 (70%) of supervisors had served for more than 25 years; 9 (22.5%) of principals, 128 (38.67%) of teachers and 5 (16.7%) of supervisors had between10- and 15-years experience. Moreover, 8 (20%) of principals, 84 (25.37%) of teachers and 1 (3.3%) supervisor had between 5 and 9 years experience. Table 5.2 also shows that most of the principal respondents had experience of between 1 and 4 years and more than 15 years as a principal. It could be assumed that the principal respondents should have reasonably unbiased information about their IL practices. Furthermore, Table 5.2 shows that most of the teacher and supervisor respondents had experience of more than 15 years as a teacher or supervisor. It could be assumed that the teachers and supervisors should have reasonably balanced information about the IL practices of their principals.

5.4.2 Respondents' perceptions on IL practices of principals and comparisons of their scores

The mean scores of PIMRS respondents (principals, teachers, and supervisors) are examined in this sub-section on the items: implementing the definition of the school

mission in terms of framing the school goals and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. The units of analysis were 331 teachers, 40 principals and 30 supervisors.

For the purpose of interpretation of data and categorisation of mean scores of respondents, the respondents' mean scores on their respective PIMRS questionnaires in the assessment of the IL practices of principals were categorised as "low engagement", "medium engagement" and "high engagement". Accordingly, mean scores of respondents in the interval of 1.00–2.49 were considered as indicators of "low engagement", mean scores of respondents from 2.50–3.99 were classified as indicators of "medium engagement". And mean scores of respondents in the interval of 4.00–5.00 were interpreted as indicators of "high engagement".

The next parts of this sub-section describe respondents' perceptions on IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission and comparisons of their scores; respondents' perceptions on IL practices of principals with regard to managing the instructional programme and comparisons of their scores; respondents' perceptions on IL practices of principals with regard to developing a positive school learning climate and comparisons of their scores; and respondents' perceptions on IL practices of principals with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS and comparisons of their scores.

5.4.2.1 Respondents' perceptions on IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission and comparisons of their scores

The first 10 items of PIMRS were behaviour statements associated with the principals' IL practices that assist in defining the school mission by means of framing the school goals and communicating the school goals. Of the 10 items, the first five items were categorised under framing the school goals, and the remaining five were statements of communicating the school goals. The two job functions of defining the school mission,

framing the school goals and communicating the school goals are the major tasks of principals in the practice of IL. This part of the sub-section therefore examines the mean scores of PIMRS respondents (principals, teachers, and supervisors) on defining the school mission in terms of these two job functions. Then this part of the sub-section describes respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on principals' level of engagement in defining the school mission. Table 5.3, presented on the next page, indicates the results.

Table 5.3: Respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on defining the school mission

Job functions of PIMRS	Respondents	N	Mean	Grand mean	SD	t-test	p-value
Framing the school goals	Principals	40	4.01	3.50	.641	-1.156	.024
	Teachers	331	3.01				
	Supervisors	30	3.48				
Communicating the school goals	Principals	40	3.78	3.17	.662	-3.797	.001
	Teachers	331	2.79				
	Supervisors	30	2.94				
Overall average	Principals	40	3.90	3.34	.765	-1.213	.018
	Teachers	331	2.90				
	Supervisors	30	3.21				

N=Number of respondents, SD=Standard Deviation, Significant (α) level at 0.05, Degree of freedom=399

RQ 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to defining the school mission), and what experiences do they have with them?

H_{01}: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to defining the school mission) as perceived by principals themselves in AACA public secondary schools.

In order to address research question 1 and test the null hypothesis H_{01}, Table 5.3 encapsulates the mean scores of principals' self-perceptions with their IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals. Mean scores for principals' self-assessment were M=4.01 (for framing the school goals) and M=3.78 (for communicating the school goals). Mean scores for principals' self-perceptions were categorised as "high engagement" for framing the school goals and "medium engagement" for communicating the school goals. Also, principals rated themselves in the "medium engagement" range for overall average, defining the school mission (M=3.90). Therefore, the H_{01} is accepted.

RQ 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to defining the school mission) of their principals?

H_{02}: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to defining the school mission) as perceived by teachers and supervisors of public secondary schools in AACA.

Regarding addressing research question 2 and testing the null hypothesis H_{02}, Table 5.3 encapsulates the mean scores of teachers and supervisors on the IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals. Teachers rated their principals with mean scores of M=3.01for framing the school goals and M=2.79 for communicating the school goals. Thus, teachers rated their principals in the "medium engagement" range for both job functions of defining the school mission. Furthermore, teachers rated their principals in the "medium engagement" category for defining the school mission, with an overall

average (M=2.90). This implies that teachers perceived those principals in their schools engaged in framing and communicating the school goals moderately as part of their IL practices. Supervisors rated principals in their schools for IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals. They gave M=3.48 for framing the school goals and M=2.94 for communicating the school goals. Supervisors rated IL practices with regard to defining the school mission of principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" interval for both job functions. Also, supervisors categorized principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" category for defining the school mission, average (M=3.21). This indicates that, supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged in framing and communicating the school goals moderately as part of their IL practices. In sum, both groups of respondents described mean scores of IL practices of principals in their schools with regard to defining the school mission in the "medium engagement" category. This shows that, teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in behaviours associated to framing and communicating school goals as part of their IL practices. Hence, H_{02} is accepted.

RQ 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to defining the school mission) of principals in AACA?

H_{03}: There are statistically significant differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of the extent to which principals engage in IL practices (with regard to defining the school mission) of public secondary schools in AACA.

In relation to addressing research question 3 and testing the null hypothesis H_{03}, Table 5.3 also summarises the descriptive statistics like means and standard deviations. Inferential statistics like t-tests were used to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals. Accordingly, the following results were obtained.

Respondents were asked to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals. In this regard, the mean scores of M=4.01, M=3.01 and M=3.48 for principals, teachers and supervisors, respectively, indicated that principals engaged moderately in tasks related to framing the school goals. Likewise, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.50, SD=.641) established "medium engagement" in framing the school goals of principals. Respondents were also requested to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of communicating the school goals. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.78, M=2.79 and M=2.94 respectively, indicating "medium engagement". By the same token, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.17, SD=.662) revealed "medium engagement" on communicating the school goals of principals. Moreover, the overall average mean scores of principals (M=3.90), teachers (M=2.90) and supervisors (M=3.21) also confirmed "medium engagement" in defining the school mission of principals. In the same way, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.34, SD=.765) revealed "medium engagement" in defining the school mission of principals. However, both the job functions of defining the school mission were rated higher by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors.

In addition, the independent samples t-tests at df (399) and a significance level of .05 were calculated to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals in AACA with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals. The calculated independent samples t-test values indicated that (t=-1.156 & p=.024), p<.05 for framing the school goals. It was the same for all groups of respondents. The (t=-3.797 & p=.001), p<.05 for communicating the school goals was also the same for all groups of respondents. Furthermore, the calculated independent samples t-test values indicated that (t=-1.213 & p=.018), p<.05 for the overall average on defining the school mission was the same for all groups of respondents. The p-values of framing the school goals and the overall average on defining the school mission were less than .05 and showed a significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors), and the p-

value of communicating the school goals was far less than .05, indicating a strong significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors). Therefore, the H_{03} is accepted.

In sum, mean scores for principals' self-perceptions were categorized in the "high engagement" interval for framing the school goals and the "medium engagement" interval for communicating the school goals. Also, principals rated themselves in the "medium engagement" range for defining the school mission, overall average. This indicates that principals perceived themselves as engaged in framing the school goals highly and communicating the school goals moderately as part of their IL practices. On the other hand, teachers and supervisors rated principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" range for both job functions of defining the school mission. Furthermore, teachers and supervisors rated principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" category for defining the school mission. This implies that, teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged in framing and communicating the school goals moderately as part of their IL practices. Also, both job functions of defining the school mission were rated higher by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors. Moreover, the p-values of the two job functions showed a significant difference between the means of the principals, teachers and supervisors. Hence, the mean scores of the principals were significantly different from the mean scores of other role players (teachers and supervisors).

5.4.2.2. Respondents' perceptions with regard to managing the instructional programme and comparisons of their scores

The next 15 items of PIMRS were behaviour statements associated with the principals' IL practices that assist in managing the instructional programme by means of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Of the 15 items, the first five items were categorised under supervising and evaluating instruction, the next five items were categorised under coordinating the curriculum, and the remaining five were statements of monitoring student progress. The three job functions of managing the instructional programme, supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring

student progress are the major tasks of principals in the practice of IL. This part of the sub-section therefore examines the mean scores of PIMRS respondents (principals, teachers, and supervisors) in implementing managing the instructional programme in terms of the three job functions in the practices of IL by principals of all the sampled schools. Then this part of the sub-section describes respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on managing the instructional programme of principals of all the sampled schools and their engagement categorisations. Table 5.4 indicates respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on managing the instructional programme.

Table 5.4: Respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on managing the instructional programme

Job functions of PIMRS	Respondents	N	Mean	Grand mean	SD	t-test	p-value
Supervising and evaluating instruction	Principals	40	3.54	2.87	.564	-4.676	.000
	Teachers	331	2.52				
	Supervisors	30	2.56				
Coordinating the curriculum	Principals	40	3.56	2.96	.762	-3.493	.001
	Teachers	331	2.60				
	Supervisors	30	2.72				
Monitoring student progress	Principals	40	3.75	3.10	.862	-4.363	.000
	Teachers	331	2.64				
	Supervisors	30	2.91				
Overall average	Principals	40	3.62	2.98	.765	-4.273	.000
	Teachers	331	2.59				
	Supervisors	30	2.73				

N=Number of respondents, SD=Standard Deviation, Significant(α) level at.05, Degree of freedom=399

RQ 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to managing the instructional programme), and what experiences do they have with them?

H_{01}: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to managing the instructional programme) as perceived by principals themselves in AACA public secondary schools.

In order to address research question 1 and test the null hypothesis H_{01}, Table 5.4 summarises the mean scores of principals' self-perceptions with their IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programmein terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Mean scores for principals' self-assessment were M=3.54 (for supervising and evaluating instruction), M=3.56 (for coordinating the curriculum), and M=3.75 (for monitoring student progress). Mean scores for principals' self-perceptions were categorised under "medium engagement" interval for all the job functions of managing the instructional programme. Moreover, principals rated themselves highest on monitoring student progress (M=3.75) and lowest on supervising and evaluating instruction (M=3.54). Also, principals rated themselves in the "medium engagement" range where the overall average for managing the instructional programme was M=3.62. Therefore, the H_{01} is accepted.

RQ 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to managing the instructional programme) of their principals?

H_{02}: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to managing the instructional programme) as perceived by teachers and supervisors of public secondary schools in AACA.

Regarding addressing research question 2 and testing the null hypothesis H_{02}, Table 5.4 also encapsulates the mean scores of teachers and supervisors about the IL practices of principals with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Teachers rated their principals with mean scores of M=2.52 for

supervising and evaluating instruction, M=2.60 for coordinating the curriculum, and M=2.64 for monitoring student progress. Thus, teachers rated their principals in the "medium engagement" range for all job functions of managing the instructional programme. Teachers rated their principals highest on monitoring student progress (M=2.64) and lowest on supervising and evaluating instruction (M=2.52). Furthermore, teachers rated their principals in the "medium engagement" category for managing the instructional programme with an overall average of M=2.59. This implies that teachers perceived those principals in their schools engaged in all job functions of managing the instructional programme moderately as part of their IL practices.

On the other hand, supervisors rated principals in their schools for IL practices with regard to all job functions of managing the instructional programme. Accordingly, they gave M=2.56 for supervising and evaluating instruction, M=2.72 for coordinating the curriculum, and M=2.91 for monitoring student progress. Accordingly, supervisors rated IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme of principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" interval for all job functions. Supervisors rated principals in their schools highest on monitoring student progress (M=2.91) and lowest on supervising and evaluating instruction (M=2.56). Also, supervisors categorized principals in their schools under the "medium engagement" category for managing the instructional programme with an overall average of M=2.73. This indicates that supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged in all job functions of managing the instructional programme moderately as part of their IL practices. In sum, both groups of respondents described mean scores of IL practices of principals in their schools with regard to managing the instructional programmein the "medium engagement" category. This shows that, teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in behaviours associated with supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress as part of their IL practices. Hence, the hypothesis 2 is accepted.

RQ 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to managing the instructional programme) of principals in AACA?

H$_{03}$: There are statistically significant differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of the extent to which principals engage in IL practices (with regard to managing the instructional programme) of public secondary schools in AACA.

In relation to addressing research question 3 and testing the null hypothesis H$_{03}$, Table 5.4 also summarises the descriptive statistics like means and standard deviations, and inferential statistics like t-tests to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Accordingly, the following results were gained.

Respondents were asked to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction. In this regard, the mean scores of M=3.54, M=2.52 and M=2.56 for principals, teachers and supervisors, respectively, indicated that principals engaged moderately in tasks related to supervising and evaluating instruction. Likewise, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=2.87, SD =.564) established "medium engagement" in supervising and evaluating instruction of principals. Respondents were also requested to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of coordinating the curriculum. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.56, M=2.60 and M=2.72 respectively, indicating "medium engagement" in job functions related to coordinating the curriculum. Similarly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=2.96, SD =.762) revealed "medium engagement" on coordinating the curriculum of principals. In addition, respondents were invited to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of monitoring student progress. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.75, M=2.64 and M=2.91 respectively, indicating "medium engagement" on job functions related to monitoring student progress. Similarly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.10, SD=.862) revealed "medium engagement" on monitoring student progress of principals. Furthermore, the overall average mean scores of principals (M=3.62), teachers

(M=2.59) and supervisors (M=2.73) also confirmed "medium engagement" on managing the instructional programme of principals. In the same way, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=2.98, SD=.765) shown "medium engagement" on managing the instructional programme of principals. Even though, the mean scores of all the respondents were categorised under "medium engagement", all the job functions of managing the instructional programme were rated higher by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors.

In addition, the independent samples t-tests at df (399) and a significance level of .05 were calculated to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals in AACA with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. The calculated independent samples t-test values were (t=-4.676 & p=.000), p<.05 for supervising and evaluating instruction which was the same for all groups of respondents, (t=-3.493 & p=.001), p<.05 for coordinating the curriculum which was the same for all groups of respondents, and (t=-4.363 & p=.000), p<.05 for monitoring student progress which was also the same for all groups of respondents. Furthermore, the calculated independent samples t-test values indicated that (t=-4.273 & p=.000), p<.05 for managing the instructional programme was the same for all groups of respondents. The p-values of all the job functions and overall average for managing the instructional programme were much lower than .05, indicating a strong significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors). Therefore, H_{03} is accepted.

In sum, mean scores for principals' self-perceptions were categorized into "medium engagement" interval for supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Also, principals rated themselves in the "medium engagement" range for managing the instructional programme. This indicates that principals perceived themselves as moderately engaged in all the job functions of managing the instructional programmeas part of their IL practices. Teachers and supervisors also rated principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" range for all the job functions of managing the instructional programme. This implies that teachers and supervisors perceived those principals moderately engaged in all the job functions

of managing the instructional programme as part of their IL practices. Also, all the job functions of managing the instructional programme were rated higher by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors. Moreover, the p-values of all the job functions of managing the instructional programme and the overall average showed a strong significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors). Hence, the mean scores of the principals were strongly significantly different from the mean scores of other role players (teachers and supervisors).

5.4.2.3. Respondents' perceptions with regard to developing a positive school learning climate and comparisons of their scores

The next 25 items of PIMRS were behaviour statements associated with the principals' IL practices that assist in developing a positive school learning climate by means of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Of the 25 items, the first five items were categorised under protecting instructional time, the next five were statements on maintaining high visibility, the next five were behaviours of providing incentives for teachers, the next five were items of promoting PD, and the remaining five were behaviours of providing incentives for learning. The five job functions of developing a positive school learning climate: protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning are the major tasks of principals in the practice of IL. This part of the sub-section therefore examines the mean scores of PIMRS respondents (principals, teachers, and supervisors) in developing a positive school learning climate in terms of the five job functions in the practices of IL by principals of all the sampled schools. Then this part of the sub-section describes respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on developing a positive school learning climate of principals of all the sampled schools and their engagement categorisations. Table 5.5 indicates respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on developing a positive school learning climate.

Table 5.5: Respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on developing a positive school learning climate

Job functions of PIMRS	Respondents	N	Mean	Grand mean	SD	t-test	p-value
Protecting instructional time	Principals	40	3.99	3.47	.821	-1.056	.034
	Teachers	331	2.86				
	Supervisors	30	3.55				
Maintaining high visibility	Principals	40	3.88	3.33	.582	-1.197	.021
	Teachers	331	2.80				
	Supervisors	30	3.31				
Providing incentives for teachers	Principals	40	3.74	3.13	.743	-3.756	.001
	Teachers	331	2.66				
	Supervisors	30	2.98				
Promoting professional development	Principals	40	3.80	3.22	.658	-2.797	.003
	Teachers	331	2.70				
	Supervisors	30	3.16				
Providing incentives for learning	Principals	40	3.83	3.28	.556	-1.056	.021
	Teachers	331	2.73				
	Supervisors	30	3.27				
Overall average	Principals	40	3.85	3.28	.608	-1.203	.020
	Teachers	331	2.75				
	Supervisors	30	3.25				

N=Number of respondents, SD=Standard Deviation, Significant (α) level at 0.05, Degree of freedom=399

RQ 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to developing a positive school learning climate), and what experiences do they have with them?

H_{01}: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to developing a positive school learning climate) as perceived by principals themselves in AACA public secondary schools.

In order to address research question 1 and test the null hypothesis H_{01}, Table 5.5 encapsulates the mean scores of principals' self-perceptions with their IL practices with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Mean scores for principals' self-assessment were M=3.99 (for protecting instructional time), M=3.88 (for maintaining high visibility), M=3.74 (for providing incentives for teachers), M=3.80 (for promoting PD), and M=3.83 (for providing incentives for learning). Mean scores for principals' self-perceptions fell within the "medium engagement" interval for all the job functions of developing a positive school learning climate. Principals rated themselves highest on protecting instructional time (M=3.99) and lowest on providing incentives for teachers (M=3.74). Also, the overall average of principals' ratings fell into the "medium engagement" range for developing a positive school learning climate (M=3.85). Therefore, the H_{01} is accepted.

RQ 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to developing a positive school learning climate) of their principals?

H_{02}: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to developing a positive school learning climate) as perceived by teachers and supervisors of public secondary schools in AACA.

Regarding addressing research question 2 and testing the null hypothesis H_{02}, Table 5.5 also encapsulates the mean scores of teachers and supervisors on the IL practices of principals with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of

protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Teachers rated their principals with mean scores of M=2.86 for protecting instructional time, M=2.80 for maintaining high visibility, M=2.66 for providing incentives for teachers,M=2.70 for promoting PD, and M=3.73 for providing incentives for learning. Thus, teachers rated their principals in the "medium engagement" range for all job functions of developing a positive school learning climate. Teachers rated their principals highest on protecting instructional time (M=2.86) and lowest on providing incentives for teachers (M=2.66). Furthermore, teachers rated their principals in the "medium engagement" category for developing a positive school learning climate with an overall average (M=2.75). This implies that, teachers perceived those principals in their schools moderately engaged in all job functions of developing a positive school learning climate as part of their IL practices. Supervisors also rated principals in their schools for IL practices with regard to all job functions of developing a positive school learning climate. Accordingly, they gave M=3.55 for protecting instructional time, M=3.31 for maintaining high visibility, M=2.98 for providing incentives for teachers, M=3.16 for promoting PD, and M=3.27 for providing incentives for learning. Hence, supervisors rated principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" interval for all job functions of developing a positive school learning climate. Supervisors rated principals in their schools highest on protecting instructional time (M=3.55) and lowest on providing incentives for teachers (M=2.98). Also, supervisors categorized principals in their schools under "medium engagement" category for developing a positive school learning climate, overall average (M=3.25). This indicates that, supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged in all job functions of developing a positive school learning climate moderately as part of their IL practices. In sum, the mean scores of both groups of respondents on IL practices of principals in their schools with regard to all job functions of developing a positive school learning climate placed the results in the "medium engagement" category. This shows that, teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in behaviours associated to protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning as part of their IL practices. Hence, H_{02} is accepted.

RQ 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to developing a positive school learning climate) of principals in AACA?

H_{03}: There are statistically significant differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of the extent to which principals engage in IL practices (with regard to developing a positive school learning climate) of public secondary schools in AACA.

In relation to addressing research question 3 and testing H_{03}, Table 5.5 also summarises the descriptive statistics like means and standard deviations, and inferential statistics like t-tests were used to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Accordingly, the following results were gained.

Respondents were asked to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time. In this regard, the mean scores of M=3.99, M=2.86 and M=3.55 for principals, teachers and supervisors, respectively, indicated that principals engaged moderately in tasks related to protecting instructional time. Likewise, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.47, SD =.821) proven "medium engagement" on protecting instructional time of principals. Respondents were also requested to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of maintaining high visibility. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.88, M=2.80 and M=3.31 respectively, indicating "medium engagement" in job functions related to maintaining high visibility. Similarly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.33, SD =.582) revealed "medium engagement" on maintaining high visibility of principals. In addition, respondents were asked to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to

developing a positive school learning climate in terms of providing incentives for teachers. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.74, M=2.66 and M=2.98 respectively, indicating "medium engagement" in job functions related to providing incentives for teachers. In the same way, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.13, SD =.743) displayed "medium engagement" on providing incentives for teachers of principals. Moreover, respondents were requested to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of promoting PD. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.80, M=2.70 and M=3.16 respectively, indicating "medium engagement" in job functions related to promoting PD. Correspondingly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.22, SD =.658) revealed "medium engagement" on promoting PD of principals. Furthermore, respondents were invited to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of providing incentives for learning. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.83, M=2.73 and M=3.27 respectively, indicating "medium engagement" in job functions related to providing incentives for learning. Similarly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.28, SD=.556) revealed "medium engagement" on providing incentives for learning of principals. Additionally, the overall average mean scores of principals (M=3.85), teachers (M=2.75) and supervisors (M=3.25) also confirmed "medium engagement" on developing a positive school learning climate of principals. Similarly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.28, SD=.608) show "medium engagement" on developing a positive school learning climate of principals. Although, the mean scores of all the respondents were categorised under "medium engagement", all the job functions of developing a positive school learning climate were rated higher by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors.

In addition, the independent samples t-tests at df (399) and a significance level of .05 were calculated to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals in AACA with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting

instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. The calculated independent samples t-test values indicated that (t=-1.056 & p=.034), p<.05 for protecting instructional time and was the same for all groups of respondents; (t=-1.197 & p=.021), p<.05 for maintaining high visibility and was the same for all groups of respondents; (t=-3.756 & p=.001), p<.05 for providing incentives for teachers and was the same for all groups of respondents; (t=-2.797 & p=.003), p<.05 for promoting PD and was the same for all groups of respondents; and (t=-1.056 & p=.021), p<.05 for providing incentives for learning was also the same for all groups of respondents. Furthermore, the calculated independent samples t-test values indicated that (t=-1.203 & p=.020), p<.05 for overall average, developing a positive school learning climate and was the same for all groups of respondents. The p-values of providing incentives for teachers and promoting PD are far lower than .05 and guaranteed strong significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors) in these two job functions of developing a positive school learning climate. Also, the p-values of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for learning, and overall average, developing a positive school learning climate less than.05, then the mean score of the principals was significantly different from the mean scores of other role players (teachers and supervisors). Therefore, the H_{03} is accepted.

In sum, mean scores for principals' self-perceptions categorised under "medium engagement" interval for all the job functions of developing a positive school learning climate. Also, overall average of the principals fell in the "medium engagement" range for developing a positive school learning climate. This indicates that principals perceived themselves as engaged in all the job functions of developing a positive school learning climate moderately as part of their IL practices. On the other hand, teachers and supervisors rated principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" range for all the job functions of developing a positive school learning climate. Furthermore, the overall average of the rating of teachers and supervisors for principals fell into the "medium engagement" category for developing a positive school learning climate. This implies that teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in all the job functions of developing a positive school learning

climate as part of their IL practices. Also, all the job functions of developing a positive school learning climate were rated greater by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors. Moreover, the p-values of providing incentives for teachers and promoting PD showed a strong significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors). Furthermore, the p-values of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for learning, and overall average indicated a significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors).

