INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORY PRACTICES OF ZIMBABWEAN SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

BY

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IN MEMORIAM

TO

my late father, Richard

TO

my late grandfather, Nombolo

TO

my late uncles, Joel, Enock, Zephaniah and Obed

TO

their memory, I dedicate this work

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And above all, God: Without Him, nothing is possible.

SUMMARY

This study had two major purposes: (a) to investigate and compare the perceptions of principals and teachers towards instructional supervision in Zimbabwe, and (b) to attempt to come up with a framework that would improve the effectiveness of instructional supervision in Zimbabwean schools.

The study highlights the impact of political, cultural and social realities on instructional supervision in developing countries (including Zimbabwe) from which any theories of effective instructional supervision must derive. The phenomenon of instructional supervision and its related concepts is explored and analysed.

The approach and methods used in the study are discussed and finally, the thesis provides a suggested framework for effective instructional supervision in Zimbabwean primary schools which concerns perceptual data which were obtained from 176 principals and 572 teachers drawn from three of Zimbabwe's ten provinces. Factor analysis of the existing situation in Zimbabwe's primary schools produced five major variables that were perceived to be associated with instructional supervision in Zimbabwean primary schools:

- Lack of a clear vision about what should constitute effective instructional supervision;

- instructional supervision models that do not promote the professional growth of teachers;

- ineffective leadership styles;

- internal and external overloads that significantly interfere with the principal's instructional supervision program; and

- inadequate principal capacity building for effective instructional leadership.

This perceptual data, subsequently crystallized into the following suggested instructional supervision initiatives:

- Utilization of instructional supervision models that encourage interaction between the principal and the teacher as opposed to using models that promote fault-finding or principal dominance during the instructional supervision process;

- establishment of a school climate that is conducive to effective instructional supervision;

- establishment of a staff development program that promotes effective instruction;

- establishment of government policies that reduce interference with the instructional supervision programs of principals ; and

- establishment of mechanisms for building skills for principals so that they can effectively conduct instructional supervision.

ACRONYMS

AL	-	Advanced Level
BA	-	Bachelor of Arts
BED	-	Bachelor of Education
BSC	-	Bachelor of Science
CE	-	Certificate in Education
DE	-	Diploma in Education
MED	-	Master of Education
PSC	-	Public Service Commission
PTH	-	Primary Teachers' Higher
PTL	-	Primary Teachers' Lower
OL	-	Ordinary Level

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INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH

1.1   INTRODUCTION

Schools in developing countries face a host of problems related to the twin concepts

of poor classroom instruction and low student achievement. According to Musaazi

(1983:225) developing countries face common problems in providing sufficient

education of high quality to their learners. Typically, these challenges break down to

matters of instructional supervision, teaching behaviours and general low learner

performance. Given this context it becomes necessary to construct new frameworks

in the following aspects: teacher effectiveness, progressive models of supervision and

effective leadership styles (Chung 1996:52). Accordingly, the search for instructional

supervisory strategies that can deal with the lesson delivery capacities of teachers and

poor performance of students of developing countries should be intensified.

Fuller (1991:90) writing on Malawi, puts the context in which instructional supervisors

in developing countries operate rather poignantly as follows:

> The principal is autocratic. Teachers are told what to
> teach in the way which is perceived to be the one best
> way by the principal. Teachers are seen as nothing
> more than appendages of the school management. The
> key words are control, efficiency and accountability.

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Close supervision, no trust in teachers and no room for
initiative for teachers are the key features of the
principal's relationship with the teachers.

With regard to power relations, Harber and Davies (1997:48) assert that in developing

countries power relations are largely hierarchical and authoritarian. They add that this

is an ineffective way of educating for peace and democracy and that this also means

that schools operate in an ineffective manner (Harber and Davies 1997:48). In

developing countries principals play a dominant role in maintaining schools. Holmes

and Wynne (1989:58) describe the most frequently found type of principal in

developing countries as the "benevolent despot". In support, Moll (1995:14) cites an

ethnographic study of a school in South Africa that describes the principal in the

following way:

> *She told other teachers what to do and what to teach*
> *and when and how to do so. She set the timetable and*
> *decided on pupil admissions. She spent most of her day*
> *wondering from class to class, now and then issuing*
> *instructions to teachers or pupils. The principal was the*
> *only person who appeared to make any decisions with*
> *regard to education matters and her style was, in regard*
> *to the formal matters of the school, extremely authoritarian.*

It is pertinent to note that schools have indeed been derided for their bureaucratic and

authoritarian organisational style. Meighan (1995:18) describes the school in

developing countries in the following manner:

> *There is nothing on earth intended for innocent*
> *people so horrible as a school but in some*
> *respects more cruel than a prison.*

Historically, the bureaucratic school model in industrial nations, as Harber and Davies (1997:48) point out, developed from the end of the nineteenth century to meet the demands from churches and businesses for increased basic literacy, and adopted the dominant mode of organisation of the period: bureaucracy. This model of school organisation was exported to those countries now referred to as developing countries. Subsequent to this, other forms of school management have been similarly exported to developing countries with very little regard for the unique contexts in which schools in developing countries find themselves (Barber and Davies 1997:49). Lungu (1983:92) writing on Africa, aptly points out:

> *Most theorizing in administrative sciences has been done on the experiences of European and North American organisations, and almost nothing has been done in African settings, let alone African organisations. What these gaps portent for training programmes in Africa is that new and original thinking and research will be required.*

So far, this original thinking and research in developing countries such as Africa has with some important exceptions been very thin on the ground and piecemeal in nature (Lungu 1988:92). To be sure, as Levin and Lockheed (1993:7) contend, very little research on instructional supervision, teacher effectiveness and student performance has been undertaken in the developing countries. Instead, as alluded to above, developing countries have witnessed an uncritical transportation of theories and tools of supervision without regard to the circumstances of different communities (Hughes 1990:11).

As mentioned earlier, in addition to instructional supervision problems, developing countries face problems related to low academic achievement by pupils. In this regard, Levin and Lockheed (1993:10) posit that developing countries face a host of challenges in providing sufficient instructional supervision to promote education of high quality. In most developing countries primary schools (especially rural ones) there is very little or no organisational capacity to provide quality supervision and learner achievement is largely irrelevant (Levin and Lockheed 1993:10).

Perhaps to some degree, the general lack of effective instructional supervision on teacher performance and subsequently, student achievement is not surprising. Firstly as Levin and Lockheed (1993:12) point out, commitment to provide even the most rudimentary conditions for effective supervision are often lacking. Secondly, while the role of schools in many developing countries may be to symbolize modern bureaucratic institutions, Harber and Davies (1997:49) argue that their actual operation is markedly different from the characteristics of an ideal type bureaucracy described by Weber (1963). In a sense, they display none of the behavioural norms listed by Myrdal (1968:61) which are associated with the efficient functioning of bureaucratic organisations: efficiency, diligence, orderliness, punctuality, honesty, rationality in decision making, preparedness for change and alertness to opportunities.

It is the contention of this study that schools in developing countries are largely aimed at what Harber and Davies (1997:52) term the three "rs", rote, retention and regurgitation. Investigation, problem-solving and independent thinking are highly unlikely to result from these processes of learning and teaching. In this regard Fuller

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(1991:127) observes that although many an African state preach the virtues of self-reliance, effectiveness and entrepreneurial initiative, the authority structure previously found in colonial schools continues to be reproduced. This may well suit the authoritarian governments in developing countries since the last thing they want is a questioning and critical citizenry. In this sense, schools are highly effective in helping to subordinate and control the population (Fuller 1991:27).

What seems to emerge from the foregoing is that the principals in the developing countries cannot be expected to promote those models of instructional supervision that are inconsistent with the environment under which they operate, namely an environment which promotes authoritarian and dictatorial tendencies.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR RESEARCH

In the process of improving teacher instructional competencies, many educators have come to realise that the quality of instruction depends not only on teachers but on principals as well. Principals have the responsibility of assisting teachers in making decisions regarding the quality of their instructional competencies. Yet they (principals) often lack the necessary skills to provide teachers with the help they need to develop instructionally. Madziyire (2003:136) quotes Nyagura and Reece (1989) who contend that "... in quite a number of schools due to a shortage of trained teachers, inexperienced teachers have been placed in supervisory roles".

Ozigi (1977:89) advises that "principals require conceptual skills in supervision in its

broadest sense in order to ensure that they fully understand what their roles and tasks as supervisors of schools are". Lack of supervisory skills may result in conflict between teachers and supervisors when teachers feel unfairly treated. One way of improving the teacher-supervisor relationship therefore is through supervisor training. In this regard, Harber and Davies (1997:67) note that in developing countries, principals of schools emerge from the teaching population and have had little or no training for the job. They argue that "[a] major concern for school management debates in recent years has been the need to train principals" (Harber and Davies 1997:67). Harber and Davies (1997) are supported by Marks (1985:224) who says that "[p]rincipals are chosen because they are good at one thing [teaching] and put into managerial roles which can demand quite different skills".

Ndebele (2000:4) observes that "...it is perhaps in this context [portraying a lack of principal's supervisory skills] that most teachers are apprehensive about being supervised; they appear to be dissatisfied with supervisors' classroom observations, hence the negative views towards instructional supervision". McLaughlin (1984) quoted in Madziyire (2005:110) comments that most teachers place several charges against classroom observation by supervisors. They criticise it for being infrequent and unreliable. This is corroborated by Marks (1985:225) who writes that "... many teachers fear a visit by the supervisor often with good reason. They dislike having to defend methods and techniques which they found successful. Teachers object to being told what to do." Acheson and Gall (1987:34) seem to capture how most teachers feel by quoting a dissatisfied teacher:

> *...what grips me more about this so called supervision is that the principal comes into my room once a year for about an hour. It is a scary unpleasant experience. I would not mind if I was being supervised by someone who's been a success in the classroom, but usually its someone who was a poor teacher who has been pushed into an administrative position and to top it off, that person [principal] usually has had no training whatsoever in how to supervise.*

Wiles (1967:26) also provides information on teachers' perceptions of their supervisors.

He cites one teacher who describes his principal's supervision as follows:

> *...instead of coming into my room and observe my teaching, he would hide in a small storeroom next to my room and listen in on my class. After I found out about this I felt ill at ease in anything I tried. It always seemed to me as though he were in the storeroom.*

Teachers could well provide valuable advice on how they prefer to be assisted in their instructional roles. One Washington teacher (Wiles 1967:63) praised her principal for making the following statement about observation during a pre-planning session: "I want to feel free to come and go from room to room, not with the idea of criticising but to establish a feeling of understanding to know you and your pupils better. You are free to come to me if I can be of assistance." Musaazi (2002:233) asserts that "if instruction in schools is to be improved, the supervisor must take the lead in providing a pleasant, stimulating and wholesome environment in which teachers will want to work and feel secure". The school climate or feel and atmosphere must be such that the supervisor is not viewed as a threat by the teachers, but as an instructional leader.