5.4.2.4. Respondents' perceptions with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS

The total of 50 items of PIMRS were behaviour statements associated with the principals' IL practices that assisted in measuring their engagement in defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate as perceived by principals themselves, teachers, and supervisors. Of the 50 items, the first 10 items were categorised under defining the school mission, the next 15 items were categorised under managing the instructional programme, and the remaining 25 were items of developing a positive school learning climate. The three dimensions of PIMRS IL model: defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate are the overall tasks of principals in the practice of IL. This part of the sub-section therefore examines the mean scores of the PIMRS respondents across the whole scale of PIMRS. To analyse the obtained data from the PIMRS respondents on whole scale of PIMRS scores and categorise the respondents' scores as "high engagement", "medium engagement" and "low engagement", mean scores of all the sampled schools on whole scale of PIMRS were calculated. Table 5.6 indicates the respondents' assessment scores on the whole scale of PIMRS.

Table 5.6: Respondents' assessment scores of PIMRS on whole scale of PIMRS

Dimensions of PIMRS	Respondents	N	Mean	Grand mean	SD	t-test	p-value
Defining the school mission	Principals	40	3.90	3.34	.641	-.782	.024
	Teachers	331	2.90				
	Supervisors	30	3.21				
Managing the instructional programme	Principals	40	3.62	2.98	.662	-4.541	.000
	Teachers	331	2.60				
	Supervisors	30	2.73				
Developing a positive school learning climate	Principals	40	3.85	3.28	.644	-1.278	.015
	Teachers	331	2.75				
	Supervisors	30	3.25				
Total PIMRS	Principals	40	3.80	3.20	.765	-1.113	.020
	Teachers	331	2.75				
	Supervisors	30	3.06				

N=Number of respondents, SD=Standard Deviation, Significant (α) level at 0.05, Degree of freedom=399

RQ 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to whole scale of PIMRS), and what experiences do they have with them?

H_{01}: There is no statistically significant high engagement of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to whole scale of PIMRS) as perceived by principals themselves in AACA public secondary schools.

In order to address research question 1 and test the null hypothesis H_{01}, Table 5.6 summarises the mean scores of principals' self-perceptions with their IL practices with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS in terms of defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme,and developing a positive school learning climate. Mean scores for principals' self-assessment were M=3.90 (for defining the school mission), M=3.62 (for managing the instructional programme), and M=3.85 (for developing a positive school learning climate). Mean scores for principals' self-perceptions were categorized in the "medium engagement" interval for all the dimensions of the whole scale of PIMRS. Moreover, principals rated themselves highest on defining the school mission (M=3.90) and lowest on managing the instructional programme (M=3.62). Also, principals rated themselves in the "medium engagement" range for the whole PIMRS, (M=3.80). Therefore, H_{01} is accepted.

RQ 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS) of their principals?

H_{02}: There is no statistically significant high engagement of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS) as perceived by teachers and supervisors of public secondary schools in AACA.

Regarding addressing research question 2 and testing H_{02}, Table 5.6 also encapsulates the mean scores of teachers and supervisors about the IL practices of principals with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS in terms of defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme,and developing a positive school learning climate. Teachers rated their principals with mean scores of M=2.90 for defining the school

mission, M=2.60 for managing the instructional programme, and M=2.75 for developing a positive school learning climate. Thus, teachers rated their principals in the "medium engagement" range for all the dimensions of whole scale of PIMRS. Teachers rated their principals highest on defining the school mission (M=2.90) and lowest on managing the instructional programme (M=2.60). Furthermore, teachers rated their principals in the "medium engagement" category for total PIMRS (M=2.75). This implies that, teachers perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in all the dimensions of the whole scale of PIMRS as part of their IL practices. Supervisors gave M=3.21 for defining the school mission, M=2.73 for managing the instructional programme, and M=3.25 for developing a positive school learning climate. Supervisors rated IL practices with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS of principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" interval for all the dimensions. Also, supervisors categorized principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" category for total PIMRS (M=3.06). This indicates that supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in all the dimensions of the whole scale of PIMRS as part of their IL practices. In sum, both groups of respondents produced mean scores of IL practices of principals in their schools with regard to total PIMRS in the "medium engagement" category. This shows that teachers and supervisors perceived that principals in their schools engaged moderately in defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate as part of their IL practices. Hence, H_{02} is accepted.

RQ 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS) of principals in AACA?

H_{03}: There are statistically significant differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of the extent to which principals engage in IL practices (with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS) of public secondary schools in AACA.

In relation to addressing research question 3 and testing H_{03}, Table 5.6 also summarises the descriptive statistics like means and standard deviations. Inferential

statistics like t-tests were used to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS in terms of defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate. Accordingly, the following results were gained.

Respondents were asked to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS in terms of defining the school mission. In this regard, the mean scores of M=3.90, M=2.90 and M=3.21 for principals, teachers and supervisors, respectively, indicated that principals engaged moderately in tasks related to defining the school mission. Likewise, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.34, SD =.641) indicated "medium engagement" in defining the school mission of principals. Respondents were also requested to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS in terms of managing the instructional programme. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.62, M=2.60 and M=2.73 respectively, indicating "medium engagement" in job functions related to managing the instructional programme. Similarly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=2.98, SD =.662) revealed "medium engagement" on managing the instructional programme of principals. In addition, respondents were asked to assess the IL practices of principals with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS in terms of developing a positive school learning climate. The mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors were M=3.85, M=2.75 and M=3.25 respectively, indicating "medium engagement" in job functions related to developing a positive school learning climate. Similarly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.28, SD=.644) revealed "medium engagement" in developing a positive school learning climate of principals. Furthermore, the total PIMRS average scores of principals (M=3.80), teachers (M=2.75) and supervisors (M=3.06) also confirmed "medium engagement" across the whole scale of PIMRS of principals. Similarly, the grand mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors (GM=3.20, SD=.765) showed "medium engagement" on total PIMRS. Even though the mean scores of all the respondents were categorised under "medium engagement", all the

dimensions of whole scale of PIMRS were rated greater by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors and rated lower by teachers than they were by supervisors.

In addition, the independent samples t-tests at df (399) and a significance level of .05 were calculated to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals in AACA with regard to the whole scale of PIMRS in terms of defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate. The calculated independent samples t-test values indicated that (t=-.782 & p=.024), p<.05 for defining the school mission and was the same for all groups of respondents, (t=-4.541 & p=.000), p<.05 for managing the instructional programme and was the same for all groups of respondents, and (t=-1.278 & p=.015), p<.05 for developing a positive school learning climate was also the same for all groups of respondents. Furthermore, the calculated independent samples t-test values were (t=-1.113 & p=.020), p<.05 for total PIMRS and was the same for all groups of respondents. The p-value for managing the instructional programme is far lower than .05 and indicated a strong significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors). Also, the p-values for defining the school mission, developing a positive school learning climate, and total PIMRS were lower than .05, and indicated significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors). Therefore, H_{03} is accepted.

In sum, mean scores for principals' self-perceptions were categorized in the "medium engagement" interval for defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate. Also, principals rated themselves in the "medium engagement" range for total PIMRS. This indicates that principals perceived themselves as moderately engaged in all the dimensions of the whole scale of PIMRS as part of their IL practices. In addition, teachers and supervisors rated principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" range for all the dimensions of the whole scale of PIMRS. Furthermore, teachers and supervisors rated principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" category for the total PIMRS. This implies that teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools

engaged moderately in all the dimensions of the whole scale of PIMRS as part of their IL practices. Also, all the dimensions of the whole scale of PIMRS were rated higher by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors and rated lower by teachers than they were by supervisors. The p-values of defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, developing a positive school learning climate, and total PIMRS were lower than .05, and indicated a significant difference between the mean scores of the principals and other role players (teachers and supervisors). Hence, the mean scores of the principals were significantly different from the mean scores of other role players (teachers and supervisors).

In conclusion of the quantitative results of the study, with regard to research question 1, principals rated their own IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals highest (4.01), while they rated themselves lowest on managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction (3.54). Out of the 10 job functions, the mean scores for framing the school goals indicated "high engagement". But the mean scores for the nine job functions indicated "medium engagement". This implies that principals perceived that they engaged highly in framing the school goals, but in the other job functions engaged moderately as part of their IL practices. Also, principals' overall average means in defining the school mission (M=3.90), managing the instructional programme (M=3.62), and developing a positive school learning climate (M=3.85) similarly indicated "medium engagement". Moreover, principals' total PIMRS mean score of 3.80 indicated "medium engagement".

In relation to research question 2, teachers rated their principals' IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals highest (3.01), while they rated their principals lowest on managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction (2.52). The mean scores of all the job functions indicated "medium engagement". This implies that, teachers perceived that their principals engaged moderately in all job functions as part of their IL practices. Teachers' overall average means for defining the school mission (M=2.90), managing the instructional programme (M=2.59), and developing a positive school learning climate (M=2.75) similarly indicated "medium engagement". Moreover, teachers' total PIMRS

mean score (2.75) indicated "medium engagement". Supervisors rated principals in their schools on IL practices with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time highest (3.55), while they rated principals lowest on managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction (2.56). The mean scores of all the job functions indicated "medium engagement". This implies that, supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in all job functions as part of their IL practices. Supervisors' overall average mean for defining the school mission (M=3.21), managing the instructional programme (M=2.73), and developing a positive school learning climate (M=3.25) likewise indicated "medium engagement". Moreover, supervisors' total PIMRS mean score (3.06) indicated "medium engagement".

Regarding research question 3, the mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors on the IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals indicated "high engagement" for principals themselves and "medium engagement" for teachers and supervisors. However, the mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors on the IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of all of its job function; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of all of its job functions indicated "medium engagement" for all groups of respondents. Although, the mean scores of all groups of respondents were categorised under "medium engagement", both job functions of defining the school mission, all the three job functions of managing the instructional programme, and all five job functions of developing a positive school learning climate were rated higher by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors; and rated lower by teachers than they were by supervisors. In addition, the independent samples t-tests at df (399) and a significance level of .05 were calculated to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of their principals in AACA. The p-values of all 10 job functions were similar for all groups of respondents. The p-values of all 10 job functions were lower than .05 (p<.05). They indicated a significant difference between the mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors on IL practices with regard to all the

10 job functions contained in the three dimensions of PIMRS. Hence, principals' self-perceptions were significantly different from the perceptions of teachers and supervisors on IL practices of principals in their schools. The following section offers a detailed presentation and analysis of data obtained from the qualitative phase of the study.

5.5 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA OBTAINED FROM QUALITATIVE PHASE

As described in sub-section 4.2.3 of Chapter 4, the research in this study was based on an explanatory sequential mixed methods strategy/design in which the quantitative data preceded the qualitative data and the latter was used to complement and explain the quantitative results, to identify reasons for statistical results, and to address some research questions of the study which were better treated via qualitative methods. This section of the chapter provides a brief presentation and analysis of the qualitative data obtained from a lot of interviews with principals and supervisors, and document reviews of sampled schools of the study to investigate the perceptions and experiences of principals with their current and actual engagement in IL practices of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

5.5.1 Interview participants' codes

Table 5.7: Sample interview participants' codes

Sample school code	Number of principals in each sample school	Number of purposely selected principal	Code given to principal	Number of supervisors in each sample school	Number of purposely selected supervisor	Code given to supervisor
A	4	1	HP 1	3	1	RS 1
B	4	1	HP 2	3	1	RS 2
C	4	1	HP 3	3	1	RS 3
D	4	1	HP 4	3	1	RS 4
E	4	1	HP 5	3	1	RS 5
F	4	1	HP 6	3	1	RS 6
G	4	1	HP 7	3	1	RS 7

Sample school code	Number of principals in each sample school	Number of purposely selected principal	Code given to principal	Number of supervisors in each sample school	Number of purposely selected supervisor	Code given to supervisor
H	4	1	HP 8	3	1	RS 8
I	4	1	HP 9	3	1	RS 9
J	4	1	HP 10	3	1	RS 10
	40	10		30	10	

As indicated in Table 5.7, for confidentiality purposes, codes were used to represent principals and supervisors in each sampled school. In view of that, HP 1 was a code for a head principal purposely selected among principals in sampled school A. HP 2, 3 and 4 were codes for principals in sampled schools B, C and D respectively. HP 5 was a code for a principal selected among principals in sampled school E. HP 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10 were codes for principals in sampled school F, G, H, I and J respectively. On the other hand, RS 1 was a code for a resident supervisor purposely selected among supervisors in sampled school A. RS 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 were codes for supervisors picked among all supervisors in sampled school B, C, D, E and F respectively. RS 7 was a code for a resident supervisor picked among supervisors in sampled school G. RS 8, 9 and 10 were codes for supervisors chose from all supervisors in sampled school H, I and J respectively.

5.5.2 Participants' biographical data

The biographical data of research participants can help the researcher place the findings of a research study into context. Table 5.8 indicates biographical data of ten head principal and ten resident supervisor interview participants in terms of their gender, age group, academic qualification, specialisation, years working as a head principal/resident supervisor in the current school, and years of experience as a head principal/resident supervisor. All data gathered were tabulated using frequencies and percentages in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Interview participants' biographical data

Biographical data	Category	Principals		Supervisors	
		F	%	F	%
Gender	Male	8	80	6	60
	Female	2	20	4	40
Age group	29 and under	-	-	-	-
	30-39	4	40	2	20
	40-49	6	60	8	80
	50 and above	-	-	-	-
Academic qualification	Bachelor degree	-	-	-	-
	Master's degree	10	100	10	100
Specialisation	Educational/School leadership	7	70	6	60
	Curriculum and Instruction	1	10	2	20
	Subject areas	2	20	2	20
Years working as a head principal/a resident supervisor in the current school	1-4	8	80	8	80
	5-9	2	20	2	20
	10-15	-	-	-	-
	More than 15	-	-	-	-
Years of experience as a principal/a supervisor	1-4	-	-	-	-
	5-9	6	60	8	80
	10-15	4	40	2	20
	More than 15	-	-	-	-

Keys: F=Frequency and %=Percent

With regard to gender, of the head principal participants, Table 5.8 indicates that only 2 (20%) were women, the remaining 8 (80%) were men. It is clear that most participants were men. This is so because the number of male principals in public secondary schools in AACA is more than that of their female counterparts. However, both genders were proportionally represented. Table 5.8 also shows that of the 10 resident supervisor participants, 6(60%) participants were men whereas 4 (40%) were women. This shows that both genders were proportionally represented.

Relating to the age distribution of participants, Table 5.8 shows that 6 (60%) of the principals and 8 (80%) of supervisors were between 40 and 49 years of age. The results also indicate that 4 (40%) of principals and 2 (20%) of the supervisors were in the age category of 30–39. No participant was in the age categories of 29 years and under or 50 years and above. It can be assumed that they could provide relevant information on current and actual IL practices in their schools.

In relation to academic qualifications and specialisations of participants, the maximum qualification achieved by head principals and resident supervisors was one decisive factor of determining the participant's level of professionalism. Accordingly, Table 5.8 indicates that no principal and supervisor had only bachelor degrees. On the other hand, 10 (100%) principals had master's degrees with specialisations of 7 (70%) in educational (school) leadership, 2 (20%) in subject areas, and 1 (10%) in curriculum and instruction. Moreover, 10 (100%) of the supervisor participants had master's degrees with specialisations of 6 (60%) in educational (school) leadership, 2 (20%) in subject areas, and 2 (20%) in curriculum and instruction. It is obvious that most of the interview participants were professionals and would have had a good understanding of the IL practices of principals in their schools.

Pertaining to years working as a head principal or resident supervisor in the current school, Table 5.8 shows that 8 (80%) of the principals and 8 (80%) of the supervisors had served in their current schools for 1 to 4 years. In addition, there were 2 (20%) principals and supervisors who had experience of between 5 and 9 years in their current schools. Furthermore, no principal or supervisor had experience of more than 10 years. Therefore, both principals and supervisors had adequate experience to assess the engagement of principals in their IL practices in the current schools.

Regarding years of experiences as a principal or a supervisor, Table 5.8 shows that 6 (60%) of the principals and 8 (80%) of supervisors had worked for the years between 5 and 9. Four (40%) principals and 2 (20%) supervisors had served for between 10 and 15 years. Moreover, no principals or supervisors had experience of between 1 and 4 years or more than 15 years. Table 5.8 also indicates that the greater part of the interview participants were relatively experienced principals and supervisors.

5.5.3 Data obtained from semi-structured interview participants

Semi-structured interview questions were prepared based on research questions 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 in order to complement, get rich information, identify reasons for quantitative results, and triangulate the data obtained from respondents (principals, teachers, and supervisors) using their respective PIMRS survey questionnaires in addressing research questions 1, 2 and 3 during the quantitative phase of the study. Furthermore, interview questions were used to gather data from head principals and resident supervisors to address research questions 4, 5 and 6. Accordingly, in-depth interviews were conducted with head principals and resident supervisors to investigate their self-perceptions and the perceptions of staff supporting the teaching and learning of sampled schools respectively.

During the month of June 2021 following the gathering and analysis of quantitative data, the first interviews were conducted with a total of 10 head principals, one from each sampled school and then, interviews were held with 10 resident supervisors selected from each sampled school using their respective interview guides (Appendix J and K). The verbatim texts of participant interviews were translated into English after being transcribed from the audio recordings in Amharic. To verify that the translations were accurate and to convey the same idea as the actual audio-recorded text, the researcher constantly compared the translations to the recorded audio. For coding and analysis, the translated texts of all the interviews were run through the ATLAS. ti, version 9. Accordingly, data were reviewed to see the developing patterns of themes and development of themes and categories. This part of the sub-section shows the development of themes and the main themes of the qualitative phase of the study. The seven emerging themes were developed based on the research questions of the study, the interview questions derived from the research questions, the interviewees' responses during the interview sessions, during qualitative data analysis, and researcher's personal experiences. The seven main themes identified from principals and supervisors are summarised and presented below.

- Perceptions and experiences of principals with their current and actual IL practices;
- Self-assessment of current and actual IL practices of principals;

- Perceptions and assessments of supervisors about IL practices of principals in their schools;

- Differences in principals' self-perceptions and supervisors' perceptions with current and actual IL practices of principals;

- Challenges principals experience while engaging themselves in IL activities;

- Possible solutions forwarded to the challenges; and

- Recommendations advised as strategies for high engagement of principals in their IL practices.

Table 5.9 shows the research questions of the study, interview questions derived from research questions, themes that were emerged from interview responses and participant(s) to address the interview questions.

Table 5.9: Research questions, interview questions derived and themes

Research questions	Interview questions derived from the research questions	Themes that were emerged from interview response	To be addressed by
How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual IL practices, and what experiences do they have with them?	How do you perceive your current and actual IL practices? What experiences do you have with them?	5.5.3.1 Theme 1: Perceptions and experiences of principals with their current and actual IL practices.	Head principals
	What looks like your current and actual instructional leadership practices as defined by PIMRS IL Model? Assess your practices in terms of the three dimensions/ ten job functions of the PIMRSIL Model.	5.5.3.2 Theme 2: Self-assessments of current and actual IL practices of principals. i. Sub-theme 1: Defining the school mission ii. Sub-theme 2: Managing the instructional programme iii. Sub-theme 3: Developing a positive school learning climate	
How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual IL practices of their principals?	How do you perceive the current and actual IL practices of principals in your school? Assess their IL practices in terms of the three dimensions/ ten job functions of the PIMRSIL model.	5.5.3.3 Theme 3: Perceptions and assessments of supervisors about current and actual IL practices of principals in their schools. i. Sub-theme 1: Defining the school mission ii. Sub-theme 2: Managing the instructional programme iii. Sub-theme 3: Developing a positive school learning climate	Resident supervisors
What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of principals in AACA?	How do you assess the differences between your self-perception as principal with your supervisor's perception with your IL practices? How do you explain it?	5.5.3.4 Theme 4: Differences in principals' self-perceptions and supervisors' perceptions with current and actual IL practices of principals.	Head principals and resident supervisors
	How do you assess the differences between your perceptions as a supervisor with principals' self-perceptions on their IL practices in your school? How do you explain it?		

Research questions	Interview questions derived from the research questions	Themes that were emerged from interview response	To be addressed by
What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while practising IL activities?	What challenges do you experience while practising IL activities currently as a principal? Mention some of the challenges.	5.5.3.5 Theme 5: Challenges principals experience while engaging themselves in IL activities.	Head principals and resident supervisors
	What challenges do principals in your school experience while practising IL activities currently? Mention some of the challenges.		
What possible solutions can be advised that contribute to the enhancement of IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?	As a principal, what possible solutions can you suggest that contribute for the enhancement of IL practices of principals, including you?	5.5.3.6 Theme 6: Possible solutions forwarded to the challenges.	Head principals and resident supervisors
	As a supervisor, what possible solutions can you suggest that contribute for the enhancement of IL practices of principals in your school?		
What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?	As a principal, what recommendations can you make that may serve as strategies for IL practices of principals, including you in AACA?	5.5.3.7 Theme 7: Recommendations advised as strategies for high engagement principals in their IL practices.	Head principals and resident supervisors
	As a supervisor, what recommendations can you make that may serve as strategies for IL practices of principals in your school?		

5.5.3.1Theme 1: Perceptions and experiences of principals with their current and actual IL practices

RQ 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model), and what experiences do they have with them?

Perceptions of a principal and the related behaviour of a principal determines the degree to which leaders of the school impact organisational change for student enhancement (Urick & Bowers, 2014). According to Hallinger and Heck (2010), different results from teachers and students can be produced by principals across different schools who apply IL behaviours with similar activities or tasks. Moreover, an investigation into principals' perceptions and experiences of their IL would describe via the involvement of teachers in the leadership of a positive school climate, and the ways in which principals decide to enact on effective IL behaviours can be directed their particular context for augmented student results. In addition, some researchers (e.g., Brabham, 2017; Poloncic, 2016; Powell, 2017) show that, among school principal-related variables, variables such as the manner in which principals perceive their IL practices and the manner, they understand IL severely affect their IL practices. Moreover, according to Powell (2017:90), "principals have diverse understandings that decide their actions".

This part of the sub-section addresses the following interview question: How do you perceive your current and actual IL practices? What experiences do you have with them? Accordingly, the principals were asked to respond to the above interview question. A summary of their responses is presented as follows.

HP1 said:

> *"I perceive that IL improves the instructional practices of teachers, and then academic achievements of students. It also ensures the quality of teaching and learning in the school. Though it has variety of definitions, as instructional leader, my opinion is that IL is the largest part of my responsibilities…. The daily routines*

in the school disturb all my planned schedules. Approximately, I devoted about 20% of my school time on IL."

Similarly, HP 6 indicated that, according to his perception, IL is the major task of all principals in a school, because it is the leadership of teaching and learning. In his school there are one head and three vice-principals with a total of four principals, as instructional leaders. Even though, they had large amounts of administrative work, all of them tried to assist the classroom instruction of teachers by spending about 20% of their school time, in order to enhance the quality of student learning.

In supporting the ideas of HP 1 and HP 6, HP 8 explained that:

"I regard IL as the essential job of school principals, because its implementation in school by all the principals improves classroom activities of teachers and the quality of learning of students, then their academic achievements. I assume that we, principals should spend largest portion of our daily school time in doing IL practices, but we spent only about 30% of our time, because of daily routines and administrative works."

Likewise, HP 2, HP 3, HP 5 and HP 9 indicated that they regarded IL as one of their core tasks. They also described that IL is one of the leadership activities with the first priority that should be implemented in a school, because it leads towards the achievement of the school goals (students' academic achievement) through improvement in quality of teachers' teaching practices. Moreover, they allocated about 25% of their school time to it. However, they mentioned their concerns about the shortage of time to implement IL effectively, due to huge administrative tasks and routine activities.

However, HP 4, HP 7 and HP 10 explained that, although they were not adequately trained on IL practices, most of their school time was spent on routine and administrative work, and they worked in politically non-secular schools, they tried to engage fairly in IL activities. With respect to this, HP 7 stated that:

"According to my view, IL is the largest part of my responsibilities, and it demands the largest portion of my school time. IL of principals supports teachers to pinpoint their gaps in classroom practices with the aim to improve students learning, then academic achievement. IL also guarantees that teachers' teaching methodologies and students' learnings are fit for the expected standards. I allotted about 30% of my school time on IL, because of daily burdens."