In Zimbabwe, instructional supervision has been a practice since education was introduced by missionaries in the nineteenth century (Murimba and Moyo 2000:58). In early days, supervision was characterised by a different dimension, namely inspection. Chibvonga (1995:19) alludes to inspection as "the act of scrutinising officially or examining closely especially for faults or errors". Madziyire (2003:180) says of supervision during the early days : "... in those days supervision was focused on strict adherence to present curriculum content, timetable and methodology within a stipulated period of time by teachers. Those who followed the given curriculum were highly rated while those who did not, faced the wrath of inspectors." Inspectors forced teachers to use methods of teaching that encouraged rote learning.

As time moved on, some new developments in the nature of supervision were experienced in Zimbabwe. Madziyire (2003:210) observes that "... the democratic administration movement which was occurring in the United States of America (during the 1970s and 1980s) influenced the supervision process in Zimbabwe". According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983:281) "[t]he democratic administration movement was based on the assumption that improving instructional activity depends on the maintenance of warm and friendly relations between the supervisor and the teacher". Murimba (1999:141) states that:

> ...with the post independence democratization of the education system and the popularization of discovery learning, there was [in Zimbabwe] some attempt of supervising teachers so that they could demonstrate a concern for individual needs and interests of learners. Demonstration lessons became popular as supervisors sought to encourage the talent of each individual.

Despite the above assertion by Murimba (1999), Beaton (2001:5) observes that "[w]hile the political changes that were taking place in Zimbabwe in the. 1980s forced supervisors to be more human in their supervision of teachers, an element of inspection still lingered on". Mlilo (1997:38) confirms this on a study he conducted on the effectiveness of school principals in Zimbabwe. He reveals that "... a large percentage of teachers would not look forward to supervision as they felt supervision was a very unpleasant experience" (Mlilo 1997:38). In Zimbabwean schools what is currently happening according to Chibvonga (2002:168) is that, "... supervision is through inspection and control. Teachers are hired to carry out specific duties according to clearly stipulated requirements of management." Chivore (1996:35) describes this type of supervision as, "autocratic, dictatorial and tense. Such an atmosphere is riddled with non-supportive, suspicious and apathetic tendencies which are not conducive to effective supervision". Thus, the relationship that exists between principals and teachers is that of bosses and employees.

What further complicates the relations between principals and teachers in Zimbabwe is the situation described by Madziyire (2003:116) when he comments thus:

> ... another reason why teachers resent supervision could be because of the role conflict of the principal as instructional supervisor and administrator. When supervision is undertaken by the administrator, [as is the case in Zimbabwe], there is potential role conflict. This conflict is based on the fact that expectations of supervisory behaviour are not in keeping with those of administrative behaviour. This is because the administrative behaviour is based on bureaucratic authority.

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Bureaucratic authority calls for such action as being impersonal and sticking to rules and regulations. However, when the same administrator takes on the role of supervisor, he/she is expected to be a colleague, helping the teacher to develop and grow professionally. Beaton (2001:10) posits that "[s]upervision calls for personal relationships and a non-threatening and trusting atmosphere, yet the administrator's perceived authority in the school does not allow for colleagueship. The principal is the administrator to the subordinate and is in no way seen as a colleague."

It is in the light of the above information relating to instructional supervisory contexts in the developing countries in general and Zimbabwe in particular, and the significance of supervision, that this thesis investigates the instructional supervisory practices of Zimbabwean school principals. Supervision of instruction as seen by Beach and Reinhartz (1989:3) is [t]he improvement of instruction by fostering the continued professional development of all teachers. In the current Zimbabwean context, there is no other officer in its Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture who has the obligation and authority to carry out instructional supervision at school level other than the school principal. This is corroborated by the Minister of Education, Sport and Culture [Aneas Chigwedere 2001] in Ndebele (2002:68) who proclaims that:

> *... as the principal of your school by delegated authority from the Minister and Director General, you are in undisputed control of your school, you have the widest liberty to vary courses, alter the timetable, to decide the organisation of the school and government within the school, to experiment with teaching methods and to assess student achievement.*

The information above clearly demonstrates that Zimbabwe's Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture puts the principal firmly at the centre of all operations at school level. According to Ndebele (2002:68) "... Head Office, Provincial Officers and District Education Officers can give guidance, but must keep the distance". Since supervision of instruction which is at the core of learning in the school is the responsibility of the principal, with other players merely complementing his/her efforts, it seemed necessary to investigate the instructional supervisory practices of Zimbabwean principals.

The research seeks to conscientise principals about the best supervisory practices they can apply in order to promote teacher effectiveness. It is hoped that the research will contribute significantly towards a better understanding of the complex process of instructional supervision and will assist school principals in making the supervisory process more effective. This is important because, as stated, the merits of proper supervision are the improvement of the pupils' performance and ultimately their results. According to Beach and Reinhartz (1989:5) "... good supervision may help to bring about good results by learners in that, when supervisors work more effectively with teachers with a clear focus on classroom instruction, this is most likely to produce improved classroom instruction by teachers which, in turn, would in all probability lead to good performance by students".

The study is also important because it seeks to expose principals to models of supervision which are flexible and responsive to diverse supervision situations. It is hoped that the study will also contribute to the existing corpus of knowledge on supervision which Zimbabwean Education Officers, Provincial Directors, Universities

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and indeed the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture may use for staff development purposes in future in order to improve the supervision of instruction at schools which would ultimately improve the results of students.

1.3   DESCRIPTION OF THE PROBLEM AND PROBLEM FORMULATION

The description of the problem has to a great extent been incorporated into the previous section which focused on the rationale for this study.   In essence the researcher has become aware of grave shortcomings concerning supervision of teachers by school principals in Zimbabwe.   This realisation resulted in the researcher's broad vision with this study which was to analyse the instructional supervision practices of Zimbabwean school principals in order to establish how they carry out supervision of instruction at their schools so that supervision can be improved.   Learning is central to the functions of a school, and it is important that instruction which is a basic tool to promote learning is perfected, also by means of supervision.   As Beach and Reinhartz (1989:153) observe "... it is generally believed that if teachers are left to develop themselves, they may not try to develop their teaching skills."   This then underlines the significance of instructional supervision by principals to help teachers perfect their teaching skills.

To this end, the fundamental problem that this study addresses is:

What does instructional supervision pertaining to Zimbabwean primary school principals entail?

From this basic, overarching question, the following sub-questions are addressed:

☆   What do Zimbabwean principals understand by the concept instructional supervision?

☆   What models of supervision are commonly used by Zimbabwean principals?

☆   What is the extent to which principals help teachers at a variety of professional levels to improve instruction?

☆   What are the problems faced by principals during the supervision of instruction?

☆   What are Zimbabwean teachers' views towards instructional supervision?

☆   Do principals effectively help their teachers to improve their teaching skills?

☆   How best can Zimbabwean principals be assisted to improve their supervisory skills?

1.4   AIM OF RESEARCH

The aim of the research is to provide principals in Zimbabwean schools with the necessary concepts and skills needed to help teachers improve classroom instruction

and subsequently increase student achievement. The ultimate aim of the research is the improvement of instruction due to improved supervisory practices conducted by school principals.

More specifically, the study is guided by four major objectives:

1.4.1 to enable principals to be aware of supervisory roles that promote teacher effectiveness;

1.4.2 to make principals aware of effective teaching behaviours;

1.4.3 to expose principals to modern models of supervision which have worked elsewhere to promote student achievement; and

1.4.4 to guide principals as they work with teachers in their quest for instructional excellence which could lead to high standards of student achievement.

1.5 RESEARCH APPROACHES AND METHODS

Research approaches refer to the philosophy of the research process; which include the assumptions and values that serve as a rationale for research and the standards or criteria the researcher uses for interpreting data and reaching conclusions (Bailey 1982:32; Leedy 1998:58; Haralambos 1990:725). On the other hand, methods simply mean the research technique or tool used to gather data (Ndebele 2003:68; Van Dalen 1979:436; Bailey 1982:32).

1.5.1 Research Approaches

This study employs both the quantitative and qualitative approaches in order to utilize the strengths of the two approaches in analysing the teachers' and principals' perceptions on instructional supervision in Zimbabwean schools.

1.5.1.1 The quantitative research approach

Leedy (1993:140) is of the opinion that the quantitative research approach is usually based on what is called a logical positivist philosophy, which assumes there are social facts with a single objective reality separated from the feelings and beliefs of individuals. Further (Schurink (2000) cited in Ndebele 2003:54) states that the quantitative researcher believes in an objective reality which can be explained, controlled and predicted by natural (cause-effect laws). The quantitative approach believes that human behaviour can be explained in causal ways and that people can be manipulated and controlled (Erickson 1973 as cited in Pons 1993:710). This approach (quantitative) was used in this study in order to attempt to establish universal, context-free generalisations about the instructional supervision process in Zimbabwean schools. More information on this approach is provided in chapter four which deals with the research design.

1.5.1.2 The qualitative research approach

Wilson (1977) as cited in House (1994:75) states that "...the qualitative research is

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more concerned with understanding the social phenomenon from the participants' perspectives. The qualitative approach researcher believes that human actions are strongly influenced by the settings in which they occur." Further as Merriman (1997) as cited by Ndebele (2002:49) states "... those who work within this approach (qualitative) assert that the social scientist cannot understand human behaviour without understanding the framework within which the subjects interpret their thoughts, feelings and actions". More information is provided on this research approach in chapter four. This approach was applicable in this study because it helped the researcher to uncover and describe the teachers' and principals' first hand attitudes and experience of the instructional supervision process in their schools.

1.5.2 Research methods

The inclusion of multiple sources of data collection in a study is likely to increase the reliability of the observations or findings (House 1994:112). This study used questionnaires and semi-structured interviews as the main devices to gather opinions and attitudes of the teachers and principals.

Method triangulation is employed in this study mainly because the correlation between instructional supervision and teacher effectiveness is considered a complex phenomenon and also to minimise threats to validity, both internal and external (Tuchman 1994:366).

McFee (1992:215) suggests that triangulation may be of fundamentally, two types. The first is triangulation between methods in which mutual validation is sought. The second

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variety is triangulation within a method which takes as its starting point the claim that the reality of the situation is not to be apprehended from a single point of view.