In conclusion of Theme 1, the responses indicated that most principals perceived that IL was one of their core tasks and the largest part of their responsibilities. They also perceived that IL demanded the largest portion of their school time and they needed to support teachers by pinpointing the gaps in their classroom practices with the aim of improving students' learning and academic achievement. Although, challenges such as unclear and different meanings of IL, shortage of time to engage in IL practices effectively, and huge amount of administrative works and routine activities affected their IL practices, they tried to engage fairly in IL activities. Moreover, on average they allotted about 20-30% of their school time to IL.

5.5.3.2 Theme 2: Self-assessments of current and actual IL practices of principals

In PIMRS IL model, Hallinger created a unique view of IL that has three components: establishing the school's mission, overseeing its curriculum, and creating a conducive learning environment. According to Hallinger (2003), articulating the school's mission entails framing and outlining its objectives, as well as working with the personnel to make sure that those objectives are made known to the entire school community. These objectives are mostly focused on the pupils' academic development. Supervising and evaluating instruction, planning the curriculum, and keeping track of students' progress are all parts of managing the educational programme. The school's curriculum needs the principal to be very involved with it (Hallinger, 2003). The supervision of classroom instruction is also a part of this. The school principal is still in charge of building the academic basis of the school, even though secondary schools find it challenging to achieve this. Five job responsibilities are necessary to create a healthy learning environment in a school: safeguarding instructional time, upholding high visibility, rewarding instructors, encouraging PD, and offering rewards for learning. The tone of

the school is also within the principal's control. This includes ensuring that the school community upholds a high standard of excellence and expectations. This is accomplished by giving staff and students incentives and by reserving the time necessary for monitoring in-class instruction rather than for administrative tasks.

This part of the sub-section addresses the following interview question: What are your current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model? Assess your practices in terms of the three dimensions and 10 job functions of the PIMRS IL model. Accordingly, the interview question was addressed below in terms of the three dimensions of the PIMRS IL model.

i. Sub-theme 1: Defining the school mission

The principal's responsibility in working with staff to make sure the school has a clear mission, and that mission is focused on the academic achievement of its students is addressed in the first dimension of IL (Hallinger 2013:14). A good instructional leader strives to develop and explain a shared vision, mission, and goals that are simple and straightforward for staff members to implement in their everyday work (Hallinger, 2013). This duty of defining the school mission refers to the principal's responsibility in selecting the area of focus for school goals and allocating the necessary resources. It frames the school's goals (Hallinger, 2013). Effective instructional leaders collaborate with staff to create a manageable number of data-driven goals with clearly defined duties and quantifiable outcomes based on the school's mission to improve student achievement (Lorei, 2015). Principals have a variety of options for expressing the school's objectives to stakeholders. The principal and staff members should constantly discuss school goals, according to Hallinger (2013:14), "especially in the case of instructional, curricular, and financial decisions". Frequent stakeholder communication regarding the school's goals encourages a shift in their attitudes and views (Levin, 2000). According to research, it is crucial to constantly communicate and define school goals through both formal and informal channels, such as print materials, school assemblies, and educational conferences and conversations (Brookover & Lezotte, 1982). The fundamental idea that the school can improve student performance is

communicated to the faculty by instructional leaders who are good communicators (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

Sub-theme 1 presents principals' self-assessment of their IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals. Accordingly, principals were asked to respond to the interview question: What are your current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model? Assess your practices in terms of defining the school mission. A summary of the participants' replies is presented as follows.

HP 4 described that:

> *"I, as a principal can put the engagement in defining the school mission in terms of the two job functions in our school as high in framing the school goals by participating representatives from teachers, students and parents, and moderate in communicate the school goals only by discussing in conferences with school community members due to shortage of budget, instructional resources and materials."*

Approving this, HP 6 indicated that:

> *"Due to challenges such as overcrowded administrative and urgent works, in relation to the implementation of the two job functions of defining the school mission, in this year in our school, we framed the school goals highly by using needs assessment of teachers, students and parents, but communicated the school goals averagely in assemblies with school community members."*

In addition, HP 7, presented the following explanation:

> *"In our school, with regard to defining the school mission, we engaged better in framing the school goals and on average on communicating the school goals, on account of shortage of time and focusing on routine activities."*

Corroborating HP 7's opinion, HP 8, HP 9 and HP 10 described that, because of a lack of adequate time to implement IL; inadequate instructional resources and materials; and

large number of administrative tasks in their schools, they engaged highly in framing the school goals by involving teachers, students and parents, but moderately in communicating the school goals by discussing in different assemblies of school community, posting on notice boards and using banners.

Moreover, HP 2 stated that:

"According to my assessment, regarding the two job functions of defining the school mission, in my school, we have engaged fairly in frame the school goals and communicate the school goals because of urgent and huge administrative activities."

By the same token, HP 3 explained that:

"Amid various challenges which hinder high engagement in IL activities, in our school in connection with the two job functions of defining the school mission, we engaged comparatively higher in framing the school goals than communicating the school goals."

Likewise, HP 1 stated the following:

"As a principal of our school, on issues related to defining the school mission, along with my opinion, in collaboration with teachers we developed yearly school-wide goals and we tried to communicate the school's goals moderately to all members of the school community within high burdens of administrative works."

In sum, a good instructional leader tries to develop and clearly state a team's vision, mission and goals so that staff members may easily incorporate them into their everyday work. The phrase "framing the school's goals" refers to the principal's responsibility for selecting the areas of emphasis for those goals and the required resources. On the other hand, there are many other ways that principals can let stakeholders know what the school's goals are. However, the responses of all interviewed principals indicated some degree of similarity. There were high and

moderate engagement of the principals in their IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals and communicating the school goals, respectively. These findings support the quantitative results of the study.

ii. Sub-theme 2: Managing the instructional programme

The role of the principal in directing the school's curricula is the subject of the second dimension of the PIMRS IL model. Effective instructional leaders "are deeply involved in inspiring, supervising, and monitoring teaching and learning in the school," according to Hallinger (2013:15). Principals should be knowledgeable about teaching and learning and committed to enhancing the school's instructional programme in order to raise student accomplishment (e.g., Dwyer, 1986; Marshall, 1996). Curricular coordination and alignment are linked to effective IL; this happens when learning objectives for the classroom and school, curriculum resources, and assessments are closely related (Hallinger, 2013). Another sign of instructionally sound schools is cross-grade curriculum alignment, especially when teacher groups are given the chance to work together on instructional decisions (e.g., Clark, 2016; Cohen & Miller, 1981; Cooley & Leinhardt, 1980; Wellisch, MacQueen, Carriere & Duck, 1978). All students have the opportunity to learn the information on which they will be evaluated at the classroom and state levels, thanks to proper curriculum alignment (Martone & Sireci, 2009). The principal's main responsibility in supervising and evaluating instruction, according to Hallinger (2013:15), is to "make sure that the aims of the school are being translated into practice at the classroom level". Non-evaluative classroom observations and the accompanying instructional support offered to teachers play a significant part in the supervisory process in addition to official teacher evaluation (e.g., Levine, 1982; Lipham, 1981). The administrator must collaborate closely with the teachers in IL to help them develop the skills necessary to improve their work (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2012). Although they are required to oversee and support teachers as they offer learning opportunities to students, they are not expected to be experts in every subject area.

However, their content knowledge does influence how teachers view the value of their feedback (Marks & Printy, 2003; Tuytens & Devos, 2011). Teachers' practices may change as a result of principals' oversight of instruction, which will improve student learning and accomplishment (Supovitz, Sirinides & May, 2009). Effective IL relies heavily on data-driven decision-making and monitoring student progress. According to Hallinger (2013:16), data should be gathered and analysed to "identify programmatic and student flaws, to assess the results of changes in instructional programme of the school, and to aid in making classroom tasks".

Sub-theme 2 presents principals' self-assessment of their IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Accordingly, principals were asked to respond to the interview question: What are your current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model? Assess your practices in terms of managing the instructional programme. A summary of the participants' replies is presented below.

HP 5 indicated that:

> *"Surrounded by high administrative works and shortage of time to IL, as a principal of this school, IL practices on managing the instructional programme, according to my view, we ensured that teachers' classroom priorities are aligned with the school goals fairly, participated actively in the review of curricular materials, and tried to contact independently with teachers to discuss about academic progress of students."*

In supporting HP 5's opinion, HP 8 stated that:

> *"Concerning the engagement in the three job functions of managing the instructional programme, amid enormous administrative and urgent works, this year in my school, we, principals supervised and evaluated instruction by conducting ad hoc observations in classrooms on a steady basis that include on paper comments, coordinated the curriculum by making clea…. Vice-principals are responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels, and*

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monitored student progress by discussing academic performance results of students with the department to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses moderately."

Correspondingly, HP 9 said that:

"…As a principal of this school, I can put our engagements in managing the instructional programme as moderate in terms of the three job functions in supervising and evaluating instruction by conducting observations in classrooms and showing particular strong points and weak points in instructional practices of the teacher in post-observation comment, in coordinating the curriculum by checking the classroom curriculum includes the curricular objectives of the school, and in monitoring student progress by using assessment tools such as tests to measure progress toward school goals."

In confirming HP 9's view, HP 10 added that:

"In my school, about the two job functions of managing the instructional programme…we have had average engagements in supervising and evaluating instruction by inspecting academic outcomes of students while appraising classroom instruction, in coordinating the curriculum by evaluating the connection between the curricular objectives of the school and the achievement tests of the school, and in monitoring student progress by telling teachers about the performance results of the school in print form…."

In addition, HP 1, HP 2, HP 3, and HP 4 stated that, even though there are challenges like adequate time to implement IL and a large amount of administrative tasks in their schools, they engaged moderately in all the three job functions of managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction by monthly conducting formal supervisions in classrooms, in terms of coordinating the curriculum by involving in the evaluation of curricular materials such as student text book, and in terms of monitoring student progress by updating students of academic progress of the school.

Thus, HP 6 explained that:

"As a principal of our school, …on matters related to managing the instructional programme, according to my belief, in association with our teachers we ensured that classroom main concerns of teachers are adjacent to the goals of the school, we assessed the commonality between the curricular objectives of the school and the achievement tests of the school, and we discussed academic performance results of students with the department to recognise curricular weaknesses and strengths moderately inside various challenges that impede IL practices."

Furthermore, HP 7 said that:

"In connection with the three job functions of managing the instructional programme, in my school, within various challenges, we engaged relatively moderate in under taking observations in classrooms and showing specific strong points and weak points in instructional practices of the teacher in post-observation advice, monitoring the classroom curriculum comprises the curricular objectives of the school, and informing teachers of performance outcomes of the school in meetings."

In sum, effective instructional leaders are highly engaged in supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Principals should have expertise in teaching and learning and should be entrenched in the work of optimising instructional programme of the school to improve student achievement. However, the responses of all interview participant principals indicated only some degree of match and there was moderate engagement by the sampled school principals in their IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. These findings confirm the quantitative results of the study.

iii. Sub-theme 3: Developing a positive school learning climate

The school learning climate is the subject of the third dimension of the PIMRS framework. This component is founded on "the notion that effective schools produce a 'academic press' through the development of high standards and expectations and a culture that supports and rewards continuous learning and improvement" (Hallinger, 2013:16). The key to fostering student accomplishment is for principals to endeavor to create and uphold a secure and orderly atmosphere where learners are supported and encouraged to see themselves as learners (Bryk, 2010). The leadership of the principal affects how well teachers and students learn (James & McCormick, 2009). Students are more involved in their studies and perform better when they feel that the school environment is conducive to learning (Van Ryzin, 2011). The principal is responsible for safeguarding instructional time by creating and enforcing school-wide rules that permit the least number of disruptions to teacher instructional time, allowing teachers to effectively use their management and instructional skills with the fewest possible interruptions (e.g., Stallings, 1980; Wynne, 1980). A continuous learning environment that supports instructors and students is something that effective instructional leaders strive to establish (Alig-Mielcarek & Hoy, 2005). An effective instructional leader will actively participate in advocating, planning, or delivering PD that is in line with school objectives (e.g., Clark, 2016; Little, 1982). According to Bryk (2010:26), schools that are successful in raising students' test scores "[utilise] high-quality PD as a significant instrument for transformation". School administrators should encourage teachers to take use of official and informal learning opportunities to advance their careers (Parise & Spillane, 2010). According to Hallinger (2013:17), who discussed the importance of maintaining high visibility, "the circumstances in which the principal is visible offer one sign to teachers and pupils of their goals". Principals who prioritise work activities are more visible in the classrooms with teachers and students, which improves the quality of education and student behaviour (e.g., Brookover et al., 1988; Casey, 1980; Clark, 2016). When principals do casual classroom inspections, teachers tend to have a more favourable perception of the educational climate of the school (Ing, 2010). Additionally, Blasé and Blasé (2004) contend that principals' visibility and accessibility to students and teachers can be improved by classroom walk-throughs. Effective instructional leaders recognise that teachers are the school's greatest resource and reward

exceptional teaching when it comes to offering incentives for instructors (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Hallinger (2013) advises principals to routinely take advantage of opportunities to provide teachers genuine, merited praise. This is because Latham and Wexley (1981) found that money is only marginally more successful than admiration as a motivator. High performance is rewarded both internally and externally, which fosters job satisfaction (Locke & Lummis, 2014). Effective executives coordinate employee incentives with the company's mission and objectives (Priem & Rosenstein, 2000). In addition to receiving public praise, other methods of rewarding teachers include boosting their self-assurance, providing feedback, posing challenges through goal-setting and assigning them new duties (Locke, Edwin & Ass, 2001). By offering frequent opportunities for students to be rewarded and acknowledged for their academic achievement and improvement, instructional leaders can "create a school learning climate in which academic achievement is exceedingly appreciated by students" (Hallinger, 2013:17).

Sub-theme 3 presents principals' self-assessment of their IL practices with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Accordingly, principal participants were asked to respond to the interview question: What are your current and actual IL practices as defined by the PIMRS IL model? Assess your practices in terms of developing a positive school learning climate. A summary of the participants' replies is presented below.

HP 2 said that:

> "We, the principals of the school devote more time on activities of administration and urgent problems of teachers and students. But with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of its five job functions, we implemented each of them moderately, by controlling wastages of instructional time created by absence, late coming or early leaving of teachers from the classroom; by being visible in school compound, and around and inside classrooms; by praising teachers confidentially for their performance; by leading and attending in CPD

activities regarding teaching and learning; and by recognising students who do exceptional work with formal rewards two times annually."

Also, HP 4 described that:

"On subjects related to developing a positive school learning climate, along with my opinion as a principal of our school, within a lot of challenges, we restrained interruptions of instructional time by different announcements of the school, we took time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks, we acknowledged exceptional performance of teachers by writing letters, we ensured that school and individual CPD attended by teachers are aligned with goals of the school, and we used assemblies to acknowledge students for academic achievements or for good behaviour, comparatively."

In the same way, HP 5 indicated:

"Owing to huge administrative activities and unplanned tasks, according to my evaluation, regarding the five job functions of developing a positive school learning climate, in my school, we engaged partially in protecting the school's instructional time, supporting CPD implementation, and providing incentives two times annually for teachers."

Supporting HP 5's idea, HP 8 confirmed that:

"As a principal of this school, I can put our engagements in developing a positive school learning climate as intermediate in protecting instructional time by encouraging teachers to use instructional time for teaching only, in maintaining high visibility by visiting classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students, in providing incentives for teachers by rewarding exceptional performance by teachers with chances for professional acknowledgement, in promoting PD by expending time at department gatherings for teachers to share ideas from CPD practices, and in providing incentives for students by contacting parents of students with exceptional academic achievements to communicate

improved performance due to shortage of budget, instructional resources and materials."

Similarly, HP 10 said:

"As a principal of our school, on points related to developing a positive school learning climate, according to my outlook, in teamwork with teachers we participated fairly in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities, we attended in CPD activities regarding teaching and learning partly, and we assisted teachers in their acknowledgement and reward of student performance in classroom, slightly."

Moreover, HP 1, HP 3, HP 6 and HP 9 stated that, within various challenges that hinder their high engagement in IL practices in their schools, they engaged moderately in all five job functions of developing a positive school learning climate. In this regard, HP 3 stated that:

"As a result of challenges such as unclear meanings of IL, large administrative works, lack of adequate time to implement IL, and inadequate training for principals, in this year in our school, with regard to developing a positive school learning climate, we engaged partially by involving teachers, students and parents; by giving tutorial classes to students; by rewarding exceptional performance by teachers; by expending time at department gatherings for teachers to share ideas from CPD practices; and by providing incentives for students twice annually."

Supporting HP 3's ideas, HP 7 described that:

"According to my opinion, we spend more time on administration and our IL activities are overwhelmed by our administrative works. However, we engaged moderately on issues related to developing a positive school learning climate by controlling wastages of instructional time; by taking time to talk in a relaxed way with students and teachers during breaks; and by using meetings to recognise students for their academic achievements and for worthy conduct."

In sum, principals should work to develop and maintain a safe and organised environment where students are helped and directed to think of themselves as learners; this climate is vital for encouraging achievement of the student. The leadership of the principal influences the learning environment for teachers and students. However, the responses of all the principals indicated some degree of similarity with moderate engagement of sample school principals in their IL practices with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Moreover, these findings support the quantitative results of the study.

In conclusion of Theme 2, according to the interview data collected from the principals, principals engaged highly and moderately on IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals and communicating the school goals, respectively; moderately with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and moderately with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives.

5.5.3.3 Theme 3: Perceptions and assessments of supervisors about IL practices of principals in their schools

RQ 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals?

According to Mason (2013), the supervisor's role has historically moved back and forth from a centre of attention on instruction to administration and back to instructional practices. Unfortunately, supervisors are required to give little consideration to instruction, so concentration can be aimed at administrating a political environment that comprises working with numerous stakeholders, the MoE, and trustees. This can be hard to do when one believes that value for leaders of the district has been damaged as the job has assumed added challenges, for instance, enhanced requirements of

accountability (Mason, 2013). Successful supervisors are said to be very important to the achievement of any enhancement endeavor (Byrd, Drews & Johnson, 2006). The supervisor's role has grown over the years to comprise an unquestionable expectation by stakeholders that they be at the forefront of efforts associated with achievement of the students. According to Castagnola (2005), to make gains in curriculum and instruction a school will not see success without the active participation of the supervisor. School districts with better performance of the students have supervisors who are intimately involved in curriculum and instruction programmes. Byrd et al. (2006) additionally elucidated that supervisors that experience achievement is vigorously engaged with evaluating instructional activities and areas that need particular focus.

This part of the sub-section addresses the following interview question: How do you perceive the current and actual IL practices of principals in your school? Assess their IL practices in terms of the three dimensions and 10 job functions of the PIMRS IL model. Accordingly, the interview question was addressed below in terms of the three dimensions of the PIMRS IL model.

i.   Sub-theme 1: Defining the school mission

Sub-theme 1 presents the supervisors' assessment of IL practices of principals in their schools with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals. Accordingly, supervisors were asked to respond to the interview question: How do you perceive the current and actual IL practices of principals in your school? Assess their IL practices in terms of defining the school mission. A summary of the participants' answers is presented below.

RS 1described that:

> *"This year in our school, principals practiced moderately IL activities with regard to the two job functions of defining the school mission, in which they framed the school goals by using needs assessment of teachers, students and parents, and communicated the school goals in assemblies with school community members. They work within major challenges of overloaded administrative and unscheduled works."*

Similarly, RS 3 stated that even though there are challenges like adequate time to implement IL and a large number of administrative tasks in her school, principals engaged moderately in the two job functions of defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals by developing yearly school goals and in terms of communicating the school goals by discussing them with teachers, students and parents.

RS 4 said:

> *"According to my view, if the school goals are obviously framed and communicated to all school stakeholders, and specially teacher, students and parents, then high engagement of principals in their IL practices will be enhanced. Along with my judgement, principals in my school, IL practices regarding the two job functions of defining the school mission, they engaged moderately in framing the school goals and communicating the school goals as a consequence of inadequate time to IL practices and focusing more on administrative works."*

Supporting RS 4's idea, RS 6 indicated that:

> *"As a resident supervisor of our school, on the topic of defining the school mission, in accordance with my opinion, principals developed yearly school goals and they made an effort to communicate the school's goals moderately to parents, students and teachers inside enormous administrative tasks."*

Similarly, RS 7 explained that:

> *"Our school framed its annual goals in collaboration with teachers, supervisor, students and parents; and principals communicated the goals to all the stakeholders of education in the school using different ways such as banners and brochures. Concerning to the assessment of principals on their IL practices in relation to defining the school mission in terms of the two job functions; as a resident supervisor, I put them on moderate engagement. However, the main*

challenges that deter high engagement were shortage of time to IL practices and lack of accountability requirements on part of the principals and teachers."

Confirming RS 7's idea, RS 8 stated that:

"According to my assessment, principals in our school engaged comparatively medium in the two job functions of defining the school mission: framing and communicating the school goals. However, these performances were accompanied by various challenges which hinder high engagement in IL activities."

In sum, the responses of all the supervisors indicated some degree of similarity and there were moderate engagements of sample school principals on their IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals. These findings supported the quantitative results of the study.

ii. Sub-theme 2: Managing the instructional programme

Sub-theme 2 presents supervisors' assessment of IL practices of principals in their schools with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. Accordingly, resident supervisor participants were asked to respond to the interview question: How do you perceive the current and actual IL practices of principals in your school? Assess their IL practices in terms of managing the instructional programme. A summary of the participants' replies is presented below.

RS 2 said that:

"Managing the instructional programme is the backbone of teaching and learning in the school, because it contains curriculum, instruction, and assessment, and it helps in the accomplishments of the other dimensions of IL.... it requires high engagement of principals and other role players of IL, and if it is not practised properly, all the school goals will not be achieved. Regarding the engagement in the three job functions of managing the instructional programme. This year in my school, all the principals supervised and evaluated instruction, coordinated the

curriculum, and monitored student progress moderately, within many challenges."

Supporting RS 2's idea, RS 3 stated that she understood that managing the instructional programme establishes the major purpose of the school. She further agreed that managing the instructional programme comprises all the classroom practices, curriculum implementation, instructional practices of the teacher, and assessment of students, and via managing the instructional programme, the school goals can be changed in to reality. Moreover, she explained that managing the instructional programme enhances the academic achievement of the students. Accordingly, she put the principals' engagement in managing the instructional programme in her school as average.

Likewise, RS 5 said that:

"School principals who dedicate ample time on IL practices, specially managing the instructional programme will realise the school goals, and finally enhanced academic achievement of students. With regard to the three job functions of managing the instructional programme, in our school, principals engaged relatively moderate in conducting monthly classroom observations, checking the curriculum encompasses the curricular objectives of the school, and discussing academic performance results of students with teachers, students themselves, and parents."

In the same way, RS 7, explained that:

"Inside numerous challenges that hamper IL practices, as a supervisor of this school, IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme, according to my trust, principals in association with teachers conducted unscheduled classroom observations*, they made clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels, and they discussed academic*

performance results of students with the teachers in each department moderately."

Corroborating RS 7's opinion, RS 9 stated that:

"On managing the instructional programme, in this school, according to my observation, principals engaged averagely in supervising and evaluating instruction, in coordinating the curriculum, and in monitoring student progress."

In sum, the responses of all the supervisors indicated that some degree of similarity in stating that there was moderate engagement of principals on their IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress. These findings are also close to the quantitative results of the study.

iii. Sub-theme 3: developing a positive school learning climate

Sub-theme 3 presents supervisors' assessment of IL practices of principals in their schools with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Accordingly, supervisors were invited to respond to the interview question: How do you perceive the current and actual IL practices of principals in your school? Assess their IL practices in terms of developing a positive school learning climate. Summary of the participants' replies are presented in this way.

RS1 described that:

"Developing a positive school learning climate is vital for promoting teachers' engagement in their instructional practices and learning and achievement of students. According to my view, principals' IL activities were overwhelmed by their administrative and routine works. Consequently, they were not highly engaged on matters linked to developing a positive school learning climate by regulating wastages of instructional time; by talking with students and teachers during breaks; and by monitoring academic achievements of students."

Supporting RS 1's view, RS 2 stated that principals should work to progress and maintain a secure and regular environment where teachers and students recognise themselves as teachers and learners, respectively. He further revealed that developing a positive school learning climate is the principals' duty but that principals were not highly engaged with it because of the challenges that impeded high engagement in their IL practices.

Likewise, RS 4 added that:

> "With regard to developing a positive school learning climate, when teachers and students perceive the school climate to be positive, they are more engaged in their teaching and learning, respectively and attain the school goals, in this school, principals engaged partially by participating the key stakeholders in the school; by giving tutorial classes to students; by rewarding exceptional performance by teachers; by sharing ideas from CPD practices at department gatherings of teachers; and by offering incentives for students two times yearly."