1.5.2.1 Triangulation between methods

This study draws its data collecting tools from the broad parameters of the survey research approach. The study relies mainly on the following methods: questionnaires and semi structured interviews. However, the idea of triangulation between the two used methods was less problematic because both methods specifically focussed on the perceptions of teachers and principals with regards to the process of instructional supervision in their schools.

1.5.2.2 Triangulation within methods

The other version of triangulation that is used in this study is triangulation within a method. In this instance, the variables are articulated from various points: those of the principals and teachers in order to cross validate the information collected from the two sources.

1.5.2.3 The questionnaires

According to McMillan and Schumacher (1997) cited in Madziyire (2003:47) "... a questionnaire is an instrument with open or closed questions or statements to which a respondent must react". Different kinds of questionnaires can be distinguished, such

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as mailed or posted questionnaires, telephonic questionnaires or the group questionnaire (Leedy 1995:190). As discussed in chapter four, (see section 4.5.3.1) this study used the mailed or posted questionnaire because it permits a wide coverage of respondents at a minimum expense in both money and time; it affords greater validity in the result by selecting a larger and more representative sample (Tuchman 1994:367).

Some of the disadvantages of the mailed questionnaires are that there is generally a low response rate; it is difficult to get questions that explore in depth information; there might be lack of urgency and non-returns by respondents; and some questionnaires may get lost due to poor postal services (Beaton 2001:27; Bailey 1982:157; Tuchman 1994:367).

Data collected using questionnaires were summarised in quantitative tables and graphs for all the close-ended questions and for the open-ended responses, the study used qualitative description including qualitative verbatim reporting.

1.5.2.4 Semi-structured interviews

This type of interview uses a combination of open-ended questions and closed questions and allows the interviewees to express themselves at some length but has sufficient structure to prevent aimless mumbling (Bailey 1982:200; Haralambos 1990:737).

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The interview tends to have a better response rate than the mailed questionnaire; persons who are unable to read and write can still answer questions in an interview; the interviewer can record spontaneous answers and the observer is present to observe non verbal behaviour and to assess the validity of the respondent's answers (Oppenheim 1992:84; Bailey 1982:183).

In this study, the interview was used because it (the interview) makes it possible for the researcher to measure at first hand what principals and teachers know about instructional supervision and what their (principals' and teachers') values and preferences as well as attitudes and beliefs are.

The interview has its limitations though. Interviews are often lengthy and may require the interviewer to travel distances; there is no anonymity as the interviewer knows the respondent's name and address; and interview studies can be extremely costly (Bailey 1982:183; Ndebele 2002:54; Tuchman 1994:367). For this study, data from the interviews was coded by reading through the field notes and making comments that contain notions about what can be done with the different parts of the data. More information on interviews is provided in chapter four which deals with the research design.

1.5.2.5 Literature study

The literature review in this study, which comprises two interlinked chapters (chapter two and three) involved consulting relevant published books, published and

unpublished dissertations and thesis and research articles and journals. It is from the study of these documents that:

★   a conceptual framework for the existing contextual realities for primary school instructional supervisors in developing countries in general and in Zimbabwe in particular are examined;

★   a conceptual framework for judging effective models of supervision and effective teaching behaviours is established and critiqued;

Additionally, relevant documents from the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture are also used to analyse the official perspectives on the supervisory regime in the Zimbabwean schools. The analysis of these documents not only reveals retrospective information about instructional supervision, but also depicts the current situation.

1.6   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The decisions about the limited number of provinces, principals and teachers naturally limits the feasibility of this study. While it is quite possible for the perceptions of a small number of principals and teachers to be representative of many of their colleague's perceptions in their locality, the same cannot be said with any great confidence with regard to the perceptions of the rest of the principals and teachers in Zimbabwe in general.

Ideally, the researcher would have liked to cover even more principals and teachers,

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but this was not possible because of the constraints of time. Further, the limited resources at the researchers' disposal had to be considered in determining the size of both the sampling and the units of analysis.

1.7 DELIMITATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY

The study comprises six interlinked chapters. The first three chapters build towards the final responses (theoretical and empirical) to the research questions in this study which translate themselves into suggested supervisory strategies and a conceptual framework for facilitating effective instructional supervision in Zimbabwe.

1.7.1 Chapter one: Introduction to research

The first chapter of this study, comprises the focal theory which spells out what is being researched and why. The supervisory practices of principals in developing countries cannot be expected to promote the use of supervision models and leadership styles that are inconsistent with the political and social environment under which they operate.

Therefore, the chapter meets the story line that in order for school principals in developing countries to be effective instructional supervisors, it is critical that supervision strategies are reconstructed to ensure the effectiveness of principals and teachers. The chapter attempts to do this through the examination of others' arguments and the use of the researchers' own data and analytical skills.

1.7.2 Chapter two: Conceptualisation of contextual realities relevant to instructional supervision in schools in developing countries

The second chapter has two parts. The first part comprises an analysis of the impact of political, cultural and social crises in developing countries on instructional supervision. The main aim here is to highlight the environment from which principals in schools operate. This is done by means of literature review with a view to locating the present state of supervision in terms of development, controversies, breakthroughs in the subject of the relationship between contextual factors and education in general and instructional supervision and teacher effectiveness in particular.

The following contextual aspects in relation to instructional supervision in developing countries are examined:

☆   the social context

☆   the political context;

☆   the cultural context;

☆   the economic context; and

☆   the historical context.

The second part, focuses on some of the important effects of the uncritical adoption, either by design or imposition of the bureaucratized and formalised models of instructional supervision regardless of the contextual constraints discussed in the preceding section. It examines, among other things, the historical roots of supervisory

practice, the nature of instructional supervision in developing countries and uses examples from ethnographic research to focus on the actual job of the school principal in developing countries. In a sense, this part of the chapter, attempts to depict the supervision realities, organisation and culture from which school effectiveness in developing countries must emanate.

1.7.3 Chapter three: Conceptual framework for understanding and explaining instructional supervision

Chapter three analyses in detail the phenomenon of supervision and is related concepts. The chapter is divided into four parts. The first part attempts to define the concept of instructional supervision and also outlines its purposes. The second part outlines the roles of the instructional supervisor as perceived by various experts in the field of supervision. The third part focuses on the models of supervision and the leadership styles associated with them (models). Finally, the fourth part of the chapter comprises of an analysis of the concept staff development as it relates to instructional supervision.

1.7.4 Chapter four: Research design and methodology

In chapter four, the research question: "What are the instructional supervisory practices of Zimbabwean primary school principals? Is addressed. In posing his question, the study is indeed aware of the social science maze of consensus or conflict, heredity or environment, determinism or indeterminism, stability or change and so on. This is a

problem that even eclecticism cannot resolve.

1.7.4.1 Design of study

The design of this study does not wish to take the easy path of eclecticism but opts for a synthesis of the open systems and phenomenological paradigms. The former approach systems metaphors and views organisational systems as being open to their contextual realities. The latter paradigm accepts that there are limiting factors but not that there are determining factors to the human being.

The ecosystemic perspective considers the problems of supervision in primary schools in developing countries to be the product of interactions between principals and teachers themselves and between teachers and ;earners. These interactions occur in a certain context. But from this perspective it is necessary to consider the possible influence of wider systems.

At the second level, analysis of supervision strategies is widened to include the influence of local leaders and communities. This design sees principals of schools in developing countries as playing a critical role in mediating the effects of both local leaders and communities on what the school does in mobilising the resources from each for school effectiveness.

While arguing that strengthening community involvement and using local leaders can lead to school effectiveness in developing countries, this design also argues that

supervision strategies to increase democracy and teacher efficiency do not exist in a vacuum. These strategies are influenced by policies pursued at provincial and national level. Consequently, this perspective sees primary school supervision intervention initiatives as needing to take into consideration the perceptions and behaviour of all the constituencies involved within the school's improvement.

The point of departure of the phenomenological perspective is that the human being is a self, he/she can distantiate himself/herself from himself/herself and from the world. As Alant et al (1981:63) point out, because the human being is not determined by factors, he/she does not have a given life world. He/she must continually create his/her own life world. Consequently, the design of this study seeks to reconstruct the conceptualisation of the value of the principal as strictly instrumental.

1.7.4.2   Methods and data collection instruments

Within the parameters of the perspectives, both quantitative and qualitative approaches of gathering information are preferred. Thus, the survey method is aimed at generating mainly quantitative data (or date measured by quantity) while the ex-post facto method is assigned to extract mainly qualitative data (data concerned with quality). In this usage quantitative data tend to be equated with numerical data, and qualitative data with non-numerical data. Therefore, the questionnaire technique is used to gather mainly the former set of data and the interview schedule is used to capture the latter set of data.

One hundred and seventy six principals (selected from three provinces) and five hundred and seventy six teachers (selected from three provinces) were the focus of collection of data. A more detailed account of design, method, methodology, instrument development and analyses can be found in chapter four.

1.7.5 Data presentation, analysis and discussion

In chapter five the results of the investigation are presented in tables and graphs and then discussed in relation to the fundamental problem and its sub-problems.

1.7.6 Chapter six: Summary, conclusions and recommendations

In the last chapter, chapter six, conclusions are drawn and recommendations on effective instructional supervision strategies are made. Additionally, the chapter is concerned with the evaluation of this study to the development of instructional supervision in Zimbabwe focussing on among other things:

☆ The significance of the analysis in chapter four;

☆ the limitations of the material used; and

☆ what new work , if any, is now appropriate.

1.8 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.8.1 Instructional supervision

The concept of instructional supervision has been variously defined and interpreted over the years. According to Pfeiffer and Dunlop (1982:1) instructional supervision is

> [a] multifaceted interpersonal process dealing with teaching behaviour, curriculum, learning environments, grouping of students, teacher utilisation, and professional development. Also there are miscellaneous responsibilities which may include writing proposals for grants, providing public relation services, or fulfilling assignments which superordinates decide to delegate.

Another definition of instructional supervision is provided by Glatthern (1984:2) who explains the term this way:

> It is a process of facilitating the professional growth of a teacher, primarily by giving the teacher feedback about classroom interactions and helping the teacher make use of that feedback in order to make teaching more effective.

For Beach and Reinhartz (1989:7) instructional supervision is

> [t]he process of interaction in which individuals [supervisors] work with teachers to improve instruction. The ultimate goal is better student learning. The achievement of this goal may involve changing teacher behaviour, modifying curriculum, and / or restricting the learning environment.

In the context of this study and building from the above ideas, instructional supervision is the process of working with teachers to improve classroom instruction. To be effective, supervisors must utilise knowledge of organisations, leadership, communication, and teaching principles as they work with teachers in classrooms and improve instruction by increasing student achievement.

1.8.2 Leadership

The concept of leadership has a variety of definitions. Koontz, O'Donnel and Weinrich (1984:96) define leadership as "...the process of influencing people so that they will strive willingly and enthusiastically towards the achievement of organisational goals". Szilagyi (1981:442) perceive leadership as "a process involving two or more people in which one attempts to influence the others behaviour towards the accomplishment of some goal or goals.

From the above definitions, it emerges that leadership is a process which involves other people (teachers) and the influence of those people by the leader (principal) to direct their behaviour at the accomplishment of a set goal (high performance of pupils).

For Murimba (1997:3), leadership comprises the four interrelated components namely influence, followers, goal directedness and process which are mentioned in the two definitions by Koontz, O'Donnel and Weinrich (1984) and by Szilagyi (19810. Leadership as a process, according to Murimba (1997:3), implies that it is an ongoing

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activity. It is not static nor is it an event. It involves continuous interaction. This further implies that the leader has to establish communication systems.

The involvement of other people means that leadership realises within the context of a group of people. Leadership is only possible when there are people to be led. Influence implies convincing other people to see the leader's point of view without coersion. The subordinates should be involved in a task they believe in. They should show commitment. They should feel that they are working on a task in which they have a stake. Goal directedness means that people are focused on the achievement of set goals. As a result of the leader's (principal's) influence, followers (teachers), should see the set goals as their own (Murimba 1997:3).

1.8.3 Instruction

Instruction may be understood to mean the process of teaching or providing knowledge. In this context, the instruction as a process is equated with teaching which, according to Hunter (1984:69) is defined as

> [t]he constant stream of professional decisions
> that affects the probability of learning; decisions
> that are made and implemented before, during
> and after interactions with the students.

Significant in the above definition is that there are decisions made by the instructor (teacher) and that such decisions can lead to learning during and after interaction with

students. Thus, instruction, in its broad sense, depends upon effective preparation and planning and in doing so, priorities for instruction are prioritised.

Hunter (1984:69) suggests that

> *[b]efore and during instruction, decisions have to be made about the type of learners, objectives to be achieved, task structure, method of instruction as well as time allocated to specific tasks. Instruction then implies lesson implementation.*

According to Beach and Reinhartz (1989:8) instruction involves tasks such as telling, explaining, defining, providing examples, stressing critical attributes, modelling and demonstrating. What is important to the instructional supervisor (principal) is the extent to which the instructor (teacher) successfully accomplishes the instructional tasks. The instructional supervisor (principal) should be able to guide the staff (teachers) to achieve these tasks in order to ensure that learning goes on. More than that, the instructional supervisor (principal) should be conversant with what constitutes effective teaching/instruction. The supervisor (principal) should also be able to detect the absence of such effective instruction/teaching behaviours Beach and Reinhartz (1989:10).

1.9 CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

This introductory chapter has spelt out in some detail what the study is researching and why. The nature of the problem and research question have been established. The

chapter also dealt with the limitations of the study, the research approach and methods, the demarcations of the study and definition of key terms. In a sense, this chapter has set the framework for the remainder of the chapters in this study.

In the next chapter, an analysis of the political, cultural and social issues on instructional supervision mainly in developing countries is developed. Here, the crisis generated by adverse contextual realities and their impact on instructional supervision are reviewed and critiqued.

CHAPTER TWO

A CONCEPTUALISATION OF

CONTEXTUAL

REALITIES RELEVANT TO

INSTRUCTIONAL

SUPERVISION IN SCHOOLS IN

DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

CHAPTER TWO

2. A CONCEPTUALISATION OF CONTEXTUAL REALITIES RELEVANT TO INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION IN SCHOOLS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter one, we argued that theories and principles of instructional supervision are not necessarily universal and that there is need to explore and explain the unique nature of the context in which educational institutions operate in developing countries.

However, as pointed out in chapter one, the need to generalise about developing countries contain an inherent risk that contrasts between developing countries and similarities with developed countries are not adequately addressed. As a result conditions and realities discussed in this chapter fall within the broad continuum rather than within an absolute divide. As Alent et al (1981:68) point out, establishing how society models are developed or developing provides an empirical opportunity, albeit a hazardous one, for insights into the living together of people. In this regard, the hypothesis may be advanced that in practice it is possible that in most societies the developed and developing worlds overlap.

Be that as it may be, as Harber and Davies (1997:10) argue, it remains reasonably true that the everyday contexts in which principals and educational institutions function in some developing countries differ markedly from those predominant in developed countries . Moreover, the term " developing countries" suggests a temporary stage between a particular past and a predictable future state.

The main argument of this chapter therefore is that often the context in which primary school instructional supervision occurs in developing countries may be very different from that obtained in developed countries. Consequently, to motivate this assumption, this chapter focuses on:

✦ the conceptualisation of societies as models, to establish the conceptual basis for the hypothesis that developed countries and developing countries are typologically different;

✦ the conceptualisation of developing countries as a unique typology;

✦ the examination of demographic, educational, health, economic resource, political and cultural dimensions in the context of developing countries; and

✦ the impact of these contextual dimensions on education in general, and primary school instructional supervision in particular.

2.2   THE CONCEPTUALISATION OF SOCIETIES AS TYPOLOGIES

Educational and instructional supervision occur in a variety of societies. However, many junior students of social sciences, particularly those of sociology and education,

are usually introduced to the concept of society as though there is one idea of society. As Alant et al (1981:73) point out, this is of course a false impression as there are many divergent or even conflicting models of society.

2.2.1. Some frameworks for analysing societies

The conceptualisation of society adopted by a social scientist will, to a very large extent, be determined by his/her own perspectives. This can be seen clearly in the structural- functional analysis of society by Parsons (1955), Weber (1963) and Marx (1878). According to Parsons (1977), for example, society as a special type of a social system is characterised by a high degree of self-sufficiency in relation to its environment. In this regard society can be analysed in terms of its values, norms, roles and so on.

Karl Marx (1878) on the other hand, sees society as a product of people's reciprocal action. Society is analysed by Marx (1878) in terms of two basic structural dimensions, namely a super structure (the state, military organisation, law, the family, education, religion and morality based on the ideologies of a particular society) and a subculture which is the material basis of society manifested in the productive forces (the class system, production relations, products and means of production) Alant et al (1981:73). Clearly, Marx bases his analysis on conflict and change.

The structural-functional analysis of Weber (1963) provides yet another way of analysing society. Weber (1963) who seems opposed to Durkheim's (1938) reification

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of society as an entity sees society as an entire system of interrelated and interconnected institutions, collectivities and groups Alant et al (1981:74) . Weber's (1963) frame of reference includes concepts for the analysis of social conflict and order : power systems, social relationships, kinds of order and patterns of relationships between institutions in certain types of society. For Weber (1963), therefore, society has an objective dimension as well as a subjective dimension such as groups, relations and so on .

Principally, therefore, social philosophers and sociologists differ on their conceptualisation and analyses of society. This is so, mainly because of the different perspectives they employ. For example, great philosophers like Plato and Augustine and classical sociologists such as Comte, Durkhein, Marx and Weber all developed fairly distinctive hypothesis of societies, following largely, the principal perspectives of functionalism, marxism, or phenomenology. Ultimately though, different types of society can be distinguished on the basis of the particular stage of development and their productive agents as can be seen in the works of three modern theorists whose respective societal models mirror the above respective approaches.

2.2.2 Parson's structural-functional typology of societies

Parsons (1977) one of the modern sociologists in his book *The Evolution of societies* uses his method of organismic structural analysis to demonstrate how, through centuries, societies have undergone an evolutionary process of increasing differentiation, segmentation and functional socialisation. This has according to Alant

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et al (1981:84) resulted in different societies which, if compared, reveal different structural features in that the effect of the process of increasing differentiation on cultural, social, political and economic institutions varies to the extent that the adaptive capacity differs from one society to another. In consequence, some societies are more successful in controlling their environment than others.

In this regard, Parsons (1977) identifies six development "evolutionary breakthroughs":

✦ the emergence of a system of social stratification;

✦ an explicit cultural legitimation due to differentiation of the cultural system;

✦ the institutionalisation of authority of office;

✦ the introduction of a market mechanism for mobilising resources;

✦ the establishment of a rational and generalised legal system; and

✦ the implementation of a democratic power structure and association.

Working from these assumptions Parsons (1977:33) analysed and compared several types of societies, namely primitive societies, advanced primitive societies, archaic society, advanced historical intermediate societies, transition to modern societies, modern societies and post -modern societies.

Parsons (1977) uses a consensus model to develop a comprehensive typology of societies and describes his method as an evolutionary and comparative one founded on a structural functional frame of reference. His typology can be summarized as in table 2.1. below.

Table 2.1:   Parsons' Typology of Societies

TYPE AND DESCRIPTION	CHARACTERISED MAINLY BY
Primitive Societies ✦ Primitive ✦ Advanced primitive	✦ Highly homogenous at social and cultural levels, predominance of kinship systems. ✦ Stratification; some form of political organisation.
Intermediate Societies ✦ Archaic ✦ Advanced ✦ "Seed bed" ✦ Transition to modern societies	✦ Literacy, cosmological religion. ✦ Comprehensive political organisation. ✦ Cultural innovations. ✦ Diffuse hierarchical relations.
Modern Societies	✦ Enlightenment (reason and science, not religion advance human progress).
Post Modern Societies	✦ Completion of modernisation.

Adopted from Alant etal (1981:88)

2.2.3 Habermas' Marxist typology of societies

Habermas (1976) in his book *Legitimation crisis* advanced a model of societies that contrasts that of Parsons. Using the Marxist perspective, he distinguished at least four types of societies.

Starting with primitive societies, Habermas (1976) argued that in this type, family structures totally determine the social interactions. For him, the prominent forces of change in such societies are demographic growth, ecological factors and intra-ethnic dependence.

In Habermas'(1976) model of traditional societies, the political institutions dominate the whole social setting. As Alant etal (1981:88) observe, the bureaucratization of authority results in differentiation between a power elite and the kinship system. The elite exercise control over production and distribution of social wealth. In a sense, this is a state centred society. The use of power to maintain ownership of the means of production by the elite hampers social integration because of conflicting interests. Opposing interests are kept under control by ideological rhetoric and force.

Habermas (1976:133) posits that in the advanced or organised capitalist society the economic institutions are characterised by monopoly and oligopoly. Oligopoly is situation where the market is demanded by a few produces or suppliers falling between a situation where there is what is known as perfect competition and one in which there is monopoly, domination of the market by one producer or supplier (Habermas 1976:134). State intervention in economic affairs is quite significant. In this regard, the state endeavours to control activities to enhance rationalisation, to exercise technical control and to continuously adapt to the capitalist system. For Habermas (1976:42) this is a crisis-ridden society and the crisis can only be overcome by large-scale social transformation.