Correspondingly, RS 6 said that:

> "The leadership of principal influences the teaching and learning environment for teachers and students, respectively. On points associated with developing a positive school learning climate, according to my view as a supervisor of this school, principals participated averagely in co-curricular and extra-curricular activities, they supported and participated in CPD activities, and they helped teachers in their incentives for outstanding student performance."

Similarly, RS 8 explained that:

> "As a supervisor of this school, I can put principals engagements in developing a positive school learning climate as moderate in all the five job functions by fostering teachers to expend time of instruction for teaching only, by visiting classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students, by rewarding remarkable performance by teachers with chances for professional acknowledgement, by expending time at department assemblies for teachers to

share ideas from CPD practices, and by communicating parents of students with exceptional academic achievements."

Confirming RS 8's outlook, RS 10 stated that:

"Principals should work with all key stakeholders in school and give focus to enhance their IL practices. In my view, developing a positive school learning climate works good in enhancing teacher motivation and enhances the performance of teachers and students. On account of huge administrative and routine works, according to my evaluation, regarding the five job functions of developing a positive school learning climate, in this school, principals engaged somewhat in protecting the instructional time of the school, facilitating CPD execution, and offering incentives twice yearly for teachers."

In sum, the responses of all the supervisors showed that some extent of resemblance and there were moderate engagements of sampled school principals on their IL practices with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Moreover, these qualitative findings corroborate the quantitative results of the study.

In conclusion of theme 3, according to the interview data collected from the supervisors, principals in their schools engaged moderately in IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives.

RQ 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of principals in AACA?

5.5.3.4 Theme 4: Differences in principals' self-perceptions and supervisors' perceptions with current and actual IL practices of principals.

The quantitative results indicated that principals' self-perceptions on their IL practices were significantly different from the perceptions of teachers and supervisors. To reach a conclusion on this issue, the researcher felt the need to compare the extent of differences or similarities found in the quantitative phase to the perceptions of principals and supervisors on IL practices of principals in their interview sessions. This part of the sub-section addresses the following interview question by principals: How do you assess the differences between your self-perception as principal with your supervisor's perception with your IL practices? How do you explain it? Accordingly, the participant principals were asked to assess the differences between their self-perceptions as principals with supervisors' perceptions on their IL practices in their schools. The major reasons given by principals were:

- The inconsistency may be due to the lack of common knowledge (understanding) and adequate information regarding the meaning and implementation of IL in the school;
- The differences may be because of inadequate support from supervisors and inconvenient work environment;
- The differences may be because of high expectations of supervisors, differences in expectations between the principals and their supervisors, and lack of adequate information on principals' IL practices;
- The differences may be because of inadequate school facilities and instructional materials;
- The differences may be because of non-recognition of challenges that impede IL practices of principals by supervisors;
- The differences may be because of unfair views and judgements of supervisors about the IL practices of principals; and
- The reason for differences may be because of bias on the side of supervisors.

This part of the sub-section also addresses the following interview question by supervisors: How do you assess the differences between your perceptions as a supervisor with principals' self-perceptions on their IL practices in your school? How do you explain them? Accordingly, the supervisors were asked to assess the differences between their perceptions as supervisors with principals' self-perceptions on IL practices of principals in their schools. The major reasons given by the supervisors were:

- The differences may be because of principals' inadequate motivation and commitment to develop skills and knowledge with regard to IL;
- The differences may be because of insufficient training opportunities that make principals unable to develop self-directed decision-making capacity;
- The differences may be because principals have low morale;
- The differences may be because of the tendency of principals to focus more on administrative, routine and urgent activities;
- The differences may be because some principals hesitate to delegate authority or to implement shared leadership;
- The differences may be because of principals' incapability to engage the staff members in decision-making;
- The differences may be due to principals' lack of confidence to make decisions on their leadership tasks for a range of managerial problems; and
- The differences may be due to inadequate collaboration between principals, teachers and supervisors.

In conclusion of theme 4, various reasons for the differences between principals' self-perceptions and supervisors' perceptions on principals IL practices in their schools were put by principals and supervisors. It is essential to distinguish differences in perceptions on IL practices of principals in order to enhance IL practices that positively impact the instructional practices of teachers, and the academic achievement of students. In doing so, all the role players of IL (principals, teachers, and supervisors) should work together to create relatively congruent perceptions towards their IL practices for the high engagement of principals in their IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model.

Furthermore, incongruencies in perceptions are quite helpful in identifying challenges principals experience while practising IL activities and in collaboration to search possible solutions. Hence, identifying all the reasons for differences in perceptions of role players on IL practices of principals would have a major impact on the engagement of principals in their IL practices.

5.5.3.5 Theme 5: Challenges principals experience while engaging themselves in IL activities

RQ 4: What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging themselves in IL activities?

According to Malishan (1990), the challenges to IL are circumstances or behaviour issues that have been acknowledged as assisting to hinder IL practices of principals. The study conducted by Mason (2013) revealed that there are major challenges to the ability of principal to effectively practice IL. The effective execution of IL requires well-organised schools in terms of expending human, material, financial and other associated resources. In this study, depending on the context of each sampled school, a variety of challenges principals experience while practising IL were mentioned by participants during their interview sessions. However, most of the challenges that hinder the high engagement of public secondary school principals in their IL practices in AACA are shared among all sampled schools. The extent to which these challenges obstruct the IL practices in each sampled school can be determined by the capability of the principal to engage in diverse activities of IL.

This part of the sub-section addresses the following interview questions: for principals "What challenges do you experience while practising IL activities currently as a principal? Mention some of the challenges?" and for supervisors "What challenges do principals in your school experience while practising IL activities currently? Mention some of the challenges". Accordingly, both principals and supervisors were invited to respond to the above interview questions. A summary of the participants' replies are presented in this way.

HP 1 said that:

"*According to my view, the major challenges that hinder the high engagement of us in our IL practices are unclear meanings of IL; lack of adequate time to implement IL; inadequate instructional resources and materials; lack of manuals and guidelines to implement IL; and inadequate subject area knowledge of principals*".

In support of the reply of HP1, RS 1 stated that some of the challenges that impede directly or indirectly the high engagement of principals in their IL practices are lack of adequate time to implement IL; vague meanings of IL; insufficient subject area knowledge of principals; lack of manuals and guidelines to implement IL; inadequate instructional resources and materials; non-functionality of school facilities such as laboratories and pedagogical centres; and wrong recruitment and selection criteria for principalship position.

Besides this, HP 2 and HP 3 were requested to indicate whether there were additional challenges that obstructed the high engagement of principals in their IL practices. They indicated the following challenges: lack of the required experience for the principalship position; poor cooperation between teachers and principals; inadequate training for teachers and principals with regard to IL; principals' lack of adequate skills and knowledge of IL; lack of budget for training; and Covid-19 pandemic.

Here again, RS 3 provided his viewpoint by saying:

"Yes, there are lots of challenges that minimise the engagement of principals in their IL, according to my view, the major ones are inadequate training for teachers and principals with regard to IL; poor cooperation between teachers and principals; low commitments of principals on their IL; inadequate support for teaching and learning on part of parents; lack of community participation; absenteeism, late coming and early leaving of teachers from classrooms; students' lack of interest towards learning; students' disciplinary problems; absenteeism and late coming of students; and Covid-19 pandemic."

In corroborating this, RS 5 included that:

"Principals in my school did not highly engage in IL activities. Some of the major challenges which contributed for their average engagement are inadequate commitments on part of principals; poor cooperation between teachers and principals; lack of community participation; inadequate support from other role players; low teachers' commitments in the classrooms; students' low interest towards learning; students' disciplinary problems; and Covid-19 pandemic."

Another interviewee, RS 6 established this by saying:

"Principals, especially head principals are focused more on overall management of the school, and they are highly committed to administrative works rather than to IL. In addition, lack of budget for training; inadequate training for teachers and principals with regard to IL; poor job motivation of teachers; inadequate pedagogical knowledge of principals; lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents; lack of autonomy of public schools; external interference from the sub-city education offices; and lack of effective stakeholders' support have significant contribution in deterring high engagement of principals in their IL"

Similarly, HP 4, HP 5, HP 8, and HP 10 mentioned that lack of the required experience for the principalship position; lack of autonomy of public schools; inadequate training for teachers and principals with regard to IL; principals' lack of adequate skills and knowledge of IL; and lack of budget for training are the key challenges that hinder the high engagement of them in their IL practices. With regard to this, HP 8 explained that:

"In line with my opinion, the major challenges that hinder the high engagement of us in our IL practices are lack of adequate time to implement IL; lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents; spending larger time in routine activities; *workload of principals in administrative activities; poor job motivation of teachers; and inadequate pedagogical knowledge of principals".*

HP 6, HP 7, and HP 9 were requested to point out whether there were challenges that hindered the high engagement of them in their IL practices. They mentioned the

following challenges: principals' dissatisfactions due to low salaries as a result low motivation towards IL, lack of accountability requirements; shortage of budget for implementation of IL; and lack of autonomy and academic freedom of public schools.

Agreeing with opinions of HP 6, HP 7, and HP 9, RS 9 pointed out that:

> *"IL activities are not done as expected, because the principals are not accountable for what they did, they are not highly interested to implement IL, and are not highly committed to use all human and material resources effectively to accomplish IL. Moreover, challenges like lack of autonomy and academic freedom of public schools; budget constraints; inadequate support from us and other experts at city and sub-city level contributed for average engagement of principals in their IL practices."*

Likewise, RS 10 reacted in this manner:

> *"There are problems that constraint high engagement of principals in their IL practices. Some of these problems originated from principals themselves such as devoting much time on routine and managerial activities, lack of commitment on principals' side and creating a negative learning environment; and others are originated from the education policy and system such as lack of adequate budget to run IL, inadequate instructional resources and materials, and incorrect recruitment and selection criteria for principalship."*

Furthermore, the majority of the supervisors stated that: lack of commitment on the part of teachers as well as principals; principals give less attention for their instructional roles; lack of accountability requirements of principals; and wrong recruitment and selection criteria for principalship position; working out of the daily plan on part of principals; lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents; poor cooperation between teachers and principals; low interest of teachers towards profession; poor teacher job motivation; and using teaching as a bridge to go to other professions are challenges that impeded the high engagement of principals in IL practices in their schools.

In conclusion of theme 5, according to the answers of the principals and supervisors, there were numerous challenges which directly or indirectly impede the high engagement of principals in their IL practices. However, the major ones were: unclear meanings of IL; lack of adequate time to implement IL; inadequate instructional resources and materials; lack of manuals and guidelines to implement IL; wrong recruitment and selection criteria for principalship position; inadequate training for principals and teachers with regard to IL; lack of budget for training; lack of accountability requirements of principals; workload of principals in administrative activities; lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents; poor cooperation between teachers and principals; lack of autonomy and academic freedom of public schools; inadequate subject area and pedagogical knowledge of principals; and poor teacher job motivation. All the challenges stated above show that all the role players in IL in schools should design possible solutions to address the challenges in collaboration with other external concerned bodies.

RQ 5: What possible solutions can be advised that contribute for the high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

5.5.3.6 Theme 6: Possible solutions forwarded to the challenges

This part of the sub-section addresses the following interview questions: for principals "As a principal, what possible solutions can you suggest that contribute for the enhancement of IL practices of principals, including you?" and for supervisors "As a supervisor, what possible solutions can you suggest that contribute for the enhancement of IL practices of principals in your school?" A summary of the participants' replies is presented below.

The following possible solutions were forwarded by principals and supervisors:

- Increasing the time required for IL and minimise the workload of principals in administrative activities;
- Allocating adequate budget for IL training and practice for principals;
- Arranging continuous training and capacitation programmes for principals and teachers on IL;

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- Using a scheduled time allocation on part of principals;
- Supplying principals with required instructional resources and materials to engage highly in their IL practices;
- Using clear and consistent definitions of IL on the part of principals;
- Preparing manuals and guidelines for principals to implement their IL practices;
- Promoting and applying rational and transparent recruitment and selection criteria for principalship positions in public secondary schools;
- Empowering principals to be experts in their subject areas and pedagogical knowledge;
- Establishing clear accountability requirements for learning and academic achievement of students;
- Encouraging teachers, principals, students and parents by timely incentives and rewards;
- Maintaining strong cooperation with teaching and non-teaching staff on part of principals;
- Letting public schools to be autonomous and academically free institutions in order to implement their core business, teaching and learning; and
- Motivating teachers for their outstanding job functions done.

In conclusion of theme 6, numerous ways of minimising challenges to high engagement principals in their IL practices were forwarded by interview participants, because it is essential to enhance instructional support for teachers by principals, and the resultant academic achievements of students. In doing so, principals should allocate a large portion of their school time to IL practices as described by PIMRS IL model. Moreover, IL practices of principals are very useful in identifying instructional difficulties in the classroom and to search for possible solutions in collaboration with the teachers. Thus, addressing all the aforementioned challenges would have a main influence on the high engagement of principals with their IL practices.

5.5.3.7 Theme 7: Recommendations advised as strategies for high engagement principals in their IL practices.

RQ 6: What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

This part of the sub-section addresses the following interview questions: for principals "As a principal, what recommendations can you make that may serve as strategies for IL practices of principals, including you in AACA?" and for supervisors "As a supervisor, what recommendations can you make that may serve as strategies for IL practices of principals in AACA?" A summary of the participants' answers is presented below.

As strategies for IL practices of principals in AACA, the following recommendations were made by principals and supervisors. AACAEB should:

- provide adequate time for principals to engage highly and actively in IL activities;
- introduce continuous training via PD workshops and seminars for principals, teachers and supervisors;
- give first place for the appointment of principals with formal qualifications in school leadership;
- reconsider the execution of NPSSP in every public school within the city;
- arrange incentive and reward programmes to motivate teachers, principals, students and parents; and
- allocate adequate budget, other resources and materials for IL.

5.5.4 Data obtained from document review checklists

In this study, documents were used as secondary sources of data and a number of relevant school-based and FDRE MoE documents used by the principals in each sampled schools during their IL practices were reviewed and discussed. These included school vision and mission statements, school goals, curricular and co-curricular implementation documents, yearly and daily lesson plans of teachers, instructional supervision and evaluation checklists and feedback given. Furthermore, documents on instructional schedules, attendance of teachers and students, instructional time-control

mechanisms, assessment of learning, CPD practices and portfolios, and teachers' and students' incentive strategies. These documents were reviewed to cross-check and support the correspondence between what respondents to the PIMRS surveys responded and participants in semi-structured interviews said and what they did in practice. The researcher found most of the relevant documents mentioned above which were used by the principals in each sampled schools in their IL practices during the academic years of 2020/21.

5.6 MIXING OF DATA OBTAINED FROM QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE PHASES

The purpose of the study was to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model. Accordingly, as indicated in sub-section 4.2.3 of Chapter 4, an explanatory sequential mixed methods design consisting of quantitative PIMRS questionnaires followed by qualitative semi-structured interviews, and documents reviews were used to gather data. After separate data gathering and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data sets, comparison and mixing of data were done.

The principals' IL practices were confirmed by both the quantitative data results and the qualitative data findings to be moderate. Defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning were the major roles of principals as instructional leaders measured for this study according to the PIMRS IL model.

The findings showed that, when compared to the other two aspects, there was greater engagement in defining the school mission in terms of articulating and expressing the school goals. The principal's responsibility in working with staff to make sure the school

has a clear mission, and that mission is focused on the academic achievement of its students is addressed in the first dimension of IL (Hallinger 2013). A good instructional leader strives to develop and explain a shared vision, mission, and goals that are simple and straightforward for staff members to implement into their everyday work (Hallinger, 2013). The principal's role in selecting the area of concentration for school goals and the necessary resources is represented by framing the school goals in terms of defining the school mission (Hallinger, 2013).

Effective instructional leaders collaborate with staff to create a manageable number of data-driven goals with clearly defined responsibilities and measurable outcomes based on the school's mission to improve student achievement (Lorei, 2015). Communicating the school goals is concerned with the ways in which the principal conveys the important goals of the school to teaching and non-teaching staff members, students, parents, and partners, because it is important to keep everyone informed.

Principals can communicate school goals to stakeholders in a variety of ways. In this study, both quantitative results and qualitative findings revealed that principals perceived that they engaged highly in framing the school goals, but in communicating the school goals engaged moderately, while teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in both framing and communicating the school goals as part of their IL practices. It can be concluded that, framing the school goals was done highly according to principals and moderately accordingly teachers and supervisors; and communicating the school goals was moderate, according to the three groups of respondents. However, high engagement of principals in their IL practices with regard to defining the school mission was expected.

With regard to managing the instructional programme, according to Hallinger (2013:23), the principal's primary duty in supervision and evaluation of instruction is to, "make sure that the goals of the school are being translated into practice at the classroom level". "IL needs the principal to work closely with teachers to practice the skills they need to enhance their work" (Bambrick-Santoyo, 2012:17). Principals' supervision of instruction can lead teachers to alter their teaching practices, thereby enhancing student learning and achievement (Supovitz, Sirinides & May, 2009). Coordinating the curriculum is

associated with effective IL; this occurs when school and classroom learning objectives, curriculum tools and assessments are aligned (Hallinger, 2013). Proper curriculum alignment ensures that all students have the chance to learn the material on which they will be assessed at the classroom and state level (Martone & Sireci, 2009); and in monitoring student progress, data-driven decision-making is a key component of effective IL. Hallinger (2013:16) recommends that data should be collected and analysed to, "identify programmatic and student flaws, to assess the results of changes in instructional programme of the school, and to aid in making classroom task". The study found that principals themselves, teachers, and supervisors perceived those principals engaged moderately in supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress as part of their IL practices. It can be concluded that supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress were done moderately, according to the three group of respondents. However, high engagement of principals in their IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme was also expected.

With regard to developing a positive school learning climate, protecting instructional time is up to the principal who needs to develop and enforce school-wide policies that allow for minimal interruptions to teacher instructional time so that teachers can effectively use their instructional and management skills with few disruptions (e.g., Stallings, 1980; Wynne, 1980). Principals who prioritise works to increase visibility in the classroom increase their interactions with teachers and students and positively impact instructional quality and student behaviour (e.g., Brookoveret al., 1988; Casey, 1980; Clark, 2016). Teachers tend to perceive the school instructional climate more positively when principals conduct informal classroom observations (Ing, 2010). Regarding providing incentives for teachers, Hallinger (2013) suggests that principals frequently take advantage of opportunities to provide meaningful, deserved praise to teachers. The external and internal rewards of high performance promote job satisfaction (Locke & Lummis, 2014). Effective leaders align staff incentives with the organisation's vision and goals (Priem & Rosenstein, 2000). In promoting PD, an effective instructional leader will be actively involved in planning or providing PD that is aligned with school goals (e.g., Clark, 2016; Little, 1982). By providing incentives for learning, instructional leaders can

"create a school learning climate in which academic achievement is exceedingly appreciated by students by offering recurrent chances for students to be rewarded and acknowledged for their academic achievement and enhancement" (Hallinger, 2013:17). The outcomes of both quantitative and qualitative data also confirmed that principals themselves, teachers and supervisors perceived those principals engaged moderately in protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learningas part of their IL practices. However, high engagement of principals in their IL practices with regard to developing a positive school learning climate was expected.

High engagement of school principals in their IL practices is a requirement for effective classroom instructional practices of teachers and academic success of students. Accordingly, to support teachers' instructional practices and the academic performances of students effectively, principals should engage highly in their IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning by allocating large portion of their school time for IL practices, working collaboratively with teachers in identifying instructional difficulties in the classrooms to search their possible solutions, and being responsible and accountable for the success and failure of school goals.

5.6.1 Research outcomes and alignment with the literature review

5.6.1.1 Self-perceptions and experiences of principals with their current and actual IL practices

RQ 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model), and what experiences do they have with them?

The results of the current study support the findings of Ahmad (2012); Bellibas (2015); Carson (2013); Hallinger and Murphy (1985); Harris (2014); Owens (2015); and Pettiegrew (2013) as to the significance of principals' self-perceptions and experiences on their IL practices. Ahmad (2012) indicated that excellent school principals in Aceh, Indonesia, practiced IL comprising of the three dimensions and 10 job functions, and principals rated 4.0 or higher showed that they frequently carried out the five job functions framing the school goals, communicating the school goals, coordinating curriculum, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Also, Bellibas (2015) showed that principals have particular focus to school goal development and problems of instruction, and that they were less likely to participate in direct classroom instructional supervision. Moreover, according to Carson (2013), all principals rated the job function of framing the school goals as the most important of the 10 job functions included within the three PIMRS IL dimensions. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) describe defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals as a major job function of IL. In addition, Harris (2014) indicated that principals accomplish practices related to defining the school mission at a much higher rate than their perceptions showed. Furthermore, Owens (2015) stated that principals rated their own IL practices highest for the PIMRS job function of framing the school goals, but rated themselves lowest on the job function of supervising and evaluating instruction. Furthermore, Pettiegrew (2013) revealed that both principals and teachers perceived framing the school goals as the most important IL behaviour.

5.6.1.2 Perceptions and assessments of other role players (teachers and supervisors) about IL practices of principals in their schools

RQ 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals?

The data from the current study supported the findings of Ahmad and Hussain (2013), Atkinson (2013), Diego (2013), Harris (2014), Horton (2013), Long (2008), and Owens (2015) as the perceptions of other role players (teachers and supervisors) on IL practices of principals in their schools. Ahmad and Hussain (2013) indicated that as

assessed by their teachers, principals of the excellent schools in Aceh, to certain extent, accomplished the second dimension of the IL: managing the instructional programme. Also, according to Atkinson (2013), principals' mean scores were the highest given by any of the three role groups and teachers' mean scores were the lowest among all role groups. Furthermore, according to Diego (2013), perceptions of teachers on the IL style of principals with regard to managing the instructional programme, school supervision, PD, and they meaningfully influenced student achievement. Moreover, Harris (2014) found that while principal beliefs concentrated deeply on practices related to managing instruction in the school, teachers perceived those principals engaged in these practices, mainly those related to instructional supervision and evaluation, less frequently than principals themselves assumed that they did. In addition, Horton (2013) found a significant relationship between teachers' perceptions of the IL behaviours of principals and self-efficacy of teachers, and teachers at very poor schools were assisted when principals framed and communicated the school goals. Long (2008) indicated that both teachers and education administrators perceived framing school goals as the most important job function of IL. Furthermore, according to Owens (2015), teachers assessed IL practices of their principals highest for the PIMRS job function of framing school goals.

5.6.1.3 Differences in principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors') perceptions with current and actual IL practices of principals

RQ 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of principals in AACA?

The data from the current study supported the findings of Gedifew (2014), Long (2008), Lyons (2010), and Smith (2007) on the differences (comparisons) between perceptions of principals and other role players in IL (teachers or supervisors) on IL practices of principals in their schools. According to Gedifew (2014), a difference was observed between the teachers' and a principal's perceptions on the definition of IL: the principal defined IL concentrated on the practices he had to undertake in improving instruction,

whereas teachers concentrated on personal characteristics to describe an instructional leader. Also, Long (2008) asserted that statistically significant differences occurred between education administrators and teachers in 7 out of 10 IL job functions. In addition, according to Lyons (2010), there were statistically significant differences between principals' and teachers' perceptions of IL behaviour of principals in the mean scores for some items. Moreover, Smith (2007) revealed that a statistically significant difference occurred between teacher perceptions and principal perceptions of the extent to which principals engaged in the 10 job functions of IL practices.

5.6.1.4 Challenges principals experience while engaging themselves in IL activities

RQ 4: What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging themselves in IL activities?

While executing their roles as instructional leaders, principals certainly faced some challenges that might halt or hinder their IL practices (Rahman, Tahir, Anis&Ali, 2020). The challenges to IL are circumstances or behavioural issues that have been acknowledged as hindering the IL practices of principals (Malishan, 1990). The study conducted by Mason (2013) reveals that there are major challenges to the ability of principals to effectively practice IL. However, the effective execution of IL requires well-organised schools in terms of expending human, material, financial and other associated resources. In this study, contingent on the context of each sampled school, a variety of challenges principals experienced while engaging themselves in IL practices can be mentioned by participants during their interview sessions. However, most of the challenges that hindered the high engagement of public secondary school principals in their IL practices in AACA were common to all sampled schools.

The findings from the interviews indicated that unclear meanings of IL, lack of adequate time to implement IL, workload of principals in administrative activities, and lack of budget for training with regard to IL were among the key challenges principals experience while engaging themselves in IL practices in AACA public secondary schools. Similarly, recent studies revealed that principals who aspire to be truly effective instructional leaders face numerous problems such as unclear and inconsistent

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definitions of IL, lack of adequate time to implement IL, too many demands on the time of principals, and movements for teacher empowerment (Abdullah, Ali, Mydin, & Amin, 2019; Atkinson, 2013; Geleta, 2015; Gowpall, 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 2013; Isaiah & Isaiah, 2014; Mason, 2013; Mestry, 2017; Musandu, 2018; Powell, 2017). Practically, principals' heavy workloads on administrative matters in school led to a lack of engagement in IL practices by principals (Abdullah, Ali, Mydin&Amin, 2019). Also, according to Geleta (2015:1), "principals are too pre-occupied in dealing with strictly administrative duties in their offices, leaving the instructional responsibilities in the hands of teachers alone". He further indicated that lack of clarity and consistency in the concept of IL had resulted in a challenge to practise it effectively. Moreover, an absence of understanding of IL makes it problematic for school principals to accomplish it (Isaiah &Isaiah, 2014). Gowpall (2015) revealed that school principals needed to have a clear understanding of what their IL roles entail in order to enact this role. In addition, difficulties for principals in managing the instructional programmes and coordinating the school's curriculum may be attributed to a heavy workload, lack of knowledge to lead their schools, busy schedules, and the school structures which have numerous layers (Hallinger & Murphy, 2013). Furthermore, according to Mason (2013), dealing with emergent issues and financial limitations were found to be the most substantial challenges to IL practices of principals. Furthermore, in harmony with Mason, Mestry (2017) indicated that the days of school principals are usually plagued with diverse administrative and management functions such as procuring resources; managing learner discipline; dealing with unexpected teacher and learner crises; and resolving conflicts with parents, and these are manifestations that they are faced with new demands, more complex decisions and additional responsibilities than ever before. Musandu (2018) further indicated that principals give more focus to administrative tasks because they perceive themselves as administrators and not as instructional leaders. What is more, Powell (2017) depicted that the trouble with time is dual: there is inadequate time in the day of a principal to carry out the expected instructional tasks, and certain tasks take too much time, impeding principals from focusing on other duties.

Regarding inadequate training for principals and teachers in IL, the finding from the interviews indicated that inadequate training for principals and teacher in IL was a key

challenge principals experienced while engaging in IL practices in AACA public secondary schools. Likewise, recent research confirmed that inadequate training of principals for IL causes a big problem to effective IL practices of school principals (Atkinson, 2013; Musandu, 2018; Rahman et al., 2020). Moreover, according to Atkinson (2013), IL skills of principals are not as highly developed as other skills; principals who desire to be effective instructional leaders are deterred by insufficient training. Furthermore, Rahman et al. (2020) revealed that secondary school principals faced two main challenges: the internal and external challenges. Internally, senior principals were confronted with their inadequate knowledge and experience on IL which reduced their roles as instructional leaders and as a resource person to all teachers. Externally, principals encountered challenges with negative attitudes of teachers and parents, and little monitoring by the stakeholders of the school. In addition, a noteworthy obstacle is a lack of adequate training and skills and assumed as limited experience associated with IL practices particularly on how to execute their roles effectively (Hallinger & Murphy, 2013). Also, according to Hussien (2019), lack of commitment and PD opportunities for the leadership, resistance to accepting pedagogical roles, low participation of stakeholders and lack of support from local political leaders were challenges to properly carryout IL activities. Furthermore, there was a lack of adequate training on IL of newly selected or novice principals who had insufficient experience, knowledge and skills on how to be effective instructional leaders in schools (Wieczorek & Manard, 2018).

With regard to inadequate instructional resources and materials, and lack of manuals and guidelines to implement IL, the findings from the interviews indicated that inadequate instructional resources and materials, and lack of manuals and guidelines to implement IL were major challenges principals experience while engaging themselves in IL practices in AACA public secondary schools. In the same way, the recent studies established that, lack of educational funding and resources, shortage of resources for instructional practices, and lack of guiding manuals to support teachers were reasons for challenge to effective IL practices of school principals (Hussien, 2019; Gowpall, 2015; Powell, 2017; Scott, 2017). Hussien (2019) also indicated that lack of adequate facilities and resources, shortage of budget, and low financial support were challenges

to properly practice IL activities. Furthermore, according to Scott (2017), principals exposed some challenges while implementing IL; for example, lack of financial support and resources, lack of educational resources and high turnover of teachers. Inaddition, the running of an instructional programme takes numerous resources and this takes money (Powell, 2017). Moreover, according to Gowpall (2015), the majority of principles articulated their worry concerning the shortage of resources in their schools, and they require sufficient resources with the intention of implementing IL effectively. Additionally, the malfunction of the Department of Education to provide schools with resources is another obstacle that deters the effective execution of IL (Gowpall, 2015). Similarly, other earlier studies revealed that shortage of resources for instructional practices and lack of guiding manuals to support teachers by engaging in IL are challenges faced by principals as effective instructional leaders (Atkinson, 2013; Mason, 2013; Musandu, 2018).

The findings from the interviews indicated that lack of accountability requirements of principals and autonomy of public schools were major challenges principals experience while engaging themselves in IL practices in AACA public secondary schools. Similarly, the current climate in education has renewed an interest in public school accountability and principals are under increased pressure to achieve performance outcomes (Mason, 2013). In addition, Musandu (2018) revealed that principals and other school leaders are commonly not accountable for effectiveness of their schools and the academic achievement of their students. Mason (2013) further mentioned that accountability requirements and working with reluctant staff members were found to be the most substantial challenges to IL practices of principals. Autonomy and accountability of the school are two constituents of school-based management that complement each other to rise the working and pedagogical effectiveness of schools (Barrera & Patrinos, 2009). Schools can become accountable to their clients, namely their students and their families, if they have adequate working autonomy to manage their human resources and financial, as a result, increase the chance of enhancing learning of students (Barrera & Patrinos, 2009). According to OECD (2011), students tend to perform better in countries where schools have greater autonomy over what is taught and how students are assessed. Also, schools that enjoy greater autonomy in resource allocation

and curriculum and assessments tend to show better student performance than those with less autonomy in countries where schools account for their results by posting achievement data publicly, and in countries where there are no such accountability measures, schools with greater autonomy in resource allocation have a tendency to perform poorly (OECD, 2011). In supporting the above ideas, according to Arcia, Patrinos, Porta and Macdonald (2010), accountability and autonomy harmonise: greater autonomy in decisions regarding curricula, assessments and resource allocation tend to be related with enhanced student performance, particularly when schools work within an ethos of accountability.

With reference to inadequate incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents, the majority of interview participants mentioned that lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents created a severe obstacle in the engagement of principals in their IL practices. The successful engagement of principals in their IL needs consistent incentive and reward programmes for outstanding teachers, principals, students and parents who are effective in their respective duties. Lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents causes the outstanding teachers and effective students to be discouraged and inconsistent in their motivation to go in the track. The school and other concerned bodies should play a crucial role in motivating and encouraging all the stakeholders in the school to stand out in their tasks. The enhancement of effective teaching and learning is, therefore, highly compromised when there is a lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents. The findings of interview data revealed that nearly all of the participants are perceived to lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents can be challenges for IL practices of principals. Similarly, recent studies have indicated that those principals who aspire to be truly effective instructional leaders face numerous challenges like lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals and students (Ayele, 2018; Chakandinakira, 2016; Muralidharan & Sundararaman, 2008). Also, Ayele (2018) indicated that one the major challenges that has affected principal leadership and running of evening education in public secondary schools of AACA was a lack of incentives for teachers and students. Moreover, Muralidharan and Sundararaman (2008) confirmed that teacher and student incentives

influence instructional practices of teachers and learning of students, while students in incentivised schools achieve substantially better than those in schools which are not. In supporting Muralidharan and Sundararaman (2008), Chakandinakira (2016) revealed that enhancing motivation of teachers via school-based incentives was vital to enhanced achievement of students, and a lack of a correctly planned system of incentives was seen as negatively affecting instructional support of principal, teacher motivation and student achievement.

The findings from the interviews indicated that poor cooperation between teachers and principals was major challenge principals experience while engaging themselves in IL practices in AACA public secondary schools. Similarly, Babaoglan (2010) found that the relationship between teachers and their principals had a significant impact on the leadership of the principals. Also, Fatima, Akhtar and Begum (2020) suggested that teacher support has a significant impact on their relationships with their principals, and the achievement of educational goals of the schools. Furthermore, Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2012) revealed that a positive relationship between the supportive leadership behaviours of the principals and the trust of teachers had significant impact on the general leadership of principals. In the same way, the actions of the school principals, such as support for teachers and their mutual relationship, had a significant influence on the teachers' instructional performance and commitment to the school (Fatima, et al., 2020). According to Hallinger (2011), principals' leadership has a substantial influence on the teachers' work output and can either make or damage the teacher whatever the context may be. If the leader is effective, the followers flourish; however, if the leader is ineffective, the followers suffer.

Pertaining to incorrect recruitment and selection criteria for principalship positions, the finding from the interviews indicated that this was a key challenge that principals experienced while engaging themselves in IL practices in AACA public secondary schools. Similarly, recent research showed that incorrect recruitment and selection criteria for principalship positions presented a challenge to effective IL practices of school principals (Admassie, 2017; Hussien, 2019; Price & Clark, 2011). Moreover, Hussien (2019) indicated that in the selection of school principals fo rprincipalship

positions, political affiliation and membership were emphasised by the government. He further pointed out that, in the application of the prescribed criteria, there was little fairness and transparency. Furthermore, Price and Clark (2011) showed that the promotion of incompetent teachers to principalship posts is the result of the interference of unions in promotional posts. Moreover, Price and Clark (2011) indicated that, in numerous areas such as subject content knowledge to pedagogical methods and classroom management, these teachers are not well-prepared for their tasks. Furthermore, in Zimbabwe, without prior formal training in school leadership, school leaders are commonly appointed based on their teaching experience and the country does not have obligatory school leadership programmes; the school administrators' handbook does not create the condition any better for school leaders who lack proper training in IL (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013). Additionally, Admassie (2017) indicated that principals in AACA were not appointed on merit basis and such appointments spoil the associations between principals and teachers. Admassie (2017) further stated that appointments based on unclear criteria without considering an individual's leadership capabilities and qualifications were bound to fail.

Concerning inadequate subject area and pedagogical knowledge of principals, the findings from the interviews indicated that inadequate subject area and pedagogical knowledge of principals were among the major challenges principals experience while engaging themselves in IL practices in AACA public secondary schools. Similarly, recent studies confirmed that inadequate subject area and pedagogical knowledge of principals are a challenge to high engagement of principals in their IL practices (Bellibas, 2015; Chen & Cheng, 2017; Manaseh, 2016; Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013; Stein & Nelson, 2003). Also, Chen and Cheng (2017) recognised that, it is an impossible task for a principal to be an effective instructional leader in all the areas of the curriculum, given the unique nature of subjects accessible in secondary schools and the straightforward line between knowledge in different academic disciplines. Moreover, according to Bellibas (2015), due to lack of subject-matter knowledge, some of the school leaders often find it problematic to carry out a number of their IL roles effectively. On top of that, most principals, particularly of secondary schools, are considered to be lacking the relevant subject-matter knowledge; consequently, they lacked the required

knowledge or expertise for carrying out IL (Stein & Nelson, 2003). Bellibas (2015) further mentioned that most of the principals recognised that they had a lack of subject area knowledge for a few of the subjects; therefore, in their classroom observation, they concentrated more on classroom management skills and lesson planning. Additionally, according to Mapolisa and Tshabalala (2013), some of the teachers did not believe in their principals' ability to engage in IL activities that encourage effective teaching and learning as a result of the lack of subject-matter knowledge in some of the subjects, and such an attitude on the part of the teachers can be extremely detrimental to the IL practices of principals. Correspondingly, Manaseh (2016) found that teachers and principals agreed that the principals' involvement in classroom observation a side issue and does not provide assistance to teachers, on account of inadequate pedagogical knowledge.

Bennell and Akyeampong (2007) defined teacher motivation as "a state of being impacted by material and psychological factors which may provoke vitality (or reluctances) in realisations related to teaching". The role of a school principal is to make their teachers' lives easier so that they can teach, and students can learn. The findings from the interviews indicated that poor teacher job motivation was one of the major challenges principals experienced while engaging themselves in IL practices in AACA public secondary schools. Similarly, a teacher who is not happy with their work can develop poor relationships with students which can have a negative influence on the general effectiveness of a school (Nyam & William-west, 2014). Also, Adjei and Amofa (2014) confirmed that salaries and wages, acknowledgement for good work done, involvement in decision-making and a favorable working environment were the key factors that influenced teacher motivation, and teacher motivation can have a major impact on principals' leadership. The teachers ranked wages and salaries as their most important motivational factors (Adjei & Amofa, 2014). Moreover, according to Eres (2011), a lack of motivation on the part of the teacher can also affect the leadership of the school. In supporting the above ideas, according to Agih (2015), teachers' lack of motivation has been evidenced in teacher reluctance to become involved in school work, poor attendance, late coming, non-stimulating and uncreative teaching, lack of interest in gatherings, and uncooperative attitudes when support is required. In addition,

recent studies have shown that the consequence of the IL challenge is not only a lack of support, commitment and budget but also poor motivation of teachers, lack of learning interest of students and poor involvement of parents (Belete, 2017; Bogale, 2018; Demissie, 2017; Gebreslassie, 2014). Hence, work motivation of teachers in the school is vital as it contributes to the effective IL practices of principals and the success of the teaching and learning in the school.

5.6.1.5 Possible solutions to challenges in the high engagement of principalsin their IL practices

RQ 5: What possible solutions can be advised that contribute to the high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

Even though numerous challenges to high engagement of public secondary school principals in their IL practices were acknowledged in the study, the following possible solutions were forwarded by principals and supervisors, which, if implemented appropriately, could have a positive effect by partly or completely minimizing the challenges acknowledged.

i.   Using clear and consistent definitions of IL

Gowpall (2015) revealed that school principals need to have a clear understanding of what their IL roles entail in order to enact this role. In relation to this, Bas (2012) recommended that, in order to apply IL behaviours better at their schools, principals should take continuous seminars and courses on IL.

The FDRE MoE in collaboration with AACAEB should prepare a framework for IL implementation which defines and describes IL clearly and consistently to all role players in IL (principals, teachers, and supervisors) to facilitate a common understanding. Moreover, AACAEB should arrange continuous seminars and courses on IL for all role players of IL.

ii. Increasing the time required for IL and minimising workload of principals in administrative activities

Moreover, Marshall (2008) recommended that principals find their time dominated by actions that are urgent but not essential. The problem of time can only be addressed when school leaders regard IL as a shared/ distributed job. Jenkins (2009: 37) argues: "if principals are to take the role of instructional leader seriously, they will have to free themselves from bureaucratic tasks and focus their efforts toward improving teaching and learning".

In this study, all participants in the interviews (principals and supervisors) repeatedly insisted that the lack of available time was a major challenge which had a negative influence on the principals' capabilities to be effective instructional leaders. Accordingly, they forwarded the following possible solutions to the time required for IL, school principals should prioritise IL and allocate most of their time to IL practices; they should delegate routine administrative work to supporting staff. Consequently, they would be able to be more visible and accessible to provide support to their teachers and build good relationships with them; and FDRE MoE (policy-makers) and AACAEB should provide adequate time for principals to engage actively in IL activities.

iii. Allocating adequate budget for IL

Like time, the budget for IL was recognised by principals as an IL issue. Principals needed more money for training in IL and instructional resources, including human and material resources. Principals complained that they had little control over the finances allocated to their institutions and that this made it difficult for them to implement effective teaching strategies. An educational programme requires a lot of costly resources. Accordingly, AACAEB should allocate adequate budget for effectiveness of IL practices in public schools.

iv. Providing continuous training and capacitation programmes for principals in IL

Mason (2013) mentioned four possible solutions to the challenges principals experience while practising IL activities: community stakeholders and trustees (offer training to make sure that roles and duties are understood) and preparation programmes of principals (establish mentoring and support). Dhlamini (2008) also suggested that through their instructional efforts, principals could raise the caliber of instruction. These included, among other things, developing a clear vision, participating in decision-making, providing resources, practising effective time management, and developing programmes for educators.

To order to improve IL practices of principals, attention should also be given to the training of principals. The government needs to make specific facilities available for this. Creating new programmes in training is important because the knowledge and skills of the principals in IL need to be updated and upgraded. Without the appropriate knowledge and skills that are needed by IL, it is problematic for principals to lead the core business of the school, teaching and learning. To assist principals and teachers with IL practices, in-service training was advised. Additionally, newly appointed principals needed to be properly inducted. Moreover, the IL practices of principals could be accomplished effectively if principals were offered timely, continuous and adequate training based on their need assessments. So, to build the capacities of school principals in IL practices and teachers in classroom instructional practices, it is advised that the AACAE and SCEOs arrange training, seminars and workshops to keep principals updated.

v. Supplying principals with required instructional resources and materials

According to Powell (2017), with a cognizance of variation in IL approaches, the education authorities can determine the best approach to use based on context and offer the essential resources as well as the clarity required about IL.

The IL practices of principals in AACA could be improved if the essential and required instructional resources were supplied timeously together with other instructional materials connected with the IL activities. Accordingly, AACAEB should offer instructional resources and materials required based on the needs of teachers and

principals for their instructional programme, and particularly, to engage principals highly in their IL practices.

vi. Establishing clear accountability requirements of principals for learning and academic achievement of students

The current climate in education has renewed an interest in public school accountability, and principals are under increased pressure to improve school performance outcomes (Mason, 2013). In addition, Musandu (2018) revealed that principals and other school leaders are often not held accountable for effectiveness of their schools and the academic achievement of their students. Mason (2013) further mentioned that lack of accountability requirements and working with reluctant staff members were found to be the most pressing challenges to IL practices of principals. As a direct effect of accountability requirements, 'No Child Left Behind' regulations, and state assessments, principals and assistant principals in the US feel more professional pressure and engage in IL activities to a higher degree (Howard-Schwind, 2010).

Implementing different strategies to improve the high engagement of principals in their IL practices via different requirements and measures is a vital feature of principals' IL. This means establishing clear accountability requirements for principals in ensuring the academic achievement of students.This establishment of accountability could lead to positive results in the IL practices of principals. Thus,FDRE MoE and AACAEB should place clear accountability requirements for principals in practicing effective IL in their schools.

vii. Letting public schools to be autonomous institutions

An autonomous school is a school that is free of intervention from the government or organisation in its day-to-day functioning as an educational institution (UNESCO, 2017). Many autonomous schools are private in nature, but some government schools have an autonomous status. This means that they follow the national syllabus and funded by the government, but offer a wider range of programmes that enhance students' learning experience and develop their talents.

FDRE MoE and AACAEB should let public schools be autonomous institutions in order to accomplish their core business, namely, teaching and learning, and give them academic freedom, because IL needs principals to focus their endeavors on enhancing teaching and learning in achieving their mission and attaining their goals.

viii. Encouraging teachers, principals, students and parents by timely incentives and rewards

The findings of interview data revealed that nearly all of the participants perceived that a lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents can be challenges for IL practices of principals. Effective teaching and learning process is, therefore, highly compromised when there is lack of incentives and rewards for all the stakeholders in the school. In accordance with their performance, all the stakeholders in the school should be appropriately assessed and rewarded, if there is to be a significant enhancement in achievements and results of schools. This could be realised by providing incentives for all the stakeholders in the school to recognize exceptional work which would increase their confidence and encourage high engagement in IL. Accordingly, the school and other concerned bodies such as AACAEB and SCEOs should play a crucial role in motivating and encouraging all the stakeholders in the school to succeed in their tasks by arranging further incentive and reward programmes.

ix. Maintaining strong cooperation with teaching and non-teaching staff on part of principals

Babaoglan (2010) found that the relationship between teachers and their principals had a significant impact on the leadership of the principals. Furthermore, Yılmaz and Altınkurt (2012) revealed a positive relationship between the helpful leadership behaviours of the principals and the trust of teachers in them had a significant impact on the general leadership of principals.

The goals of a school could be attained by creating good relationships between principals and teaching and non-teaching staff and by having discussion sessions on the topic of instructional programmes with the intention that they could come to an agreement on the effective instructional practices of teachers, learning and academic achievements of students, and IL practices of principals. Continuous PD of principals and teachers could create a mutual understanding of what is required to address the problems recognised in connection with IL practices.

x. Promoting and applying rational and transparent recruitment and selection criteria for principalship position

Since the core business of a school is teaching and learning, the principals should be qualified in educational leadership (school leadership) that contributes to improvement of teachers' instructional practices and students' learning and academic achievement and they should be instructionally oriented. The recruitment and selection procedure for the principalship positions should entail the introduction of clear criteria which centre on finding the right persons whose educational qualifications, work place experiences, motivations, commitments and competences would ensure that school leadership, in general, and IL, in particular, were successful. Consequently, AACAEB in collaboration with the FDRE MoE should establish clear strategies for public secondary school principals' selection and recruitment that will invite qualified, competent and committed individuals to hold principalship positions on a merit basis. As a core part of school leadership, policy-makers should give special attention to IL, and IL should be one of the main criteria for selection as a principal.

xi. Empowering principals to be experts in their subject area and pedagogical knowledge

According to Bush (2013), principals should have knowledge of the curriculum, teaching methods, techniques of assessment and current research on learning for them to work effectively as instructional leaders. Gowpall (2015) indicated that school principals undergo training and PD workshops in order to gain the pedagogical knowledge and skills necessary to lead as an instructional leader. Furthermore, according to Stein and

Nelson (2003), the problem of a lack of subject area and pedagogical knowledge can possibly be overcome by offering in-service training programmes to principals so that they can help teachers in their instructional practices.

Accordingly, to capacitate school principals in their subject area and pedagogical knowledge which in turn helps them to support teachers in classroom instructional practices; the AACAE and SCEOs should organize continuous refresher training, seminars and workshops.

xii. Motivating teachers for their outstanding job functions done

The role of a school principal is to make their teachers' lives easier so that they can teach, and students can learn. According to Eres (2011), a factor that influences the motivation of teachers is the school principal. A lack of motivation on the part of the teacher can also affect the leadership of the school. Effective IL breeds effective schools which, in turn, produce successful learners.

The instructional practices of teachers and IL practices of principals could be improved by lifting the motivational level of teachers by creating a positive school teaching and learning climate and arranging relevant motivational training programmes.

5.6.1.6 Recommendations advised as strategies for high engagement principals in their IL practices

RQ 6: What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

The results from the current study offered many recommendations made by interview participants as strategies for IL practices of principals. As strategies for IL practices of principals in AACA, the following recommendations were made by interview participants of the study:

- AACAEB should provide adequate time for principals to engage actively in IL activities;

- AACAEB should introduce continuous training via PD workshops and seminars for principals, teachers, and supervisors;

- AACAEB should give priority to the appointment of principals with formal qualifications in school leadership;

- AACAEB should reconsider the execution of NPSSP in every public school within the city;

- AACAEB should arrange incentive and reward programmes to motivate teachers, principals, students and parents; and

- AACAEB should allocate adequate budget, other resources, and materials for IL.

The literature review offered many recommendations that may serve as strategies for IL practices of principals. According to Gowpall (2015), in view of the conclusions drawn, recommendations were made that aimed at enhancing the skills of the principals as instructional leaders. Also, Harris (2014) suggested that focused association of principal beliefs and practice of IL could possibly be a device for enhancing IL practice and may help principals in meeting the requirements described in the new evaluation system of principals. In addition, Mestry (2017) suggested that, by emphasising best teaching practices and keeping their schools focused on curriculum, instruction and assessment, school principals can enhance their role as instructional leaders to meet learner needs and improve learner achievement. Furthermore, Musandu (2018) recommended that it is essential to have principals with formal qualifications in school leadership, and PD should be linked as an instrument for enhancing classroom practices of teachers. Tsegaye (2018) recommended that principals needed professional autonomy to successfully accomplish IL roles. Tsegaye (2018) further advised that policy-makers should look at accountability requirements and strive to attain a better balance concerning the reporting of development as it relates to education in all schools of Amhara regional state. Principals would need to be given time to be successful in their IL role enactments. Admassie (2017) recommended that the AACAEB make training in leadership and qualification a precondition in the recruitment and hiring of individuals into a principal position to add to enhanced quality of school via better professionalisation, to enhance principals' satisfaction in their job functions and perhaps

increase the number of eligible candidates for school leadership positions. Moreover, Admassie (2017) suggested that the AACAEB and the SSEOs should employ clear strategies for appointing qualified, competent and dedicated individuals to principal positions based on merit. Admassie (2017) further recommended that AACAEB in association with the FDRE MoE should develop and rigorously implement a framework of school leadership that will bring consistency to recruitment, selection and assignment of principals.