To discuss the concepts of post-capitalist and post-modern societies, Habermas (1976:49) uses the Marxist concept of *post-industrial* society to claim that the examination of the crisis in the capitalist stage creates a possibility of understanding better the post modern society. A post-modern society is characterised by heterogeneity at social, cultural, religious and political levels (Alant et al 1981:89).

2.2.4 Zijderveld's phenomenological typology of societies

In his book *The abstract society*, Zijderveld (1974) developed an interesting phenomenological typology of societies. Zijderveld (1974:13) argues that a person is a double being to the extent that on the one hand, he/she is unique while on the other hand he/she is a social being who plays predefined roles. Fundamentally therefore, according to Zijderveld (1974:15), a person is an ambivalent being and therefore proposes that he/she be seen as what he terms a *homo duplex*. Put differently, a human being duplicates himself /herself in roles which are strange his/her essence. Essentially Zijderveld (1974) develops his typology of societies by analysing three societies: contemporary Western society, ancient Graeco - Roman and medieval society and non-industrial developing society.

Zijderveld (1974:49) starts by discussing the modern rational pluralistic society, which is, in his view, the result of the many social, economic, political, religious, technological and scientific revolutions which are the mark of the modern western society.

Turning to Graeco-Roman and medieval society, Zijderveld (1974:57) argues that in these societies human beings experienced the world as a static structure. Such people, according to Zijderveld (1974:63) lived in a society with a strict and even rigid system of stratification legitimised by abstract and speculative metaphysics. Theology and philosophy dominated the scientific and intellectual scene.

According to Zijderveld (1974:75) the contemporary Western society is characterised

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by the philosophy that the good society is one in which individuals accept responsibility for their decisions, and that this means that they should have the greatest possible freedom to make their economic and social choices. Furthermore, it is believed that economic freedom is essential in order to preserve political freedom.

The last type of society discussed by Zijderveld (1974:78) is the non-industrial developing society. The people in a non-industrial developing society are themselves so closely related to nature that they cannot objectify nature; life for them is a gift of God or gods in the here or now. Additionally, in the non-industrial developing society, authority is unquestionable and is viewed as a mechanism against anomic order. Society is firmly rooted in the kinship system; social and system integration are maintained by mechanical solidary. This type of society is characterised by a tendency to inertia resulting in a general resistance to change. It is also affected by poverty, disease, high infant mortality rates and illiteracy.

2.3 THE CONCEPTS OF DEVELOPED AND DEVELOPING COUNTRIES AS TYPOLOGIES OF SOCIETIES

So far we have concentrated, principally, on societies (past and present) of the northern hemisphere. The southern hemisphere, usually referred to as the developing world, however, creates the greatest number of challenges for social scientists. As alluded to in chapter one, colonialism, imperialism and expansionism on the part of western powers drastically changed the structure of societies in the developing countries. However, although colonialism resulted in a diversity of structures, these have to date failed to bring about development of the Third World. As Alant etal

(1981:141) aptly conclude "...the social structures of the Third World are not conducive to the development of these societies".

In this regard, Maritz (1972:8) writes:

> There is much evidence that the Third World does not fit into the image of the industrial societies. For these reasons, it is necessary to describe the Third World as another type of social structure and to develop a mere appropriate frame of reference which can be used as a basis for the analysis of societies in the Third World.

In support, Zijderveld (1975:65) typifies a large number of societies whicht he calls the Common Human Pattern (CHP) world. Effectively, what Zijderveld (1974) refers to as CHP world are what many writers call primitive or developing countries. He compares these societies with what he terms modern societies. He concludes that these societies are different and summaries these differences thus:

> CHP (developing) societies are characterised by a high cultural integration based on mechanical solidarity. Industrial [developed] society, on the contrary, have a highly differentiated pluralistic social structure and their social integration tends to be structural and functional rather than cultural and traditional (Zijderveld 1974:66).

2.3.1 The conceptualisation of developed and developing countries

After the Second World War (1939 - 1945), with the dismantling of European imperialism, the former colonies were often referred to as the "newly independent" or

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"emergent nations". Because their evolution towards full statehood required the modernisation of their predominantly subsistence economies terms with economic rather than political connotations became popular (Hardiman and Midgley 1982:10). These countries were then usually described as "underdeveloped", but later more polite terms such as "less developed" or "developing" gained currency. This latter term was thought to be more attractive because of its optimistic tenor.

Social scientists are notorious for their inability to agree even on basic terms when it comes to more developed and less developed countries. As a result, attempts to claim preference for any of the terms are mentioned here futile and doomed to pointless controversy. For example, over the years, the attempt to review the use of the term *Third Wold* and to list the countries which comprise it has usually elicited a spate of dissenting contributions. Hardiman and Midgley (1982:11) suggest that it is partly for this reason that most publications on development use these terms loosely and refer to countries of Africa, Asia, Central and South America, the Carribean and Pacific as developing, while those of Europe and North America as well as Australia, New Zealand and the former Soviet Union as developed.

The developed countries are usually classified as such because of their relatively high levels of living and relatively good standards of health, education, housing and welfare. They are also characterised by modernity, high levels of urbanisation and slow rates of population growth. By definition, developing countries lack most if not all of these characteristics. However, there would be exceptions. For example, as the World Bank (1980:26) pointed out, countries like Kuwait, Hong Kong and Singapore have over

recent years recorded higher per capita incomes than several developed countries. In a sense, it can be argued that there are many countries which belong to both the developed and the developing worlds. However, these exceptions do not negate the validity of the developed-developing dichotomy. Generally, countries which are poor in economic terms have very high rates of population growth and low standard of health and education. The focal point of this study is premised on this general conclusion. As already established, the Third World has its own distinguishing characteristics as a type of a society, hence this study's acceptance of it in the conceptualisation and improvement of the practice of primary school instructional supervision.

2.4 THE POLITICAL CONTEXT

In the last forty years many developing countries have been plagued by bad governance resulting in war and violent unrest. Schools have been sites of politically motivated violence during these wars and periods of violent unrest (Caillods and Postlewaite 1989:169).

Many schools in the developing countries have been directly affected by war. For example, during the 1980s , the war in Mozambique caused the destruction or closure of 60 percent of the country's schools (World University Service 1994:11). The conditions of work are appalling in the aftermath of the war. Furniture and equipment are usually stolen, or broken, leaving very little in the way of facilities.

Long term violence in a society can create a culture of violence which may be difficult

to eradicate overnight. In South Africa, for example, apartheid which only finally disappeared in 1994, left a legacy of violence in most institutions of learning. In the aftermath of the Soweto uprisings the police shot and killed more than one thousand learners (Christie 1991:131). The culture of violence in a sense has replaced the culture of learning and a great deal of work still remains to be done to re-establish the latter.

2.4.1 The cultural context

According to Harber and Davies (1997:21), the values, beliefs and behaviours of traditional cultures co-exist, even though not always harmoniously, with Western ones in developing societies. Schools are also affected by the co-existence of the imported cultural values of the Western school and the values of the surrounding society.

In the next segment we argue that schools in developing countries are predominantly authoritarian. Part of the reason for this is to be found in the inherited colonial forms of education in terms of what constituted school and knowledge. However, as Harber and Davies (1997:98) point out, the confirmation of authoritarian relationships as we have seen, is also related to the nature of traditional political cultures and patterns, cultural expectations and gender relations.

Hofstede (1980:92) in his book *Culture's Consequences*, vividly captures the influence of culture on instructional supervision. He concludes that people vary a great deal concerning cultural variations that challenge the effective instructional supervisory

practices. In this regard Hofstede (1980:93) talks of four cultural dimensions: power distance, collectivism versus individualism, masculinity versus feminity, and uncertainty avoidance. Because of their perceived direct relevance to this study, the first two dimensions are briefly discussed below.

2.4.1.1.Power distance

Power distance is a national culture attribute describing the extent to which a society accepts that power in institutions is distributed unequally. Questions such as the following are addressed by this cultural dimension of power distance: How important is status in an organisation? What powers are given to principals as a function of their positions? In this regard, Harber and Davies (1997:95) point out that people in developing countries observe the custom of power distance. For example Nagel (1992:XVII), in relation to the Shona culture in Zimbabwe, says:

> The underlying values of both tradition and modernity probability support each other. An example is the military, authoritarian English education with its strong emphasis on obedience and discipline, which coincides with the authoritarian gerontocratic and patriarchic social systems of traditional society.

Clearly, therefore, instructional supervisory practices in most developing countries tend to reflect the unequal power distribution promoted by their cultures (see section 2.3).

2.4.1.2   Individualism versus collectivism

Individualism versus collectivism is another dimension of national culture identified by Hofstede (1980:97). Individualism refers to a national culture - attribute describing a loosely-knit social framework in which people emphasize only the care of themselves and their immediate families. This is made possible by the large amount of freedom that such a society allows individuals. Collectivism is the opposite of individualism (Hofstede 1980:99). It is characterised by a tight social framework in which people expect others in groups of which they are part to look after them and protect them when they are in trouble. As can be expected developed countries tend to lean towards individualism while the developing ones tend to emphasize collectivism.

In this, regard, the contention is that the instructional supervisory practices of principals in primary schools in the developing countries are also affected by the co-existence of the imported cultural values of the Western school and the values of the surrounding society. In this regard the questions facing those who wish to improve primary school instructional supervision in developing countries are therefore: What aspects of the interplay between existing and modern social and cultural imperatives can be lived with and which ones must be changed? What is the impact of this interplay of values on the actual instructional supervision in primary schools in developing countries? The latter question is discussed in the next segment.

2.5 SOME EFFECT OF CONTEXTUAL REALITIES IN PRISMATIC SOCIETIES UNDERLYING INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS

So far in this chapter, different typologies of societies and contextual realities affecting education in developing countries in general and instructional supervision in particular have been discussed. In the former segment, it was clearly established (in 2.2) through the work of such great theorists as Parsons (1977), Habermas (1976) and Zijderveld (1974) that the dichotomy between developing and developed countries is real. If societies are indeed different, it is not unreasonable to reaffirm the argument advanced in chapter one that theories and principles of instructional supervision are not necessarily universal. In consequence, there is need to construct instructional supervisory strategies and educational goals that are appropriate to the nature and operation of educational organisations in developing countries.

This section uses the theory of the "prismatic society" to discuss ways in which the actual process of instructional supervision and its effectiveness in developing countries is affected by both continuities and contradictions stemming from their cultural and socio-economic location. In his book, *Administration in developing countries*, Riggs (1964:9-35) developed the theory of the prismatic society in order to understand the conflict between the highly differentiated and relatively autonomous models of organisation imposed at the time of colonialism and the less differentiated indigenous models of organisation. However, as Harber and Davies (1997:76) aptly argue, the theory has retained its relevance during the post-colonial period of "fragile states," as

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Fuller (1991:59) calls them.