5.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter 5 presented and analysed data from both quantitative and qualitative phases of the study and interpreted and discussed theiroutcomescorresponding to the literature reviewed to investigate the perceptions and experiences of principals with IL practices of public secondary school in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. This was done because this study used an explanatory sequential mixed methods design where quantitative data collection and analysis was done followed by qualitative data collection and analysis.

The results of quantitative data indicated that mean scores for principals' self-perceptions fell into the "medium engagement" interval for defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate. This indicates that, principals perceived themselves as moderately engaged in all the dimensions of PIMRS as part of their IL practices. Teachers and supervisors also rated principals in their schools in the "medium engagement" range for all the dimensions. However, the mean scores of the principals were significantly higher than the mean scores of the other role players (teachers and supervisors).

On the other hand, the findings from the qualitative data showed that, according to the interview data collected from participants, principals engaged moderately in IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and

providing incentives for learning. According to the interview participants, there were numerous challenges which directly or indirectly impeded the high engagement of principals in their IL practices; they also suggested possible solutions to address the challenges identified. Finally, the chapter merged both the quantitative results and qualitative findings so as to triangulate theresults and discussed the outcomes of the study by comparing these with evidence from previous studies. The outcomes of the study confirmed with theoretical constructs employed in the discussion of findings. The next chapter summarises the outcomes of this study, draws conclusions and makes recommendations.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter briefly presents a scholarly review of the study and the main research outcomes that came out from the quantitative and qualitative phases followed by the conclusions drawn based on outcomes of the study. The chapter also presents the researcher's recommendations to improve IL practices of principals, for public secondary schools, for AACAEB and SCEOs, and for policy-makers based on the main outcomes and conclusions of the study, and his personal experience. In addition, the chapter describes the contributions of the study to the educaton policy, the practice of IL in public secondary schools, the field of educational leadership and management, and the new framework that the study suggested. Moreover, the chapter explains avenues for further research which are briefly mentioned to motivate other researchers in the area. Furthermore, the chapter describes the limitations faced during research process. Finally, the researcher adds his concluding remarks based on a personal reflection of his research experience and enrichment.

6.2 SUMMARYOF RESEARCH OUTCOMES

The purpose of the study was to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceived and experienced their current and actual IL practices as defined by the PIMRS IL model. The main question was: What are the perceptions and experiences of public secondary school principals of their current and actual practices of IL as defined by PIMRS IL model in AACA? To seek an answer to the main question, the following sub-questions were investigated.

- How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of the PIMRS IL model), and what experiences do they have with them?
- How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices of their principals with regard to the three dimensions of the PIMRS IL model?

- What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices of principals in AACA with regard to the three dimensions of the PIMRS IL model?

- What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging in IL activities?

- What possible solutions can be advised that contribute to the high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

- What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

The study developed a conceptual framework that related the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model to the perceived IL of principals.

6.2.1 Key Empirical Outcomes of the Study

A synopsis of empirical outcomes of this study (Chapter 5) with a view to presenting the main outcomes of the study is offered. The three forms of PIMRS survey were used to measure principals' IL practices by gathering data from principals themselves, teachers and supervisors. Semi-structured interview guides were used to collect qualitative data from head principals and resident supervisors about IL practices of principals in order to identify reasons for quantitative results and to address some other research questions. Moreover, document and literature reviews were conducted to strengthen the outcomes of the study. Descriptive statistics like means and standard deviations were used to analyse the collected quantitative data. In addition, t-tests were used to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of IL practices of principals. On the other hand, qualitative data were analysed by using thematic analysis. Accordingly, the following outcomes were gained.

RQ 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model), and what experiences do they have with them?

Ho 1: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) as perceived by principals themselves in AACA public secondary schools.

Mean scores and standard deviations were used to answer this research question and test the hypothesis. Accordingly, principals' self-assessment mean scores on their IL practices ranged from 3.54 to 4.01 with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction received the lowest rating among principals (3.54), while framing the school goals received the highest rating (4.01).

Out of the ten job functions, the mean scores of framing the school goals indicated "high engagement". However, the mean scores of the nine job functions indicated "medium engagement". This implies that, principals perceived that they engaged in framing the school goals highly, but in the other job functions engaged moderately as part of their IL practices. Also, principals' overall average mean of defining the school mission (M=3.90), managing the instructional programme (M=3.62), and developing a positive school learning climate (M=3.85) similarly indicated "medium engagement". Moreover, principals' total PIMRS mean score (3.80) indicated "medium engagement". Furthermore, the qualitative findings obtained from semi-structured interviews with head principals also confirmed with their quantitative results.

RQ 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of their principals?

Ho 2: There are no statistically significant high engagements of principals in their current and actual IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) as perceived by teachers and supervisors of public secondary schools in AACA.

In order to address this research question and test the hypothesis mean scores and standard deviations were used. Consequently, teachers' assessment mean scores ranged from 2.52 to 3.01 on their principals' IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Teachers rated their principals' IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals highest (3.01), while rated their principals lowest on managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction (2.52). The mean scores of all the job functions indicated "medium engagement". This implies that, teachers perceived that their principals engaged in all job functions moderately as part of their IL practices. Also, teachers' overall average mean of defining the school mission (M=2.90), managing the instructional programme (M=2.59), and developing a positive school learning climate (M=2.75) similarly indicated "medium engagement". Moreover, teachers' total PIMRS mean score (2.75) indicated "medium engagement".

On the other hand, supervisors' assessment mean scores ranged from 2.56 to 3.55 of principals in their schools on IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Supervisors rated principals in their schools on IL practices with regard to developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time highest (3.55),

while rated principals lowest on managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction (2.56). The mean scores of all the job functions indicated "medium engagement". This implies that, supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged in all job functions moderately as part of their IL practices. Also, supervisors overall average mean of defining the school mission (M=3.21), managing the instructional programme (M=2.73), and developing a positive school learning climate (M=3.25) likewise indicated "medium engagement". Moreover, supervisors' total PIMRS mean score (3.06) indicated "medium engagement". Moreover, the qualitative findings obtained from semi-structured interviews with supervisors agreed with their quantitative results.

RQ 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of principals in AACA?

H03: There are statistically significant differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of the extent to which principals engage in IL practices (with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model) of public secondary schools in AACA.

In order to address this research question and test the hypothesis mean scores, standard deviations, and t-tests were used. Accordingly, respondents' assessments on the IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning were compared. The mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors on the IL practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing the school goals indicated "high engagement" for principals themselves and "medium engagement" for teachers and supervisors. The mean scores of principals, teachers and supervisors on the IL

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practices of principals with regard to defining the school mission in terms of communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning indicated "medium engagement" for all groups of respondents. Even though, the mean scores of all the respondents were categorised under "medium engagement", both job functions of defining the school mission, all the three job functions of managing the instructional programme, and all the five job functions of developing a positive school learning climate were rated highest by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors; and rated lowest by teachers than they were by supervisors.

In addition, the independent samples t-tests at df (399) and a significance level of .05 were calculated to compare principals' self-perceptions with other role players'(teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual IL practices of their principals in AACA, and the p-values of each job functions were similar for all groups of respondents and less than .05 (p<.05) and, particularly the p-values of communicating the school goals, supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, monitoring student progress, providing incentives for teachers, and promoting PD were far less than .05.

They indicated that significant difference between the mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors on IL practices with regard to defining the school mission (framing the school goals); and developing a positive school learning climate (protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, and providing incentives for learning). They indicated that strong significant difference between the mean scores of the principals, teachers and supervisors on IL practices with regard to defining the school mission (communicating the school goals); managing the instructional programme (supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress); and developing a positive school learning climate (providing incentives for teachers and promoting PD). Hence, principals' self-perceptions were significantly

different from the perceptions of teachers and supervisors on IL practices of principals in their schools.

Furthermore, the qualitative findings obtained from semi-structured interviews with principals and supervisors agreed with the quantitative results.

RQ 4: What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging themselves in IL activities?

According to the answers of interview participant principals and supervisors, there were numerous challenges which directly or indirectly impede the effective practices of IL by principals in their schools, however the major ones were: unclear meanings of IL; lack of adequate time to implement IL; inadequate instructional resources and materials; lack of manuals and guidelines to implement IL; non-functionality of school facilities such as laboratories and pedagogical centres; wrong recruitment and selection criteria for principalship position; lack of the required experience for the principalship position; inadequate training for teachers and principals with regard to IL; principals' lack of adequate skills and knowledge of IL; lack of budget for training; spending larger time in routine activities; lack of accountability requirements of principals; workload of principals in administrative activities; principals' dissatisfactions due to low salaries; principals give less attention for their instructional roles; lack of commitment on the part of teachers as well as principals; working out of the daily plan on part of principals; lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents; poor cooperation between teachers and principals; lack of autonomy of public schools; external interference from the sub-city education offices; lack of effective stakeholders' support; inadequate support for teaching and learning on part of parents; lack of community participation; low interest of teachers towards profession; poor teacher job motivation; using teaching as a bridge to go to other profession on part of teachers; absenteeism, late coming and early leaving of teachers from classrooms; students' lack of interest towards learning; students' disciplinary problems; absenteeism and late coming of students; and Covid 19 pandemic.

RQ 5: What possible solutions can be advised that contribute for the high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

Numerous ways of minimising challenges to effective practices of IL by school principals were forwarded by interview participants, because they are essential in order to improve instructional support of principals to teachers, and then academic achievements of students, in doing so principals should allocate large portion of their school time for IL practices (defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate) of PIMRS IL model. Moreover, IL practices of principals is very useful in identifying instructional difficulties in the classrooms and in collaboration with the teacher to search possible solutions. Thus, addressing all the aforementioned challenges would have a major influence on the effective principals' IL practices.

RQ 6: What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

As strategies for IL practices of principals in AACA, the following recommendations were made by interview participants: AACAEB should provide adequate time for principals to engage actively in IL activities; introduce continuous training via PD workshops and seminars for principals, teachers, and supervisors; give first place for the appointment of principals with formal qualifications in school leadership; reconsider the execution of NPSSP in every public school within the city; arrange incentive and reward programmes to motivate teachers, principals, students and parents; and allocate adequate budget, other resources, and materials for IL practices.

6.2.2 Scholarly Review of Key Findings Related to This Study

A synopsis of the literature review and conceptual framework of the study (Chapters 2 and 3) with the intention of cross referencing is presented. Accordingly, in this sub-section, connections are made between the results of this study and those from previous studies. Moreover, an evaluation of the results of this study compared with previous studies reveals similarities and differences. Results from literature review connected with principals' self-perceptions and experiences on their IL practices

encompass information from Ahmad (2012); Bellibas (2015); Carson (2013); Hallinger and Murphy (1985); Harris (2014); Owens (2015); and Pettiegrew (2013). Ahmad (2012) indicated that excellent school principals in Aceh, Indonesia practice IL comprising of three dimensions alienated into ten job functions, and principals rated 4.0 or higher showing that they frequently practice five job functions of IL: framing the school goals, communicating the school goals, coordinating curriculum, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Also, Bellibas (2015) showed that principals gave particular focus to the school goal development and problems of instruction, and that they were less probably to become participated in the direct classroom instructional supervision. Moreover, according to Carson (2013), all principals rated the job function of framing the school goals as most amid the ten job functions included within the three PIMRS IL dimensions. Hallinger and Murphy (1985) describe defining the school mission in terms of framing and communicating the school goals as a major job function of IL. In addition, Harris (2014) indicated that principals accomplish practices related to defining the school mission at a much higher rate than their beliefs showed. Additionally, Owens (2015), principals rated their own IL practices highest for the PIMRS job function of framing the school goals, however rated themselves lowest on the job function of supervising and evaluating instruction. Furthermore, Pettiegrew (2013) revealed that both principals and teachers perceive framing the school goals as the greatest essential IL behaviour. The results of the current study coincided with the findings of Ahmad (2012); Bellibas (2015); Carson (2013); Hallinger and Murphy (1985); Harris (2014); Owens (2015); and Pettiegrew (2013) as to the significance of principals' self-perceptions and experiences on their IL practices.

Results related to literature connected with the perceptions of other role players (teachers and supervisors) on IL practices of principals in their schools contain information from Ahmad and Hussain (2013); Atkinson (2013); Diego (2013); Harris (2014); Horton (2013); Long (2008); and Owens (2015). Ahmad and Hussain (2013) indicated that as assessed by their teachers, principals of the excellent schools in Aceh, to certain extent, accomplished the second dimension of the IL: Managing the instructional programme. Also, according to Atkinson (2013), principals' mean scores were the highest given by any of the three role groups and teachers' mean scores were

the lowest comprising the lowest seven job functions' mean scores among all role groups. Furthermore, according to Diego (2013), perceptions of teachers on IL style of principal with regard to managing the instructional programme, school supervision, PD, and they were meaningfully influenced student achievement. Moreover, Harris (2014) found that while principal beliefs concentrated deeply on practices related to managing instruction in the school, teachers perceived those principals engaged in these practices, mainly those related to instructional supervision and evaluation, less frequently than principals themselves assumed that they did. In addition, Horton (2013) found that a significant relationship between teachers' perceptions on IL behaviours of principals and self-efficacy of teachers, and high poverty school teachers assisted via principal's framing and communicating the campus goals. Long (2008) indicate that both teachers and education administrators perceive framing school goals as the greatest essential job function of IL. Furthermore, according to Owens (2015), teachers assessed IL practices of their principals highest for the PIMRS job function of framing school goals. The data from the current study agreed with the findings of Ahmad and Hussain (2013); Atkinson (2013); Diego (2013); Harris (2014); Horton (2013); Long (2008); and Owens (2015) as the perceptions of other role players (teachers and supervisors) on IL practices of principals in their schools.

Results from literature review connected with the differences (comparisons) between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of IL practices of principals comprise information from Long (2008); Lyons (2010); and Smith (2007). Long (2008) asserted that statistically significant differences occur between education administrators and teachers in 7 out of 10 IL job functions. According to Lyons (2010), there were statistically significant differences with principal and teacher perceptions of IL behaviour of principals in the mean scores for some items. Smith (2007) revealed that a significant difference occurred between teacher perceptions and principal perceptions of the extent to which principals demonstrated ten job functions of IL practices. The data from the current study agreed with the findings of Long (2008); Lyons (2010); and Smith (2007) as differences in perceptions of principals and teachers or supervisors on IL practices of principals in their schools.

Findings from literature review linked with challenges principals experience while practicing IL activities include information from Atkinson (2013); Mason (2013); Musandu (2018); Powell (2017); and Rahman, Tahir, Anis and Ali (2020). Atkinson (2013), challengingly, those principals who aspire to be truly effective instructional leaders face numerous problems such as unclear and inconsistent definitions of IL, too many demands on the time of principals, inadequate training of principals for IL, and movements for teacher empowerment. According to Mason (2013), dealing with emergent issues, financial limitations, ensuring stakeholder input, accountability requirements, and working with reluctant staff members were found to be the most substantial challenges to IL practices of principals. Musandu (2018) revealed that principals and other school leaders are commonly not accountable for effectiveness of their schools and the academic achievement of their students. He further indicated that they give more focus to administrative tasks, because they perceive themselves as administrators and not as instructional leaders. According to Powell (2017), two of the issues usually described in the literature as challenges for principals in their IL practices are time and budget. Rahman et al. (2020) publicised that the secondary principals faced two main challenges: the internal and external challenges. Internally, senior principals were confronted with their inadequate knowledge and experience on IL which diminish their roles as instructional leaders and as a resource person to all teachers. Externally, principals encountered challenges from negative attitudes of teachers and parents, and even fewer monitoring from the stakeholders of the school. The results from the current study agreed with the findings of Atkinson (2013); Mason (2013); Musandu (2018); Powell (2017); and Rahman et al. (2020) as challenges principals experience while practicing ILactivities.

Findings related to literature associated with possible solutions to the challenges principals experience while practicing IL activities consist of evidence from previous studies by Bush (2013); Gowpall (2015); Mason (2013); and Powell (2017). According to Bush (2013), principals should possess the capability in the curriculum, teaching methods, techniques of assessment and current research on learning for them to work effectively as instructional leaders. Gowpall (2015) revealed that the principals required to possess a clear understanding of what their IL roles involve so as to indorse this role.

Gowpall (2015) further indicated that principals undertake training and PD workshops so as to obtain the knowledge and skills of pedagogy essential to lead as an instructional leader. Mason (2013) mentioned four possible solutions to the challenges principals experience while practicing IL activities: policy-makers (apply accountability requirements), principals (develop a comprehensive school strategic plan), community stakeholders and trustees (offer training to make sure that roles and duties are understood), and preparation programmes of principals (establish mentoring and support). According to Powell (2017), with a cognizance of variation in technique, system leaders can determine the best technique based on context and offer the essential resources as well as the clarity required about IL. The findings from the current study showed numerous ways of minimising challenges to effective practices of IL by principals were forwarded by interview participants, because they are essential in order to improve instructional support of principals to teachers, and then academic achievements of students.

Findings from literature review related with recommendations that may serve as strategies for IL practices of principals consist of information from previous studies by Gowpall (2015); Harris (2014); and Musandu (2018). According to Gowpall (2015), in view of the conclusions drawn, recommendations were made that aimed at enhancing the skills of the principals as instructional leaders. Harris (2014) suggested that focused association of principal beliefs and practice of IL could possibly be a device for enhancing IL practice and may help principals in meeting the requirements described in the new evaluation system of principals. Musandu (2018) recommended that, it is essential to have principals with formal qualifications in school leadership, and PD should be linked as an instrument for enhancing classroom practices of teachers. The results from the current study demonstrate the importance of recommendations made by interview participants as strategies for IL practices of principals.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The critical challenges that confronted the researcher were the recurrent power cuts in the study area and sporadic disruptions of internet access in the country. Also, according to Hallinger (2008), "PIMRS measures the presence of IL practices and not

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the effectiveness of IL". Conclusions as to the effectiveness of IL should be cautiously made through the relationship of PIMRS data with achievement data. Moreover, the outcomes of the study were derived from context and situation of AACA and can only be generalised to all public secondary schools in AACA and other study areas with similar settings.

6.4 CONCLUSIONS OF THE STUDY

Based on the main outcomes of the study the following conclusions were drawn:

RQ 1: How do public secondary school principals in AACA perceive their current and actual engagement in IL practices with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model, and what experiences do they have with them?

Specifically, principals perceived that they engaged in framing the school goals highly, but, in the other job functions, engaged moderately as part of their IL practices. In a broad sense, principals perceived that they engaged moderately in their IL practices with regard to defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme and developing a positive school learning climate. Furthermore, principals were rated highest for defining the school mission and lowest for managing the instructional programme.

RQ 2: How do public secondary school teachers and supervisors in AACA perceive the current and actual engagement in IL practices of their principals with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model?

Specifically, teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged in all job functions moderately as part of their IL practices. Generally, teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged moderately in their IL practices with regard to defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate. Besides, defining the school mission was rated highest and managing the instructional programme was rated lowest by teachers and developing a positive school learning climate was rated highest and managing the instructional programme was rated lowest by supervisors.

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RQ 3: What are the differences between principals' self-perceptions and other role players' (teachers and supervisors) perceptions of current and actual engagement in IL practices of principals in AACA with regard to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model?

Even though the mean scores of the principals, teachers, and supervisors were categorised under "medium engagement", both job functions of defining the school mission, all three job functions of managing the instructional programme, and all five job functions of developing a positive school learning climate were rated higher by principals than they were by teachers and supervisors and rated lower by teachers than they were by supervisors. Furthermore, principals and teachers rated defining the school mission as highest, while supervisors rated developing a positive school learning climate as highest. The three group of respondents rated managing the instructional programme lowest. In addition, the results of hypothesis testing indicated significant differences in principals' and teachers'and supervisors' perceptions on IL practices with regard to defining the school mission in terms of framing school goals and developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning. Moreover, the results of hypothesis testing indicated strong significant differences in principals' and teachers' and supervisors' perceptions on IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress.

Generally, principals' self-perceptions on their IL practices as defined by PIMRSIL model were significantly different from the perceptions of teachers and supervisors.

RQ 4: What challenges do public secondary school principals in AACA experience while engaging themselves in IL activities?

According to the answers of principals and supervisors, there were numerous challenges which directly or indirectly impeded the effective practices of IL by principals in their schools. However, the major ones were: unclear meanings of IL; lack of adequate time to implement IL; inadequate instructional resources and materials; lack of manuals and guidelines to implement IL; wrong recruitment and selection criteria for

principalship position; inadequate training for principals and teachers with regard to IL; lack of budget for training; spending larger time in routine and administrative activities; lack of accountability requirements of principals; lack of commitment on the part of teachers as well as principals; lack of incentives and rewards for teachers, principals, students and parents; poor cooperation between teachers and principals; lack of autonomy and academic freedom of public schools; low interest of teachers in professionalism; absenteeism, late coming and early leaving of teachers from classrooms; students' lack of interest towards learning; and the Covid 19 pandemic.

RQ 5: What possible solutions can be advised that contribute to the high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

Numerous ways of minimising challenges to effective practices of IL by school principals were forwarded by interview participants to improve instructional support of principals to teachers, and the academic achievements of students. In doing so, principals should allocate most of their school time to IL practices (defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate). Moreover, IL practices of principals should be used to identify instructional difficulties in the classrooms and to search for possible solutions in collaboration with the teachers. Thus, addressing all the aforementioned challenges would have a major positive influence on the principals' IL practices.

RQ 6: What recommendations can be made that may serve as strategies for high engagement in IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA?

As strategies for IL practices of principals in AACA, the following recommendations were made by participants. AACAEB should provide adequate time for principals to engage actively in IL activities; introduce continuous training via PD workshops and seminars for principals, teachers and supervisors; give priority to the appointment of principals with formal qualifications in school leadership; reconsider the execution of NPSSP in every public school within the city; arrange incentive and reward programmes to motivate teachers, principals, students and parents; and allocate adequate budget, other resources and materials for IL.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

Based on the main outcomes and conclusions of the study, and researcher's personal experience, the following recommendations are made for public secondary schools, AACAEB and SCEOs, and policy-makers/ FDRE MoE to improve IL practices of public secondary school principals in AACA.

6.5.1 Recommendation 1: Recommendations for Public Secondary Schools in AACA

To improve current practices of IL of principals in public secondary schools of AACA the following recommendations were advised:

1. School principals should prioritise IL and allocate most of their school time to IL practices (defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate) of PIMRS IL model;
2. School principals should internalise challenges identified in this study that hinder the IL practices of principals and use their suggested solutions to address the challenges;
3. In collaboration with teachers, school principals should identify the major instructional difficulties in the classrooms and search for possible solutions;
4. School principals should delegate routine administrative works to supporting staff. Consequently, they would be able to always be visible and accessible to provide support to their teachers and build good relationships with them;
5. School principals should develop their subject area and pedagogical knowledge to be capable of helping teachers in their instructional practices;
6. In this study, school principals engaged themselves moderately in all the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model. Hence, they should give special attention to high engagement in them, so as to have a positive impact on the teaching and learning process in their respective schools;
7. Even though, all the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model were categorised under "medium engagement" by all respondents in the study, managing the instructional programme was rated lowest by all respondents of the study. Thus, to improve

instructional support of principals to teachers, and enhance the academic achievements of students, principals should focus on managing the instructional programme which comprises supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; and

8. School principals should enhance their IL practices to ensure that perceptions of their IL by teachers and supervisors improve.

6.5.2 Recommendation 2: Recommendations for AACAEB and SCEOs

Recommendations for AACAEB and SCEOs to improve IL practices of public secondary school principals include:

1. With regard to qualification, most sampled school principals in this study had a master's degree in specific subjects and most of them studying towards their PGDSL after taking the position. AACAEB and SCEOs should make school leadership training and qualification a prerequisite for recruitment of individuals in a principalship position;

2. AACAEB and SCEOs should establish clear strategies for public secondary school principals' selection and recruitment that will invite qualified, competent and committed individuals to hold principalship positions on a merit basis;

3. AACAEB should give special attention to IL, and IL should be one of the main criteria for selection as a principal;

4. AACAEB should reconsider the execution of the NPSSP in every public school within the city;

5. AACAEB should prepare manuals and guidelines for public schools to implement effective IL practices;

6. AACAEB should define IL practices in collaboration with their principals to facilitate a mutual understanding which could be conveyed to the teaching staff and the school community;

7. AACAEB should provide adequate time for principals to engage actively in IL activities and allocate adequate budget for effectiveness of practices;

8. AACAEB should further offer instructional resources and materials required based on the needs of teachers and principals for their instructional programmes;

9. AACAEB should arrange incentive and reward programmes to motivate teachers, principals, students and parents in the enhancement of effective teaching and learning; and

10. To build the capacities of school principals in IL practices and teachers in classroom instructional practices, it is advised that the AACAEBand SCEOs arrange training, seminars and workshops on the latest developments in IL.

6.5.3 Recommendation 3: Recommendations for Policy-makers/ FDRE MoE

Recommendations for policy-makers/ FDRE MoE to improve IL practices of public secondary school principals in Ethiopia consist of:

1. In the long run, FDRE MoE should be required to create and rigidly apply an IL framework that would provide uniformity for the recruiting, selection, and assignment of principals. Detailed procedures that serve as a roadmap for principal recruitment, preparation, and selection; crucial traits of effective principal IL that support student learning and academic achievement; and significant tasks and responsibilities to be carried out by effective instructional leaders to support the improvement of students' academic achievement should all be included in the framework.;

2. Policy-makers should ensure the autonomy of public secondary schools and give them academic freedom, because IL needs principals to focus their endeavors on enhancing teaching and learning in achieving their mission and attaining their goals;

3. In this study, all respondents (principals themselves, teachers, and supervisors) repeatedly emphasized the lack of available IL time as a major challenge which had a negative influence on the principals' capabilities to be effective instructional leaders. Therefore, policy-makers should provide principals with adequate time to implement IL; and

4. Policy-makers should implement accountability requirements for principals and teachers by giving them the time needed to practice effective IL in their schools.

6.6 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

Based on the outcomes and conclusions of the study, and the recommendations made, the following contributions of the study are forwarded for education policy, the practice

of IL in public secondary schools, and the field of educational leadership and management.

6.6.1 Contributions to Education Policy

The outcomes of the study may contribute for education policy, by:

- Helping policy-makers to design practical policies to enhance the practices of IL;
- Using the development of IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model specifically in AACA, and generally, in Ethiopia;
- Offering information for the AACAEB and FDRE MoE on the current position of IL and will help them to take their measures to enhance IL practices in public secondary schools;
- Providing relevant and current information to principals, teachers, supervisors and educational officers in AACAEB about the actual practice of IL;
- Creating awareness nationally of the essence of effective IL practices in relation to the three dimensions of PIMRS IL model and improvement of learning outcomes in the instructional process;
- Informing policy-makers to revisit and improve the current working policies and practices of IL, and for principals' recruitment, selection and training in Ethiopian education system context;
- Providing an important opportunity to advance the understanding of principals, teachers, supervisors, and other stakeholders of education on principals' IL practices;
- Deciding principals' readiness for the practices of IL, and strengthening the practices by addressing the need to improve principals' readiness, capacity, and performance in the system;
- Providing information that can be used to understand the current and actual IL practices in relation to the 10 job functions of PIMRS IL model in public secondary schools of AACA and its manifestation;
- Offering useful information regarding the relationship between independent variable (principals' current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model) and

dependent variable (perceived IL of principals) in the context of the Ethiopian education system.

6.6.2 Contributions to the practice of IL in public secondary schools

The outcomes of the study may contribute to the practice of IL in public secondary schools, by:

- Providing information about the principals' level of involvement in the implementation of IL practices with regard to defining the school mission by framing and communicating the school goals; managing the instructional programme in terms of supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress; developing a positive school learning climate in terms of protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting PD, and providing incentives for learning;
- Assisting principals in understanding their role in IL specifically to enhance teachers' instructional practices and students' academic achievement;
- Providing information about the current and actual practices of IL and what the teachers and supervisors think about it will help principals to evaluate themselves and rethink their techniques of practising IL;
- Creating awareness among principals, teachers and supervisors regarding effective IL practices in their schools;
- Assisting principals in becoming more aware of their current perceptions and practices on IL and enable them to positively influence the core business of their schools, the teaching and learning, and student academic achievement;
- Suggesting strategies that may enhance the effectiveness of school principals' IL practices;
- Assisting public secondary school principals in identifying the major challenges that hinder their IL activities; and
- Offering possible solutions forwarded to improve IL through mitigating the challenges identified in the practice of IL by principals.

6.6.3 Contributions to the field of educational leadership and management

The outcomes of the study may contribute to the field of educational leadership and management, by:

- Adding new knowledge to literature of the field of educational leadership and management as a resource on how IL can improve teachers' classroom instructional practices and students' academic achievement in secondary schools.
- Filling the existing knowledge gap in research of educational leadership and management regarding the perceptions of principals about their IL practices in secondary schools in the international arena; and
- Suggesting a new framework of IL practice for principals in the field of educational leadership and management.

6.6.4 The new framework that the study suggested (2022)

The purpose of the study was to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceived and experienced their current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model. Thus, by identifying the major outcomes of the study, challenges faced principals while practising their IL, and the possible solutions forwarded by participants of the study to address the challenges, this study contributes to enhancing the principals' IL practices, teachers' instructional practices, and students' learning and academic achievement. Based on the outcomes of the study, the following framework is presented by the researcher as the major contribution of this study. Figure 6.1 on the next page shows the suggested framework.
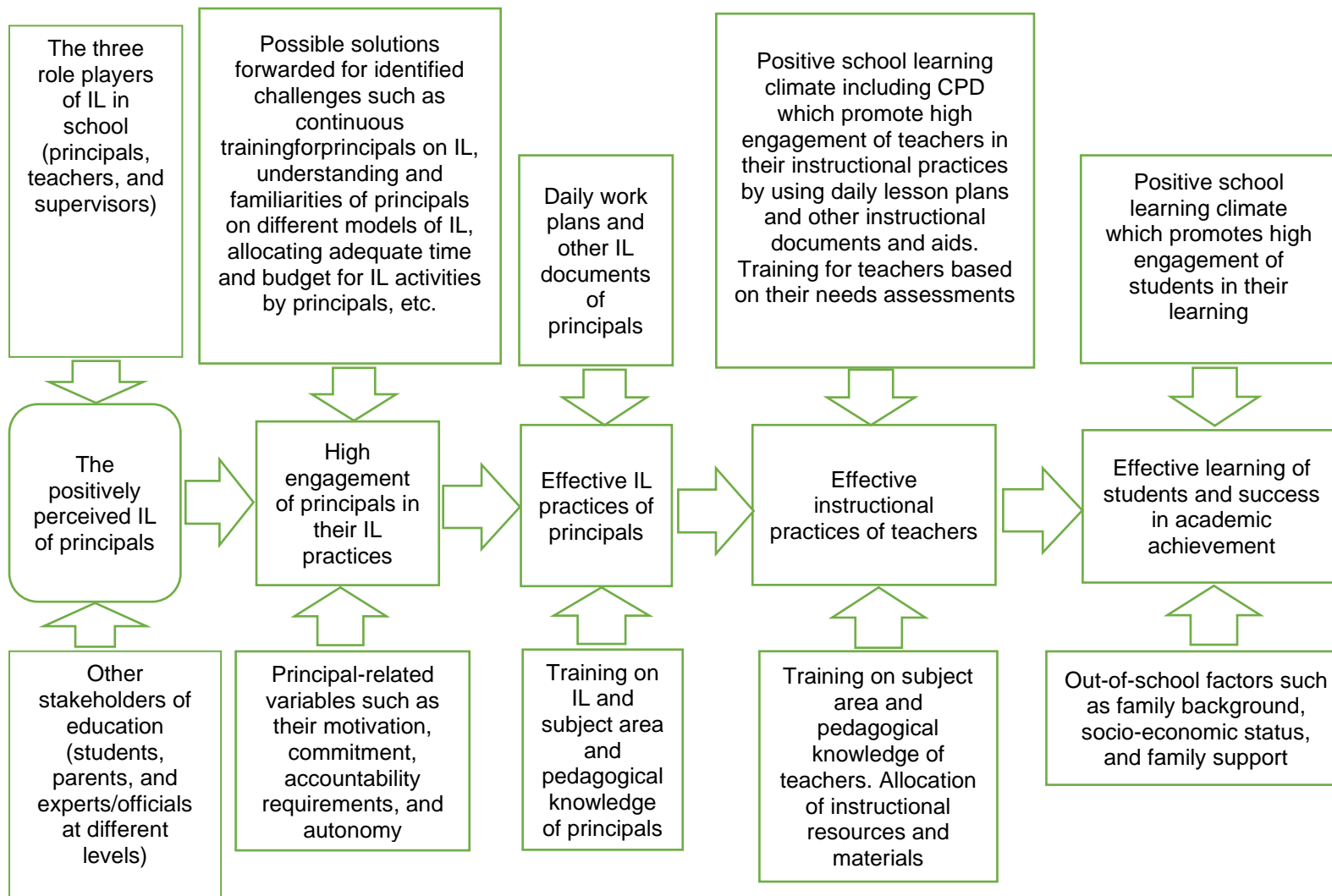
Figure 6.1: Suggested framework of IL practices of principals for the field of educational leadership and management

The suggested framework is outline below:

i. The positively perceived IL of principals

The principals' perception on their IL determines their engagement levels in their IL. Accordingly, the positively perceived IL of principals can be a prerequisite for high engagement of principals in IL practices. The relationship between the two variables can be direct or indirect: the indirect relationship may be mediated by possible solutions for identified challenges such as continuous training for principals on IL, understanding and familiarity of principals with different models of IL, and allocating adequate time and budget for IL activities by principals.

ii. High engagement of principals in their IL practices

Principals are expected to support teachers in their instructional practices and the learning of students by engaging in their IL practices. According to PIMRS IL model, IL practices of principals comprise three dimensions: defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate. Therefore, principals should engage more frequently in their IL practices, and the three dimensions and their job functions specifically in order to make their IL practices effective by using the possible solutions forwarded for identified challenges. In addition, all the role players of IL in school should work collaboratively for the high engagement of principals in their IL practices. Moreover, all stakeholders of education at different levels involved in various IL activities should work to improve the IL practices of principals which, in turn, improve instructional practices of teachers and students' academic achievements. In doing so, AACAEB and FDRE MoE/ policy-makers should focus works on principal-related variables such as their motivation, commitment, accountability requirements, autonomy and academic freedom of public schools.

iii. Effective IL practices of principals

Leadership has been identified by researchers as a crucial factor in instructional effectiveness. IL is one form of effective leadership (Hallinger, 2003). The principal as instructional leader actively promotes more effective practices in the teaching and learning processes and recognising instructional priorities rather than by serving as a school manager (Yunas & Iqbal, 2013). Effective IL of principals raises effective

teachers who, in turn, produce successful students. Schools require effective leadership with a vision and one that is able to impact others (teachers, students and the community) to buy into the school vision. Effective principals play a vital role for the improvement of learning and academic achievement of students and for the organisational enhancement of school. As IL chiefly emphases curriculum, instruction and assessment, each role player in IL should work for the realisation of the school's objectives. More specifically, principals should work on their IL practices by preparing daily work plans and other IL documents. In addition, all the role players of IL in school should work collaboratively for the high engagement of principals in their IL practices. Furthermore, all stakeholders of education at different levels play a vital role by assisting principals to enhance the teachers' capacity to play their classroom roles effectively and efficiently. Particularly, AACAEB should arrange capacity building programmes for principals in relation to IL, subject areas and pedagogical knowledge.

iv. Effective instructional practices of teachers

Teacher instructional practices are one of the classroom factors strongly influenced students' academic performance (Mushtaq & Khan, 2012). According to Rowe (2007), since the teacher is the person who executes the instructional strategies, assesses performance of students, and provides learning time, they are viewed as a crucial constituent in the instructional programme. Furthermore, the principals' fundamental IL activity creates a school climate conducive to quality teaching and learning, without which meaningful learning would not take place (McEwan, 2003). The variables which directly affect the learning and academic achievements of students in the suggested model are the instructional practices of teachers, which are viewed as significant because the effective instructional practices of teachers determine the quality of education. Accordingly, a school IL committee should be formed from the role players of IL in school (principals, teachers, and supervisors) and other stakeholders of education (students, parents, and experts at different levels) that oversee the school IL practices, the committee should support IL practices of principals, in turn they support and provide guidance on instructional practices of teachers to improve their classroom practices. Moreover, the committee should work on creating a positive school learning climate which promotes high engagement of teachers in their instructional practices by using daily lesson plans

and other instructional documents and aids, allocating instructional resources and materials, arranging training based on the needs assessment of teachers including their subject areas and pedagogical knowledge, and fostering teachers' CPD.

v. Effective learning of students and success in academic achievement

In spite of the influence of school leadership on student learning being second only to classroom instruction, its contributions to teachers' performance and students' learning and academic achievement have been repeatedly addressed in the educational leadership and management literature (Leithwood, 2006). Numerous studies have revealed the tremendous impact schools and teachers can have on student achievement. In view of that, the school IL committee should be involved in supporting and guiding students to improve their academic achievements. The committee should also work on creating a positive school learning climate which promotes high engagement of students in their learning by observing and supervising classroom instruction, supplying instructional resources and materials, receiving feedback from students regularly, encouraging needs-based development of teachers, and promoting students' curricular and extra-curricular activities. Moreover, all stakeholders should be involved in the identification of strengths and weaknesses, using the opportunities and addressing the threats with regard to out-of-school factors such as family background, socioeconomic status, and family support to improve the academic achievements of students.

In conclusion, this framework assists the effective IL practices of principals by identifying the positively perceived IL of principals and high engagement of principals on their IL practices as an impacting variable in their support of instructional practices of teachers, and the academic achievements of students by establishing a school IL committee. In addition, the AACAEB should arrange capacity building programmes for principals in relation to IL and subject area and pedagogical knowledge. Also, AACAEB should determine clear accountability requirements for principals, and allow autonomy and academic freedom of public schools. In addition, all stakeholders of education play a vital role by assisting principals to progress the teachers' capacities to play their classroom roles effectively and efficiently. Finally, the positively perceived IL of principals and their high engagement in their IL

practices can improve the IL practices of principals, and the effective instructional practices of teachers and effective learning and academic achievement of students.

6.7 AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The findings of this study showed that principals themselves, teachers, and supervisors thought principals some what participated in IL practices with regard to defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate. Additionally, the PIMRS IL model's definition of IL techniques as perceived by administrators often differed markedly from that of teachers and supervisors. Additionally, supervisors received the best ratings for developing a positive school learning climate at the school, while principals and teachers received the lowest ratings. Furthermore, principals, teachers and supervisors gave managing the instructional programme the lowest ratings. This research work may serve as a starting point for further research. As a result, the researcher of this study maintains that accurate information and knowledge about principals' perceptions of their IL practices as defined by the PIMRS IL model, as well as their engagement in it, play major roles in the efforts being made by the AACAEB, FDRE MoE, and other stakeholders to improve the quality of education. Therefore, the study's researcher suggests that:

1. An investigation into principals' perceptions on IL practices with regard to managing the instructional programme to check whether the results obtained in this study across sampled schools and among respondents are consistent or not.

2. A similar study that will consider demographical variables of respondents and other variables which were considered as mediating variables to investigate principals' perceptions on IL practices in public secondary schools of AACA.

3. A similar study that will participate students, parents, and educational officers to investigate principals' perceptions on IL practices in public secondary schools of AACA.

4. A similar study to investigate principals' perceptions on IL practices that will include public, private, missionary (churches and mosques), and community secondary schools of the AACA.

5. A country wide study that will focus on investigating principals' perceptions on IL practices in public secondary schools, and variables treated in this study or with different variables to update policy-makers regarding principals' perceptions and their engagement levels in IL practices.

6.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study investigated how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model. The study offered empirical data on principals' perceptions and experiences with their IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model from principals themselves, teachers, and supervisors. Teachers' and supervisors' responses were used for comparison with the principals' responses. The outcomes of the study indicate that all principals perceived that they engaged in their IL practices (defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate) moderately. Teachers and supervisors perceived those principals in their schools engaged in IL practices (defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme, and developing a positive school learning climate) moderately. Generally, principals' self-perceptions on their IL practices as defined by PIMRS IL model were significantly different from the perceptions of teachers and supervisors. Numerous challenges which directly or indirectly impede the effective practices of IL by principals in their schools were identified and their possible solutions were also forwarded.

As a researcher, I attained new knowledge from this study in that, generally, public secondary school principals in AACA perceived that they engaged in their IL practices moderately. However, their high engagement in IL as perceived by principals was hindered by numerous challenges such as lack of accountability on part of the principals and teachers; a disproportionate amount of principals' school time spent on urgent or routine and administrative work; misunderstanding of their IL roles; most classroom teachers were not supported by principals; and lack of continuous training on IL. There is a difference between what teachers and supervisors expect from the IL practices of principals and how IL is actually implemented by principals in their schools.

I have learned from this study that the way principals perceive and experience their IL practices and the way they understand IL severely affects their IL practices. Consequently, principals' IL practices have direct and mediated effects on the achievement of the final goal of a school (academic achievement of students). Hence, for principals to be engaged highly (effectively) in their IL practices, they should perceive IL positively and understand it correctly. Moreover, this study was helping me in increasing my knowledge, skills of analysis and synthesis.

Based on these findings, suggestions for future action are made, specifically relating to the obligatory inclusion of IL practices as an aspect of any uninterrupted enhancement and accountability work. Academic achievement of students and AACA accountability requirements should be considered to improve educational outcomes. Further research is vital to enlarge the knowledge base of the field of educational leadership and management so as to make inferences related to the influence of demographical variables of respondents and other mediating variables on principals' perceptions of IL practices.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

UNISA COLLEGE OF EDUCATION ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

Date: 2021/02/10

Decision: Ethics Approval from 2021/02/10 to 2026/02/10

Ref: **2021/02/10/ 67145043/24/AM**

Name: Mr. EH Ayele

Student No.: 67145043

Dear Mr. EH Ayele

Researcher(s): Name: Mr. EH Ayele

Email address: 67145043@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Telephone: +251911946432

Supervisor(s): Name: Prof VP Mahlangu

Email address: mahlavp@unisa.ac.za

Telephone: 012 429 8550

Title of research:
Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Qualification: PhD in Education Management

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee for the above-mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for the period 2021/02/10 to2026/02/10.

*The **medium risk** application was reviewed by the Ethics ReviewCommitteeon2021/02/10 in compliance with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached.

2. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

3. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the UNISA College of Education Ethics Review Committee.

4. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.

5. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data should be reported to the Committee in writing.

6. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no4of2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of2003.

7. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data requires additional ethics clearance.

8. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date **2026/02/10**. Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee

*Note: The reference number **2021/02/10/ 67145043/24/AM** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Kind regards,

ProfATMotlhabane
CHAIRPERSON: CEDURERC

motlhat@unisa.ac.za

Prof PM Sebate
EXECUTIVEDEAN

Sebatpm@unisa.ac.za

Approved-decisiontemplate–updated16Feb2017

APPENDIX B: REQUEST LETTER FOR PERMISSION TO AACAEB TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SAMPLED SCHOOLS IN THE CITY

UNISA | university of south africa

Title of the research: ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.***

Date: 13 April 2021

Mr. Getahun Lemma Kassaye

The directorate director of teachers' and educational leaders' development and administration in AACAEB,

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Telephone: +251111223899

Email: aacaebc@gmail.com

Dear Mr. Getahun Lemma Kassaye,

I, Elias Hailemichael Ayele, am doing research under supervision of Vimbi Petrus Mahlangu, a professor in the Department of Educational leadership and management towards a PhD degree at the University of South Africa. The research will be conducted in sample public secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration. I have selected some public secondary schools in the city as part of my research entitled ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia***.

With this letter, I seek your permission to conduct the above research with principals, teachers and supervisors of the sampled schools. I guarantee to treat all information I may obtain in the course of this research with the highest confidentiality. I also guarantee to follow all procedures set by the schools and I will conduct my research without disturbing any school programme.The results of the study, as feedback, will be communicated to your bureau in soft copy using email or hard copy.

Yours sincerely

_____

Elias Hailemichael Ayele

The researcher

APPENDIX C: SUPPORTING REQUEST LETTER FROM UNISA-ETHIOPIA LEARNING CENTRE TO AACAEB

UNISA | university of south africa
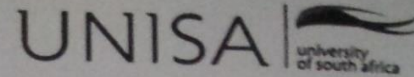
09 April, 2021

UNISA-ET/KA/ST/29/09-04-21

Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau
Addis Ababa

Dear Madam/Sir,

The University of South Africa (UNISA) extends warm greetings to you and staff members of your esteemed Bureau. By this letter, we want to certify that Mr. Elias HaileMichael Ayele (student number 67145043) is a doctoral student in the Department of Educational Leadership and Management at UNISA. Currently, he is at the stage of data collection on his PhD thesis entitled "*Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.*"

This is therefore to kindly request your cooperation in providing the student letters of cooperation to Education Offices that are located in all the sub-cities under your administration. We would like to thank you in advance for all the assistance that you would provide to the student.

Sincerely,

UNISA REGIONAL LEARNING CENTRE
PO BOX 13836 ADDIS ABABA ETHIOPIA
TEL   +251-114-350141
             +251-114-350078
FAX   +251-114-351243
MOBILE   +251-912-191483

Dr. Tsige GebreMeskel Aberra
Director
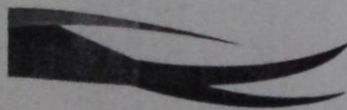
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Regional Learning Center
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APPENDIX D: RESPONSE LETTER FROM AACAEB TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE SAMPLED SCHOOLS IN THE CITY

UNISA | university of south africa

አዲስ አበባ ከተማ አስተዳደር ትምህርት ቢሮ

Biiroo Barnoota Bulchiinsa Magaalaa Finfinnee

City Government of Addis Ababa Education Bureau

ቁጥር / Ref No: _____

ቀን / Date: 03/08/2013

ለ ___ፍሬ ስራዎ___ ክፍል ከተማ ትምህርት ፅ/ቤት

አዲስ አበባ

ጉዳዩ፦ ትብብር እንዲደረግ ስለማሳሰብ።

ከደቡብ አፍሪካ ዩኒቨርስቲ (UNISA) በቀን 09 April,2021 በቁጥር UNISA-ET/KA/ST/29/09-04-21 በተፃፈ ደብዳቤ በ Educational Leadership and Management የትምህርት ክፍል የዶክትሬት ተማሪ የሆኑት አቶ ኤልያስ ሃይለሚካኤል አያሌ "Investigating principals' perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership practices of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia." በሚል ርዕስ ጥናትና ምርምር ለመስራት መረጃ የሚሰበስቡ መሆኑን በመግለፅ የጥናቱን ፋይዳ ከግምት ውስጥ በማስገባት አስፈላጊውን ትብብር እንዲደረግላቸው ጠይቀውናል።

በመሆኑም ለጥናታቸው የሚሆነውን መረጃ ለማሰባሰብ የእናንተ ክፍል ከተማ የተመረጠ በመሆኑ አስፈላጊውን ትብብር እንድታደርጉላቸው አሳስባለሁ።

ከሰላምታ ጋር!!

[signature]

ግልባጭ

በአዲስ አበባ ከተማ አስተዳደር ትምህርት ቢሮ

➤ ለም/ቢሮ ኃላፊ

➤ ለመምህራን ትምህርት አመራርና ባለሙያዎች ልማት አስተዳደር ዳይሬክቶሬት ትምህርት ቢሮ

አድራሻ፦ 6 ኪሎ እንደ ግሬ አጠገብ የአዲስ አበባ ትምህርት ቢሮ ህንፃ 1ኛ ፎቅ
Email: aacaebc@gmail.com
ስልክ Tel +25111 1 22 38 99
ፋክስ Fax 223888
ፖ.ሳ.ቁ. POBox 744, Addis

"ጥራት ያለው ትምህርት ለሁሉም" Barnoota Qulqullina Qabu Hundaaf

APPENDIX E: QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONDENT LETTER FOR CONSENT

Date: _____

Research title: ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.***

Researcher's name: Mr. Elias Hailemichael Ayele

Email address: 67145043@mylife.unisa.ac.za

Cell phone: +251911946432

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

Supervisor's name: Prof. Vimbi Petrus Malhangu

Email address: mahlavp@unisa.ac.za

University of South Africa-Main Campus,

Pretoria, South Africa

College of Education, Department of Educational Leadership and Management

The purpose of the questionnaire and its nature has been explained to me. I take part to complete this survey questionnaire, comprising two parts which will take approximately 25 minutes to complete as a part of the study entitled ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*** for PhD degree at the University of South Africa.