Arguably, Riggs (1964:10) is suggesting that developing societies are prismatic because they contain both elements of the traditional and elements of the structurally differentiated societies. In prismatic societies, therefore, traditional and modern practices and values co-exist in the same organisation - though not always in a harmonious way. People in these societies are usually trapped between their contextual realities and the desired replicas of established Western societies . Such contradictions inevitably affect the principals of primary schools in developing countries. They stumble awkwardly as they attempt to move towards the established Western models of instructional supervision. Riggs (1964:11) makes parallel arguments pertaining to those made in chapter one (see 2.2.4) of this study:

> *Indeed the emphasis in much administrative literature is rather more on the prescriptive side than on the descriptive side. The so called principles of public administration take the following form: Authority should be commensurate with responsibility; staff functions should be separated from line functions; Communications should flow upwards as well as downwards; equal pay for equal work. We need not question the usefulness of such maxims. I only wish to point out that prescriptions which are valid in one context may be harmful in another. In other words we need a pretty complete descriptive and analytical understanding of what now exists before we can make useful judgements about what we ought to do, about what changes should be made. The model of administrative behaviour, as of economic, was inspired by the experience of Western societies in which markets bureaucrats existed and corresponded, at least approximately to the image conveyed by the model. We are not to assume, however, that the situation in "transitional societies" can be properly described in these terms, although we may be tempted to do so.*

So organisations in developing countries, including schools, do not necessarily operate

as a Western observer may assume because their contexts are different:

> *Hence many formally administrative structures in transitional societies form out to be more facades, while the effective administrative work remains a latent function of older, more diffuse institutions (Riggs 1964:34).*

As Harber and Davies (1997:97) point out, Riggs (1964) was principally concerned with an analysis of institutions of central government and public administration in developing countries. This study however, argues that Riggs' (1964) theory of prismatic society is also a very useful instrument for understanding how principals of primary schools operate within the context of schools as organisations in developing societies . We now examine some theories on how schools in prismatic societies operate as they do as a result of the impacts of contextual factors.

In chapter one we argued that primary schools in developing countries are predominantly bureaucratic and authoritarian even if their actual operation does not necessarily conform to the tenets of models of bureaucracy (see section 1.2). Arguably, part of the reason for this lies in inherited colonial forms of education and the post-colonial internal influences of what is understood by schooling and knowledge (Harber and Davies 1997:98).

2.5.1. Traditional culture and authoritarian schooling in developing countries

Harber and Davies (1997:99) postulate that a major contributing factor to the

continuation of authoritarian relationships is the nature of traditional political cultures and patterns of child-rearing. In a sense, these traditional cultures more often than not reinforce the educational values imported with colonialism.

In a study of the Hausa child's experience in the patriarchal family and in the traditional Koramic school in Northern, Nigeria, Harber (1989:57) concludes that the child's experience in both instances is hierarchical and authoritarian with emphasis on strict obedience based on fear and physical punishment. In this regard as Harber and Davies (1997:98) aptly observe, rather than clashing with imported Western schooling the authority relationships at the home and the school have been mutually supportive.

According to Alverson (1978:68) formal education is a perfect reflection of Tswana patterns of child- rearing involving role learning and punishment for mistakes and errors in Botswana. He adds that as in the surrounding culture, creativity, self-reliance and autonomy are discouraged and duality, obedience and submissiveness encouraged. One study conducted by Harber and Igbal (1996:154) in Pakistan showed that the interplay between traditional system of patronage and intricate networks of power creates a culture of fear where teachers and learners are afraid to express their views before higher authorities (Harber and Igbal 1996:154).

2.5.2 Primary school in developing countries as pseudo - bureaucracies

In chapter one (see section 1.1) we briefly alluded to the point that the actual operation of schools as bureaucratic organisations in developing countries is different from the Weberian model of bureaucracy. Indeed as Riggs (1964:280) states, one of the most

widely noted characteristics of public administration in transitional states is a high degree in "overcentralisation". Put differently, the organisation model most commonly replicated by schools in developing countries is bureaucracy or rule by officials. Generally, the development of a bureaucratic mode of organisation in schools has been criticised as it is seen to diminish the dignity of the individual.

However, bureaucracy has been defended on the grounds that it promotes rationality, orderliness and consistency. For example, a Nigerian writer, Eden (1982:27), argues that:

> *Weber is often criticized for ignoring the human aspects of administration and attempting to reduce workers to machines by advocating strict adherence to impersonal organisation rules and regulations. A close look at this model, however, reveals that it is used in education and that in our schools, which are very human institutions, Weber's bureaucracy promotes efficiency.*

It is, however, the premise of this study that primary schools in developing countries do not actually operate as bureaucracies according to the Weberian model. Weber (1963) was clear that bureaucracy is a form of domination and that, in terms of the way that power is used in policy and decision making, it is distinct from democracy. A little later in this chapter (see section 3.8.2.3) the autocratic role of the primary school principal and its implications for instructional supervision in developing countries is discussed. For now it is important to note, as Ball (1987:101) aptly observes, that in most primary schools in developing countries the policy deliberations of the principal are usually secretive because this is seen as a specialist function carried out by the supervisor.

In developing countries the existence of what Fuller (1991) calls "fragile states", means that governments must attempt to enhance their shallow authority by appearing modern (Harber and Davies 1997:47). One way of doing this is by constantly preaching to the populace about the existence of meritocracy as mass opportunity. In the majority of cases, schools are used for the extension of this propaganda. To this end, primary schools in developing countries in reality do not operate in terms of the classic Weberian bureaucracies in terms of such principles as merit, the fair and equal application of rules, consistency and honesty and integrity.

Because of vices such as nepotism and corruption, teachers are not only subjected to authoritarianism which is inefficient as an organisational model for schools, but also to the inefficient practice of authoritarianism. According to Harber and Davies (1993:51) this results in the bureaucratic facade which results in messy and incoherent authoritarianism. The argument here is that authoritarianism, messy or not, is unlikely to promote effective instructional supervision. In a sense, the bureaucratised schools in developing countries are at odds with the emerging consensus on the need for democracy. Indeed multi-constituency democracy in primary school supervision is the central theme of this study.

2.5.3 The principal as a despot

It has been argued that power relations in primary schools in developing countries are largely authoritarian and bureaucratic and that this is both an ineffective way of educating for peace and democracy. As alluded to in chapter one (see section 1.1),

the argument is that if primary schools operate this way then principals must play a part in maintaining them as such.

In this regard Holmes and Wyne (1989:58) describe the most frequently found type of principal in developing countries as the benevolent despot. In a sense this means that the role of the principal is significantly concerned with domination. In Zimbabwe, for example, primary school principals occupy the top of the school hierarchical chain of command. The role of teachers in this authoritarian model is, to all intents and purposes, to support the principal's decisions. In Balls (1987:125) paraphrased words, rights of participation are a political ritual which lends support to what in reality is a system of autocracy. What is true of most principals' relations with teachers is also true of their relationship with learners.

It is the premise of this study that given the nature of primary school organisation in the majority of developing countries it would be unlikely for the majority of the principals to be anything other than despots or benevolent despots. This is clearly reinforced by gendered masculanist supervision models with both men and women subscribing to these models. According to Dubey et al (1979:37), in Nigeria, for example

> *[i]n theory, it is expected that most heads [principals] will fall in categories like autocratic, democratic or laissez - faire, but most heads [principals] tend to be authoritarian, if not altogether autocratic. To a certain extend, this tendency can be attributed to the traditional ways of life, in which the elder or the man authority ... has the final say in all matters and must be obeyed.*

In support, Tsang and Wheeler (1993:124), in discussing the role of the principal in Thailand note that " [t]his role derives in part from the cultural traditions that emphasize hierarchical decision making and defensiveness towards leaders". And yet, Levin and Lockheed (1993:124) caution against overemphasizing, the role of the principal in school effectiveness and school improvement. They argue that learning occurs in classrooms through a complex relationship between teachers and learners (Levin and Lockheed 1993:124). Levin and Lockheed (1993:125) correctly comment, the principal operates at the hub of a number of different responsibilities. Such responsibilities include guiding teachers as they implement curriculum, organising staff development sessions, managing and developing school resources, and the development of a school-wide climate and school community among others.

2.5.4 The actual job of the principal in developing countries

School leadership is often seen as a key variable in school effectiveness studies. And yet, as Harber and Davies (1997:63) correctly observe, despite the importance attached to the principal as being central to the success or failure of a school we still know very little about what primary school principals in developing countries actually do. Books on the subject usually provide a list of functions.

Bell (1987:12) argues that the reason for this tendency to ignore what principals actually do, is that theoretical writing on school organisation has been overwhelmingly influenced by the systems theory and has not been grounded in empirical reality. Fullan (1991:145), writing about principals in the industrialised nations of the West,

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makes a telling point about the need to look at what primary school principals actually do:

> *Nearly all district role descriptions stress the instructional leadership responsibilities of the principal - facilitating change, helping teachers work together, assessing and furthering school improvement and so on. However, how principals actually spend their time is obviously a better indication of their impact on the school.*

Fullan's review (1991:146) of the studies of what principals actually do in Western schools found a series of consistent trends:

✦ Most of the principal's time is taken up by face-to-face meetings and telephone calls.

✦ Principals' work days are sporadic and characterised by variety and fragmentation.

✦ Most of their activities are brief.

✦ Principals demonstrate a tendency to engage themselves in the most current and pressing situation. They spend very little time on reflective planning.

✦ Most of their time is spent on administrative house-keeping matters, maintaining order and crisis management.

House and Lapan (1978:145) summarises this debate rather poignantly when they say:

> The global response to any and all concerns means
> that he/she never has the time, energy or inclination
> to develop or carry out a set of premeditated plans of
> his/her own. Containment of all problems in his/her
> theme. The principal cannot be an effective supervisor,
> or leader under these conditions.

In developing countries, we know even less about what principals actually do given the contexts and the nature of school organisation which were both discussed earlier in this chapter (see section 2.4.1).   Even if we had to assume that the job of a principal in developing countries is just as messy, untidy, fragmented and event driven as in schools in developed countries, this study argues that the actual, tasks and problems faced by principals in developing countries are substantially different.

In 1993, a commonwealth Africa workshop hosted in Botswana published the familiar list of principal tasks (Better Schools Materials   for school Principals 1993:12);

✦   manage and deploy school resources efficiently;

✦   allocate school accommodation appropriately;

✦   ensure satisfactory standards of maintenance and cleanliness of school

    facilities;

◆   guide curriculum implementation and change;

◆   organise staff development in school; and

◆   create a professional ethos within the school by involving promoted staff in

        decision making.

The list could have come from any beginning of a text on educational supervision used

in the United Kingdom, Australia or the United States. What is conspicuously missing

is a description of what these phrases mean in the day-to-day operations of a school

in a developing country. To be sure, in the entire series of modules, there is absolutely

nothing that describes the average day, week or year in the life of a principal within a

developing country. The list includes distribution of resources which are not available

in the first instance (Bell 1987:14).

2.5.5 The complexity of being a primary school principal in developing countries

It is likely that, given the contexts of developing countries outlined earlier in this chapter

(see section 2.5), the task and problems faced by principals are likely to be unique. For

example, the study of activities of four primary school principals in Barbados by Scaly

(1992:69) found that in one week the total number of activities performed ranged from

113 to 194, with a daily average of 30 activities compared with Mintzberg's 22 activities

a day for the business executive. The activity with the largest amount of time was

curiously personal: having lunch, managing a family concern by remote control or

reading for example. This was closely followed by unscheduled meetings, paper work and correspondence. The next section attempts to capture some data on the actual job done by principals in developing countries.

In most developing countries, principals face a number of problems relating to the supervision of staff. For a start, principals do not recruit the teachers and this usually results in some schools being used as dumping grounds for poor teachers. As Harber and Davies (1993:63) point out, it is essentiality these poor teachers who give principals problems in regard to instructional supervision. Harber and Davies (1993:68) assert that teachers' misbehaviour such as lateness, absenteeism, alcoholism and sexual harassment of female-learners stem from a weak code of professional ethics and culture of power and gender. As already discussed (see section 1.1) many teachers are untrained or poorly trained. Morale and motivation are often low because of poor pay, lack of promotion and inadequate resources (Harber and Davies 1993:70).

Principals in developing countries have to deal with a diverse range of auxiliary staff: kitchen staff, general maintenance staff, bursars, grounds people, cleaners, messengers, typists and librarians. In Zimbabwe, many principals of government and boarding schools complain of a serious shortage of support staff such as typists, ground persons, cooks and clerks. The problem has been worsened by a government directive (in the light of the structural adjustment programme) to reduce the number of employees (Ndebele 2002:83). Lack of support staff, arguably, causes many administration problems which have bad consequences for the principal's program of instructional supervision.

Harber (1989:122-123) notes that another problem faced by principals in developing countries, especially in Africa, is the frequent and compulsory transfer of staff, including principals themselves. In this regard Harber and Davies (1997: 67) cite an example of a principal who had been transferred to his present school on this basis of compulsory transfer. Harber (1989:124) adds that the transfer of teachers could happen at very awkward times, thereby creating extra work for principals.

2.5.6 External relations and community involvement

Parents of learners in most schools in developing countries are often expected to contribute towards the construction of buildings and provision of basic facilities through the School Development Associations/Committees (as they are known in Zimbabwe) or Parents Teachers Associations (as they are called in many other countries) (Ndebele 2002:16). Receiving donations not only symbolises good relations between the school and the community but also triggers parental expectations of favours from the school. For example, a principal may be expected to open the school for people to sleep in when they have important gatherings such as weddings (Ncube 2002:54).

Parental expectations, according to Harber and Davies (1997:71), can go beyond a resource *quid pro quo*. They cite the principal of a community Junior Secondary School in Botswana who noted that parents come to see him about out of school matters, for example: "My son didn't come on Sunday night, what can you do about it ?" This is a vivid example of Riggs' (1964:15) prismatic society at work: the traditional way of life is not congruent with a geographically fixed "modern " institution such as a school.

One particular group with which a principal has to maintain good relations is local dignitaries. Arguably in rural areas, the most significant dignitary that principals have regular contact with is the local chief or the local representative of the ruling party. Dadey (1990:119) explains that in Ghana, for example, the chiefs are the kings of the principals. Any time they call on them, principals must put aside everything. As one principal in Ghana put it:

> On one occasion, the message from the paramount chief was simple. There was going to be a meeting in the region and he wanted the school truck to carry his drums and royal paraphernalia to the meeting. On another occasion, the side-de-camp of one of the most influential chiefs in the area arrived to tell the principal that the chief was coming to see him in half an hour's time. The principal suspended what he was doing and told the rest of the school administration to gather to receive the chief in the traditional way... (Dadey 1990:121).

Another problem for principals in developing countries is that of maintaining external relations at all costs in the context of very poor communications and transport difficulties. In this regard many principals in rural schools have turned into messengers as they have no telephones to contact the district offices of the Ministry of Education. In Zimbabwe, for example, some schools are more than two hundred kilometres from their district offices (Ncube 2002:85).

This chapter would therefore like to contend that current supervisory practices in developing countries are impacted upon by the political, social and cultural contexts within which they exist.

2.6 CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

This chapter has argued that developing countries are in a contextually and typologically unique position. Consequently, education, primary school instructional supervision and teacher effectiveness are rather difficult to discuss meaningfully on a context-free basis. To this end, the adverse influences of political, social and cultural contexts in developing countries have been highlighted.

The chapter has also claimed, with motivation, that most schools in developing countries are currently authoritarian bureaucratic. In this regard, the study has used the theory of prismatic society to discuss ways in which the actual functioning of principals and teacher effectiveness is affected not only by contextual realities but by global cultures as well as especially the concept of modernisation.

The next chapter starts by analysing the concept of instructional supervision. It then attempts to outline and describe the roles of instructional supervisors; and finally discusses the various models of instructional supervision.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL

FRAMEWORK FOR

UNDERSTANDING AND

EXPLAINING

INSTRUCTIONAL

SUPERVISION

CHAPTER THREE

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3. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORKS FOR UNDERSTANDING AND EXPLAINING INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses what has been said by other researchers about instructional supervision in order to discover the best supervisory practices that principals can apply to promote teacher effectiveness. Information researched from books, journals and magazines will be discussed under the following sub-headings: The nature of instruction; the purpose of instructional supervision, the role of the instructional supervisor, effective and ineffective leadership styles, models of supervision and staff development. It is hoped that the literature study will help to generate sets of items (questions) for the questionnaire and interview.

3.2 THE NATURE OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Beach and Reinhartz (1989:8) define supervision as " [t]he process of working with teachers to improve instruction". Pfeiffer and Dunlop (1982:12) define supervision as "[t]he process of interaction in which individuals [supervisors] work with teachers to improve instruction and ultimately student learning". Glatton (1984:2) explains

instructional supervision as follows:

> *Supervision is a process of facilitating the professional growth of teachers primarily by giving the teacher feedback about classroom interactions and helping the teacher make use of that feedback in order to make teaching more effective.*

From the foregoing definitions it is apparent that supervision consists of all those activities leading to the improvement of instruction. Such improvement and development rely on a supervisory system that is dedicated to helping teachers be successful in their classrooms. Its emphasis is on the development or improvement of professional techniques and procedures.

Supervision, however, is sometimes not quite understood by supervisors. According to findings by Chivore (1995:39):

> *It is widely felt that what principals meant to be supervision in terms of guidance of teachers [aimed at improving teacher performance and through this pupils' performance] often turned out to be mere inspection of teachers, with teachers not receiving the necessary guidance and substantive support.*

3.3 THE PURPOSE OF SUPERVISION

The primary purpose of supervision as given by Beach and Reinhartz (1989:3) "...is the improvement of instruction by fostering the continued development of teachers". The

purpose of supervision is to offer personal advice to classroom teachers concerning the improvement of educational experience for pupils. Wiles (1967:5) concludes that "[a]ll would agree that the basic function of supervision is to improve the learning situation for children. Supervision is a service activity that exists to help teachers do their job."

Sergiovanni and Starrat (1979:9) argue that "[t]he ultimate purpose of supervision is the promotion of pupil growth and hence eventually the improvement of society". Supervision, through all means available, will seek improved methods of teaching and learning. It works primarily in the area of instructional improvement. It is concerned with improving the setting for learning in particular. Supervision is critical to the continuation of quality schooling. Ndebele (2002:18) is of the opinion that "[a] good supervision programme demands supervisors who are continually striving to improve by growing with their teachers".

Contrary to the above noble purposes of supervision, supervision has sometimes not been useful to teachers. Findings by Moyo (1997:39) on the effectiveness of supervision in Hwange, Zimbabwe reveal that:

> *Supervision was found to be meaningless, wearisome and frustrating to teachers critiques produced were biased. They only contained the supervisor's views. This rendered the discussion after lesson observations useless as supervisee's views were not considered.*

Harris (1985:65) posits that "...instructional supervision is meant to improve the teachers' instructional ability". The supervisor is expected to work with the teachers in

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lesson planning preparation, presentation and evaluation.

3.4 THE ROLE OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISOR

In Zimbabwe, the principal is the main instructional supervisor at school level. Olivia (1976:120) (in Beach and Reinhartz 1989:8) asserts that "[t]he term instructional supervisor is used to refer to any individual regardless of title who functions in a supervisory position in the education system". Wiles and Bondi (1975:100) (in Beach and Reinhartz 1989:98) echo similar sentiments when they assert that "[a]n instructional supervisor is someone who is formally designated by the education system who has the responsibility for working with teachers to improve the quality of pupil learning through improved instruction". While there may be other supervisors of instruction in the Zimbabwean education who include education officers, provincial education directors and others, this study concentrates on school principals as they are at the supervisional centre of the learning/teaching process at the school level.

Beach and Reinhartz (1989:10) have summarised the role of the supervisor as planner, organiser, leader, helper, appraiser, communicator and decision maker. Planning involves the ability to determine in advance what should be done and how it is to be accomplished. A good example would be helping teachers with time management strategies as they plan their lessons. The ability to organise is also a pre-requisite for the supervisor. Olivia (1976:120) says that "[l]inking people with the necessary resources is vital to the effective operation of the school".

In order to be successful, an instructional supervisor must be able to influence the behaviour of others. For example, the supervisor must be able to persuade teachers to modify their lesson plans or change their teaching behaviour to accommodate individual students. The primary objective of supervision according to Beach and Reinhartz (1989:11) "[i]s to help to improve and develop teachers' instructional skills".

Supervisors, as they work with teachers, should keep in mind the climate of the school, the need for collective dialogue and the teachers' involvement in determining the goals and types of supervision they would like to have. In this regard Beach and Reinhartz (1989:154) argue that "... school improvement begins with supervisors using the pre-requisite skills in human relations, organisational behaviour and management as they talk openly with teachers about problem areas".