My participation in this survey is voluntary and I have the right to withdraw from answering this survey without penalty at any stage. After the completion of the study, a soft copy of the study will be made available in the sub-city education offices and Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau. The experiences, and perceptions or thoughts will be used for research purposes only and will remain confidential.

I print my name, signature and date below.

Participant's name: _____

Participant's signature: _____

Date: _____

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APPENDIX F: INTERVIEW PARTICIPANT LETTER FOR CONSENT

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Date: _____

Title: ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with IL Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.***

DEAR PROSPECTIVE PARTICIPANT,

My name is Elias Hailemichael Ayele. I am doing research under the supervision of Vimbi Petrus Mahlangu, a professor in the Department of Educational leadership and management towards a PhD degree at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with IL Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia***.

WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

This study is expected to collect important information that could create awareness among principals, teachers and supervisors regarding effective instructional leadership practices in their schools; understand the instructional leadership practices in relation to defining the school mission, managing the instructional programme and developing a positive school learning climate of secondary schools in Addis Ababa City Administration and its manifestation; assist the influence of principals' perceptions and experiences on their instructional leadership practices in the context of the Ethiopian education system; inform policy-makers to revisit and improve the current working policies and practices of instructional leadership, and for principals' recruitment, selection and training in Ethiopian education system context; and help the researcher to develop a new framework of instructional leadership practices for school principals.

WHY AM I BEING INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

I am invited you because of your valuable experiences and expertise related to my research topic.

I obtained your contact details from_____ sub-city education office.

The number of interview participants will be 10 principals and 10 supervisors.

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WHAT IS THE NATURE OF MY PARTICIPATION IN THIS STUDY?

Your role in this study is participating as an interviewee in the interview protocol to give your perceptions, experiences and opinions on the topic of the study. The study involves semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured questions will be asked. The expected duration of participation in an interview will be approximately of 60 minutes in length to take place in a mutually agreed-upon location at a time convenient to you. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences.

CAN I WITHDRAW FROM THIS STUDY EVEN AFTER HAVING AGREED TO PARTICIPATE?

Participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this letter of consent to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

WHAT ARE THE POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF TAKING PART IN THIS STUDY?

Your presence in the study has possible benefits for you, the participants as a group, the scientific community and/ or society. The information you will supply can be used to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current instructional leadership practices as defined by PIMRS Instructional Leadership Model so as to: a) decide principals' readiness for the practices of instructional leadership, and strengthen the practices by addressing the need for improving principals' readiness, capacity, and performance in the system; and b) assist principals in becoming more responsive of their current perceptions and practices on instructional leadership and enable them to positively influence the core business of their schools, the teaching and learning, and then student academic achievement.

ARE THERE ANY NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES FOR ME IF I PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT?

There are no negative consequences to you as a participant in this study, but there will be low expected risks of discomfort that will be removed through explanations and discussions about the intentions of the study.

WILL THE INFORMATION THAT I CONVEY TO THE RESEARCHER AND MY IDENTITY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

With regard to confidentiality, your name will not be recorded anywhere and that no one, apart from the researcher and identified members of the research team, will know about your involvement in this research, and your answers will be given a code number, or a pseudonym and you will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings. Moreover, concerning the anonymity, your name will not be recorded anywhere, and no one will be able to connect you to the answers you give.

Your answers may be reviewed by people responsible for making sure that research is done properly, including the transcriber, external coder, and members of the Research Ethics Review Committee. Otherwise, records that identify you will be available only to people working on the study, unless you give permission for other people to see the records.

HOW WILL THE RESEARCHER(S) PROTECT THE SECURITY OF DATA?

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of 5 years in a locked filing cabinet in my office for future research or academic purposes; electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer for 5 years in my office. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. After 5 years, hard copies will be shredded, and electronic copies will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer through the use of a relevant software programme.

WILL I RECEIVE PAYMENT OR ANY INCENTIVES FOR PARTICIPATING IN THIS STUDY?

There will be no reimbursement or any incentives for participation in the research.

HAS THE STUDY RECEIVED ETHICS APPROVAL?

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from me if you so wish.

HOW WILL I BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS/RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH?

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Elias Hailemichael Ayele on (Cell phone: +251911946432 or email:

67145043@mylife.unisa.ac.za). The findings are accessible for a period of 5 years. Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact on (Cell phone: +251911946432 or email: 67145043@mylife.unisa.ac.za).

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Prof. Vimbi Petrus Mahlangu (email: mahlavp@unisa.ac.za).

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

_____

Researcher's Signature

Elias Hailemichael Ayele

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY (Return slip)

I, _____ (participant name): confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and expected inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet.

I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty (if applicable).

I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified.

I agree to the recording of my interview responses using tape-recorder.

I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Participant's Name and Surname _____

Participant's Signature_____Date _____

Researcher's Name and Surname_____

Researcher's Signature_____Date_____

APPENDIX G: PIMRS QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PRINCIPALS

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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

A questionnaire to be completed by sample public secondary school head and vice-principals

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire forms part of my doctoral research entitled: ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*** for the degree PhD at the University of South Africa. You have been selected by an *available sampling strategy* from sampled schools which have been selected from the population of 66 schools. Hence, I invite you to take part in this survey.

The aim of this study is to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current instructional leadership practices as defined by PIMRS Instructional Leadership Model. The findings of the study may benefit principals in their instructional leadership practices, which will have a positive impact on the quality of teaching and learning, in turn on students' academic achievement.

You are kindly requested to complete this survey questionnaire, comprising two sections as honestly and frankly as possible and according to your personal views and experience. The questionnaire will take approximately 25 minutes to complete.

You are not required to indicate your name or organisation and your anonymity will be ensured; however, indication of your age, gender, occupation position, amongst others, will contribute to a more comprehensive analysis. All information obtained from this questionnaire will be used for research purposes only and will remain confidential. Permission to undertake this survey has been granted by Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. If you have any research-related enquiries, they can be

addressed directly to me or my supervisor. My contact details are: Cell: +251911946432, email:67145043@mylife.unisa.ac.za and my supervisor can be reached at email:mahlavp@unisa.ac.za, Department of Educational Leadership and Management, College of Education, UNISA. By completing the questionnaire, you imply that you have agreed to participate in this research. Please return the completed questionnaire to the researcher within maximum of a week.

Thank you for kind cooperation and patience!

PART I. Demographic Information:

Please provide the following information by putting your response on space provided and by circling to the letter of your choice.

1. Sub-city name:_____
2. School name:_____
3. Gender: a) Male b) Female
4. Age: a) 29 and under b) 30-39 c) 40-49 d) 50 and above
5. Academic Qualification:

    a) Bachelor's degree b) Master's degree c) Other, pleasespecify:_____

6. Your area of specialisation_____
7. Your position as principalship: a) Principal b) Vice-principal
8. Years working as principal in the current school at the end of this school year:

a) 1-4 b) 5-9 c) 10-15 d) More than 15

9. Years of experience as a principal/vice-principal at the end of this school year:

a) 1-4 b) 5-9 c) 10-15 d) More than 15

PART II. This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of your leadership. It consists of 50 behavioural statements that describe principals' job practices and behaviours. You are asked to consider each question in terms of your instructional leadership over the past school year.

Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that best fits the specific job behavior or practice as you conducted it during the past school year. For the response to each statement:

5 represents *Almost Always*
4 represents *Frequently*
3 represents *Sometimes*
2 represents *Seldom*
1 represents *Almost Never*

In some cases, these responses may seem uncomfortable; use your judgement in selecting the most appropriate response to such questions. Please circle only one number per question. Try to answer every question.

To what extent do you . . .?

I. FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS	ALMOST NEVER				ALMOST ALWAYS
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS					
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g., posters or bulletin boards emphasising academic progress)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g., in assemblies or discussions)	1	2	3	4	5
III. SUPERVISEandEVALUATE INSTRUCTION					
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school	1	2	3	4	5
12. Review student work products whenevaluating classroom instruction	1	2	3	4	5
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., inconferencesor written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., inconferencesor written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
IV. COORDINATE THECURRICULUM					
16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, vice-principal, or teacher-leaders)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testingwhen making curricular decisions	1	2	3	4	5
18. Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives	1	2	3	4	5
19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5
V. MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS					
21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss studentprogress	1	2	3	4	5
22. Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
23. Use tests and other performance measure to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME					
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific	1	2	3	4	5

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consequencesfor missing instructional time					
29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time forteaching and practising new skills and concepts	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
VII. MAINTAIN HIGH VISIBILITY					
31. Take time to talk informally with students andteachers during recessandbreaks	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issueswithteachers and students	1	2	3	4	5
33. Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS					
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance	1	2	3	4	5
38. Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files	1	2	3	4	5
39. Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition	1	2	3	4	5
40. Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school					
IX. PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT					
41. Ensure that in-service activities attended bystaffare consistent with the school's goals	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquiredduringin-servicetraining	1	2	3	4	5
43. Obtain the participation of the whole staffinimportantin-serviceactivities	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lead or attend teacher in-service activitiesconcernedwithinstruction	1	2	3	4	5
45. Set aside time at faculty meetings for teacherstoshare ideas or information fromin-serviceactivities	1	2	3	4	5
X. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING					
46. Recognize students who do superior work withformal rewards such as an honor roll or mention intheprincipal's newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
47. Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work	1	2	3	4	5
49. Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary studentperformance or contributions	1	2	3	4	5
50. Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE!

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

A questionnaire to be completed by sample public secondary school teachers

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire forms part of my doctoral research entitled: ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*** for the degree PhD at the University of South Africa. You have been selected by a *simple random sampling* strategy from your school which is part of the sampled schools that have been selected from the population of 66 schools. Hence, I invite you to take part in this survey.

The aim of this study is to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current instructional leadership practices as defined by PIMRS Instructional Leadership Model. The findings of the study may benefit principals in their instructional leadership practices, which will have a positive impact on the quality of teaching and learning, in turn on students' academic achievement.

You are kindly requested to complete this survey questionnaire, comprising two parts as honestly and frankly as possible and according to your personal views and experiences. The questionnaire will take approximately 25 minutes to complete.

You are not required to indicate your name or organisation and your anonymity will be ensured; however, indication of your age, gender, occupation position, amongst others, will contribute to a more comprehensive analysis. All information obtained from this questionnaire will be used for research purposes only and will remain confidential. Permission to undertake this survey has been granted by Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau and the Ethics Committee of the College of

Education, UNISA. If you have any research-related enquiries, they can be addressed directly to me or my supervisor. My contact details are: cell: +251911946432, email:67145043@mylife.unisa.ac.za and my supervisor can be reached at email:mahlavp@unisa.ac.za, Department of Educational Leadership and Management, College of Education, UNISA. By completing the questionnaire, you imply that you have agreed to participate in this research. Please return the completed questionnaire to the researcher within maximum of a week.

Thank you for kind cooperation and patience!

PART I. Demographic Information:

Please provide the following information by putting your response on space provided and by circling to the letter of your choice.

1. Sub-city name:_____
2. School name:_____
3. Gender: a) Male b) Female
4. Age: a) 29 and under b) 30-39 c) 40-49 d) 50 and above
5. Academic Qualification:

a) Bachelor degree b) Master's degree c) Other, please specify: _____

6. The subject you teach_____
7. Grade level(s) you teach_____
8. Years working with the current principals at the end of this school year:

a) 1-4 b) 5-9 c) 10-15 d) More than 15

1. Years of experience as a teacher at the end of this school year:

a) 1-4 b) 5-9 c) 10-15 d) More than 15

PART II. This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of principal leadership. It consists of 50 behavioural statements that describe principals' job practices and behaviours. You are asked to consider each question in terms of your observations of the principals' instructional leadership over the past school year.

Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that best fits the specific job behaviours or practices of these principals during the past school year. For the response to each statement:

5 represents *Almost Always*

4 represents *Frequently*

3 represents *Sometimes*

2 represents *Seldom*

1 represents *Almost Never*

In some cases, these responses may seem uncomfortable; use your judgement in selecting the most appropriate responseto such questions. Please circle only one number per question. Try to answer every question.

To what extent does your principal . . .?

I. FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS	ALMOST NEVER				ALMOST ALWAYS
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS					
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g., posters or bulletin boards emphasising academic progress)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g., in assemblies or discussions)	1	2	3	4	5
III. SUPERVISEandEVALUATE INSTRUCTION					
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school	1	2	3	4	5
12. Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction	1	2	3	4	5
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
IV. COORDINATE THE CURRICULUM					
16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, vice-principal, or teacher-leaders)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions	1	2	3	4	5
18. Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives	1	2	3	4	5
19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5
V. MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS					
21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress	1	2	3	4	5

22. Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
23. Use tests and other performance measure to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME					
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practising new skills and concepts	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
VII. MAINTAIN HIGH VISIBILITY					
31. Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students	1	2	3	4	5
33. Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS					
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance	1	2	3	4	5
38. Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files	1	2	3	4	5
39. Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition	1	2	3	4	5
40. Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school	1	2	3	4	5
IX. PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT					
41. Ensure that in-service activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during in-service training	1	2	3	4	5
43. Obtain the participation of the whole staff in important in-service activities	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lead or attend teacher in-service activities concerned with instruction	1	2	3	4	5
45. Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from in-service activities	1	2	3	4	5
X. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING					
46. Recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in theprincipal's newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
47. Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work	1	2	3	4	5
49. Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions	1	2	3	4	5
50. Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE!

APPENDIX I: PIMRS QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SUPERVISORS

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

A questionnaire to be completed by sample public secondary school supervisors

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire forms part of my doctoral research entitled: ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*** for the degree PhD at the University of South Africa. You have been selected by an available *sampling* strategy from sampled schools which have been selected from the population of 66 schools. Hence, I invite you to take part in this survey.

The aim of this study is to investigate how principals of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia perceive and experience their current instructional leadership practices as defined by PIMRS Instructional Leadership Model. The findings of the study may benefit principals in their instructional leadership practices, which will have a positive impact on the quality of teaching and learning, in turn on students' academic achievement.

You are kindly requested to complete this survey questionnaire, comprising two sections as honestly and frankly as possible and according to your personal views and experience. The questionnaire will take approximately 25 minutes to complete.

You are not required to indicate your name or organisation and your anonymity will be ensured; however, indication of your age, gender, occupation position, amongst others, will contribute to a more comprehensive analysis. All information obtained from this questionnaire will be used for research purposes only and will remain confidential.

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Permission to undertake this survey has been granted by Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. If you have any research-related enquiries, they can be addressed directly to me or my supervisor. My contact details are: cell: +251911946432, email:67145043@mylife.unisa.ac.za and my supervisor can be reached at email:mahlavp@unisa.ac.za, Department of Educational Leadership and Management, College of Education, UNISA. By completing the questionnaire, you imply that you have agreed to participate in this research. Please return the completed questionnaire to the researcher within maximum of a week.

Thank you for kind cooperation and patience!

PART I. Demographic Information:

Please provide the following information by putting your response on space provided and by circling to the letter of your choice.

1. Sub-city name:_____
2. School name:_____
3. Gender: a) Male b) Female
4. Age: a) 29 and under b) 30-39 c) 40-49 d) 50 and above
5. Academic Qualification:

a) Bachelor degree b) Master's degree c) Other, pleasespecify: _____

6. Your area of specialisation_____
7. Your subject(s) of supervision_____
8. Years, at the end of this school year, that you have worked as supervisor with the current principals:

a) 1-4 b) 5-9 c) 10-15 d) More than 15

9. Years of experience as a supervisor at the end of this school year:

a) 1-4 b) 5-9 c) 10-15 d) More than 15

PART II. This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of principal leadership. It consists of 50 behavioral statements that describe principals' job practices and behaviors. You are asked to consider each question in terms of your observations of the principals' instructional leadership over the past school year.

Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that best fits the specific job behaviors or practices of these principals during the past school year. For the response to each statement:

5 represents *Almost Always*
4 represents *Frequently*
3 represents *Sometimes*
2 represents *Seldom*
1 represents *Almost Never*

In some cases, these responses may seem uncomfortable; use your judgement in selecting the most appropriate response to such questions. Please circle only one number per question. Try to answer every question.

To what extent does this principal . . .?

I. FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS	ALMOST NEVER				ALMOST ALWAYS
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS					
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g., posters or bulletin boards emphasising academic progress)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g., in assemblies or discussions)	1	2	3	4	5
III. SUPERVISEandEVALUATE INSTRUCTION					
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school	1	2	3	4	5
12. Review student work products when evaluatingclassroom instruction	1	2	3	4	5
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., inconferencesor written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., inconferencesor written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
IV. COORDINATE THECURRICULUM					
16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal,vice-principal,orteacher-leaders)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testingwhen making curricular decisions	1	2	3	4	5
18. Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives	1	2	3	4	5
19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5
V. MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS					
21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress	1	2	3	4	5
22. Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
23. Use tests and other performance measure to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME					
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office duringinstructional time	1	2	3	4	5

28. Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time forteaching and practising new skills and concepts	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
VII. MAINTAIN HIGH VISIBILITY					
31. Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students	1	2	3	4	5
33. Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS					
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance	1	2	3	4	5
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39. Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition	1	2	3	4	5
40. Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school	1	2	3	4	5
IX. PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT					
41. Ensure that in-service activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquiredduringin-servicetraining	1	2	3	4	5
43. Obtain the participation of the whole staffinimportantin-service activities	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lead or attend teacher in-service activitiesconcernedwith instruction	1	2	3	4	5
45. Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information fromin-serviceactivities	1	2	3	4	5
X. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING					
46. Recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in the principal's newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
47. Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work	1	2	3	4	5
49. Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary studentperformance or contributions	1	2	3	4	5
50. Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE!

APPENDIX J: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PRINCIPALS

UNISA | university of south africa

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Dear Principal,

This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a research. My name is Elias Hailemichael Ayele; I am conducting a research as part of my PhD degree study at the University of South Africa (UNISA) with a topic entitled: ***Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia***. Permission for the study has been given by Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education of UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experiences and expertise related to my research topic. I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you should agree to take part. The importance of principal instructional leadership in education is substantial and well documented. My study which focuses on principals' instructional leadership practices will provide information that can be used to investigate principals' perceptions and experiences with instructional leadership practices of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia to determine what look like the current instructional leadership practices as defined by PIMRS Instructional Leadership Model. In this interview I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve school effectiveness and the instructional leadership practices of secondary school principals in Addis Ababa. Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview session of approximately 60 minutes in length to take place in a mutually agreed-upon location at a time convenient to you. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and

later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or to clarify any points. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. There are low expected risks to you as a participant in this study.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS TO BE ADDRESSED BY PRINCIPALS

1. How do you perceive your current and actual IL practices? What experiences do you have with them?
2. What look like your current and actual IL practices as defined by PIMRS Instructional Leadership Model? Assess your practices in terms of the three dimensions/ ten job functions of the PIMRS IL model.
3. How do you assess the differences between your self-perception as principal with your supervisor's perception with your IL practices? How do you explain it?
4. What challenges do you experience while practising IL activities currently as a principal? Mention some of the challenges.
5. As a principal, what possible solutions can you suggest that contribute for the enhancement of IL practices of principals, including you?
6. As a principal, what recommendations can you make that may serve as strategies for IL practices of principals, including you in AACA?

Thank you very much!

APPENDIX K: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR SUPERVISORS

UNISA | university of south africa

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Dear Supervisor,

This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a research. My name is Elias Hailemichael Ayele; I am conducting a research as part of my PhD degree study at the University of South Africa (UNISA) with a topic entitled: *Investigating Principals' Perceptions and Experiences with Instructional Leadership Practices of Public Secondary Schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*. Permission for the study has been given by Addis Ababa City Administration Education Bureau and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education of UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise related to my research topic. I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you should agree to take part. My study which focuses on principals' instructional leadership practices will provide information that can be used to investigate principals' perceptions and experiences with instructional leadership practices of public secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia to determine what look like the current instructional leadership practices as defined by PIMRS Instructional Leadership Model. In this interview I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve school effectiveness and the instructional leadership practices of secondary school principals in Addis Ababa. Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview session of approximately 60 minutes in length to take place in a mutually agreed-upon location at a time convenient to you. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences. With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information and later transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the

accuracy of our conversation and to add or to clarify any points. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. There are low expected risks to you as a participant in this study.

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS TO BE ADDRESSED BY SUPERVISORS

1. How do you perceive the current and actual IL practices of principals in your school? Assess their IL practices in terms of the three dimensions/ ten job functions of the PIMRS IL model.
2. How do you assess the differences between your perceptions as a supervisor with principals' self-perceptions on their IL practices in your school? How do you explain it?
3. What challenges do principals in your school experience while practising IL activities currently? Mention some of the challenges.
4. As a supervisor, what possible solutions can you suggest that contribute for the enhancement of IL practices of principals in your school?
5. As a supervisor, what recommendations can you make that may serve as strategies for IL practices of principals in AACA?

Thank you very much!

APPENDIX L: DOCUMENT REVIEW CHECKLIST

UNISA | university of south africa

A checklist for the presence or absence of relevant documents related to the practices of IL by principals in each sample school.

- **Sample school code_____**

IL dimension	Documents related to:	Document status	
		Present	Absent
Defining the school mission	Mission statement of the school		
	School goals		
	Formal and/or informal ways of communicating the school's mission and goals with the staff		
	School's IL plan, policy, programmes, standards, guidelines, and procedures		
Managing the instructional programme	Curriculum coordination		
	instructional supervision and evaluation checklists and feedbacks given		
	Assessment of learning of students		
	Monitoring student progress by using different techniques		
Developing a positive school learning climate	Instructional time controlling techniques and mechanisms		
	CPD implementation and portfolios on IL		
	Teachers' and students' incentive strategies		
	High visibility of the principals in classrooms and other instructional premises		

APPENDIX M: PERMISSION TO USE PIMRSQUESTIONNAIRES

September 10, 2019

Dear Elias:

I have given permission for your use of the PIMRS. Note however, that all conditions of use still apply to you (i.e., supplying me with your final soft copy of the study and raw data file).

You now are able to access and use various PIMRSresources on my website at http://philiphallinger.com/tool/survey/PIMRS /a/researchLogin-2.html.

Dr. Philip Hallinger

Professor Philip Hallinger, College of Management, University of Mahidol, Bangkok, Thailand

APPENDIX N: PERMISSION TO PUBLISH PIMRSQUESTIONNAIRES

Sep 15, 2022

Dear Elias Hailemichael,

You already received the letter of permission in the email sent at the time of purchase. So, you have my permission to use the PIMRSin your research and publish items in the appendix of your dissertation.

Congratulations on your achievement!

Professor Philip Hallinger,

Mahidol University and University of Johannesburg

+66-81-881-1667

www.philiphallinger.com/blog

hallinger@gmail.com

APPENDIX O: TURNITIN REPORT

INVESTIGATING PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES
WITH INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES OF PUBLIC
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

ORIGINALITY REPORT

29%	27%	6%	6%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

APPENDIX P: CONFIRMATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDITING

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17 November 2022

Declaration of professional editing

INVESTIGATING PRINCIPALS' PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCES WITH INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES OF PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

BY

ELIAS HAILEMICHAEL AYELE

I declare that I have edited and proofread this thesis. My involvement was restricted to language usage and spelling, completeness and consistency and referencing style. I did no structural re-writing of the content.

I am qualified to have done such editing, being in possession of a Bachelor's degree with a major in English, having taught English to matriculation, and having a Certificate in Copy Editing from the University of Cape Town. I have edited more than 400 Masters and Doctoral theses, as well as articles, books and reports.

As the copy editor, I am not responsible for detecting, or removing, passages in the document that closely resemble other texts and could thus be viewed as plagiarism. I am not accountable for any changes made to this document by the author or any other party subsequent to the date of this declaration.

Sincerely,

Baumgardt

Dr J Baumgardt
UNISA: D. Ed. Education Management
University of Cape Town: Certificate in Copy Editing
University of Cape Town: Certificate in Corporate Coaching
Full member: Professional Editors Guild (BAU001)
Intermediate member: Chartered Institute of Editing and Proofreading (28158)

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