3.5 EFFECTIVE TEACHING BEHAVIOURS

Instructional supervisors must be aware of the complexities associated with effective teaching. Joyce and Showers (1982:41) state that "... supervisors knowledgeable about teaching and effective teaching behaviours can establish an instructional mind, or frame of reference as they help teachers increase their ability to reach more students by providing a rich and diverse environment". Green Blatt, Cooper and Muth (1984:58-59) provide a list of what they think are effective teaching behaviours:

1.   *Daily review of previous work:* Teacher provides an appropriate review and relates prior content to new learning.

2.   *Direct instruction:* Teacher presents information clearly and stresses important points and dimensions of the content.

3.   *Being actively engaged in learning:* Teacher maximises amount of time available for instruction and keeps students engaged in learning activities.

4.   *Corrective feedback:* Teacher monitors students' performances and provides corrective feedback, clarifies or reteaches.

5.   *Guided and independent practice:* Teacher presents information in an appropriate sequence, guided practice precedes independent practice and practice activity follows explanation, demonstration or modelling.

6.   *Instructional clarity:* Teacher clearly states objectives and tasks, and presentation is well organised.

7.   *Time on task:* Teacher keeps students engaged during instruction.

8.   *Questioning:* Teacher asks questions that would produce high success rates as well as questions that promote higher order thinking.

9.   *States expectations:* Teacher communicates to students what they are to accomplish.

10. *Classroom management and organisation:* Teacher specifies expectations for class behaviour and uses techniques to prevent, redirect, or stop inappropriate behaviour.

11. *Varies instruction.* Teacher uses learning opportunities other than listening by pupils.

These behaviours are concrete images of what successful teachers do and should be considered within the overall context of the classroom. However, Griffin (1985:20) says

that "... caution should be sounded against over-generalisation about these behaviours, because the research studies are often situation, and student specific". Nevertheless, as Beach and Reinhartz (1989:125) conclude: "...there are representative correlational studies from state-of-the-art data that have consistently identified the same qualitative skills that effective practitioners use to increase student achievement". Other authorities do concur with Greenblatt, Cooper and Muth (1984) on the general skills of practitioners. A twelfth skill is added to the list, which is "enthusiasm and interest" [the amount of the teachers' vigour and power] (Kibber 1974:7; Legela 1974:28; Barker 1974:23; Miles 1974:34; Orhich 1984:29; Santmire 1979:110).

3.6 PROBLEMS FACED BY PRINCIPALS DURING THE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

In order to fully understand the work of school principals, it is necessary to discuss the problems they face as they carry out their instructional tasks. Nyagura and Reece (1989:172) state:

> *Besides the administration of the whole school the principal of a primary school is expected to supervise all his/her teachers including the deputy principal. In addition the principal is in the middle of the relationship between teachers and external ideas and people. As in most human triangles, this also brings about constant conflicts and dilemmas.*

However, how principals actually spend their time is obviously a better indicator of the

impact of these myriad roles on the quality of instructional supervision provided at the schools. If principals were to be followed around on a typical day what would be found out? The anthropologist Harry (1973:57) did just that for an entire school year with one elementary school principal. He found that virtually all the principal's time was taken up in one-to-one personal encounters which did not deal directly with matters concerning actual teaching. Martin's and Willower's (1981:210) and Peterson's (1981:58) observation of principals found that principals' work days were sporadic, characterised simultaneously by brevity, variety and fragmentation. For example, Martin and Willower (1981:29) report that primary school principals perform an average of 148 tasks a day with constant interruptions. Over 39 percent of their observed activities were interrupted. Most (84%) of the activities were brief (one to four minutes). According to these authors "[p]rincipals demonstrated a tendency to engage themselves in the most current and pressing situation. They invested very little of their time in reflective planning. Instruction related activities took up only 17 percent of their time" (Martin and Willower 1981:30).

Saraso (1982:129) contends that "[m]ost of the principal's time is spent on administrative housekeeping matters and maintaining order since many principals expect or feel that they are expected to keep everyone happy by running an orderly school. This then becomes the major criteria of the principal's ability to manage." House and Lapan (1978:145), summarise the problem related to keeping everyone happy when they observe that:

> *Another fact of trying to please everyone and to avoid*

> *any trouble that might reach central office is to deal with any problem that arises. The principal has no set of priorities except to keep small problems from becoming big ones. His/hers is a continuous task of crisis management. He/she is always on call. All problems are seen as important. This global response to any and all concerns means he/she never has the time, energy and inclination to effectively supervise teachers. Containment of all problems is his/her theme.*

A study by Educon (1984:115) of 137 principals in Toronto reveals some of the overload principals feel: Ninety percent reported an increase over the previous five years in the demands made on their time and responsibilities, including new program demands, the increased number of board priorities and directives, the number of directives from the Ministry of Education, etc. Time demands were listed as having increased in dealing with parent and community groups (92% said there was an increase), administration activities (88%), staff involvement and student services (81%), social services (81%) and board initiatives (69%).

In the same study principals were asked about their perceptions of effectiveness: 61% reported a decrease in the effectiveness of assistance from immediate superiors and from administration (Educon 1984:115). Educon (1984:116) also found that 84% of the principals reported a decrease in the authority of the principal's involvement in decision making at the system level. Ninety one percent responded "no" to the following question: "Do you think the principal can effectively fulfil all the responsibility assigned to him/her?" House and Lapan (1978:116) purport that "[t]he amount and number of areas of expertise expected of the principal, which are school law, curriculum planning, supervision of instruction, community relations, human resource development, are ever

increasing".

The discouragement felt by principals in attempting to cover all the basics is aptly described in the following two responses taken from interviews conducted by Duke (1988) in Vermont as quoted by Fullan (1998:149) with two principals:

Principal 1: *The conflict for me comes from going home every night actually aware of what didn't get done and feeling after six years that I ought to have a better batting than I have.*

Principal 2: *The principalship is the kind of job where you're expected to be all things to all people. Early on, if you are successful, you had gotten feedback that you are able to be all things to all people. And then you feel an obligation to continue to do that which in your own mind you're not capable of doing. And that causes me guilt.*

Duke (1988)(in Fullan 1998:150) was intrigued by the "dropout rate" of principals after encountering an article by Lortie (1987:81) which stated that 22 percent of Vermont principals employed in the fall of 1984 had left the state's school system by the fall of 1995. In interviewing principals about why they considered quitting, he found that sources of dissatisfaction included policy and administration, lack of achievement, sacrifices in personal life, lack of growth opportunities, lack of recognition and too little responsibility, relations with subordinates, and a lack of support from superiors. They expressed a number of concerns about the job itself: the challenge of doing all the things that principals are expected to do, the mundane or boring nature of much of the work, the debilitating array of personal interactions, the policies of dealing with various

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constituencies, and the tendency for managerial concerns to supersede leadership functions.

While Duke's (1988) findings above are from a small sample (four principals) they are by no means atypical. Duke (1988)(in Fullan 1998:156) suggests that the reasons principals were considering quitting were related to fatigue and awareness of the limitation of career choices. All four principals experienced reality shock: "[t]he shock-like reactions of new workers when they find themselves in a work situation for which they have spent several years preparing and for which they thought they were going to be prepared, and then suddenly find they are not". Duke (1988:312) concludes:

> *A number of frustrations expressed by those principals derived from the context in which they worked. Their comments send a clear message to those who supervised them. Principals need autonomy and support. The need for autonomy may require supervisors to treat each principal differently; the need for support may require supervisors to be sensitive to each principal's view of what he/she finds meaningful or trivial about the work.*

Other studies also confirm conditions of overload and fragmentation in the principal's role. According to Crowson and Porter-Gehrie (1980:205), who carried out a detailed observation study over a period of time in 26 urban school principals in the Chicago area, the overwhelming emphasis in their daily work was oriented toward maintenance, specifically:

> *...student disciplinary control, keeping outside influences [central office, parents etc] under control and satisfied, keeping staff conflicts at bay, and keeping the school supplied with adequate materials, staffing and so forth.*

It is noteworthy that this "natural" description of what principals do rarely mentions attention to supervision of instruction.

Another problem that principals experience is lack of the necessary skills to provide teachers with the help they need to develop instructionally. Madziyire (1995:136) quotes Nyagura and Reece (1989) who contend that "... in quite a number of schools [in Zimbabwe] due to shortage of experienced trained teachers, inexperienced teachers have been placed in supervisory roles". Ngagura and Reece (1989) are supported by Chivore (1994:14) who carried out a baseline survey on managerial skills of Zimbabwean principals and revealed that "...several issues need to be addressed in order to improve the supervisory skills of school principals; one aspect is the lack of skills and knowledge in the area of supervision". Ozigi (1977:59) advises that "[p]rincipals require conceptual skills in supervision in its broadest sense in order to ensure that they fully understand what their roles and tasks as supervisors of instruction are".

Lack of supervisory skills may result in conflict between teachers and supervisors when teachers feel unfairly treated. One way of improving the teacher supervisor relationship therefore is through supervisor training. In this regard Harber and Davies (1997: 61) note that "[i]n developing countries, principals of schools emerge from the teaching population and have had little or no training for the job". They argue that "[a] major concern of school management debates in recent years has been the need to train principals. Principals are chosen because they are good at one thing [teaching] and put into managerial roles, which can demand quite different skills". (Harber and Davies

1997:62).

It is perhaps in this context that most teachers are apprehensive about being supervised. They appear to be dissatisfied with the supervisor's classroom observations, hence the negative views towards supervision. McLaughlin (1984) (in Madziyire 1995:89) has commented that classroom teachers place several charges against classroom observation by supervisors. They criticise it for being infrequent and unreliable. Teachers see this as reflecting the preferences of supervisors. This is corroborated by Marks (1985:225) who writes that "[m]any teachers fear a visit by the supervisor often with good reason. They dislike having to defend methods and techniques which they have found successful. Teachers object to being told what to do." Similar views are echoed by Mlilo (1997:40) on a study he conducted on the effectiveness of primary school principals in Hwange District of Western Zimbabwe. He is of the opinion that teachers would not look forward to supervision as they feel supervision is an unpleasant experience.

Musaazi (2002:223) asserts that "[i]f instruction in schools is to be improved, the supervisor must take the lead in providing a pleasant, stimulating and wholesome environment in which teachers will want to work and feel secure". The school climate or feel and atmosphere must be such that the supervisor is not viewed as a threat by the teachers. Another reason why teachers resent supervision as shown by Madziyire (1995:92) could be because of the role conflict in the principal's supervisory and administrative obligations. Murimba (1993:42) says that "[w]hen supervision of instruction is undertaken by an administrator, as is the case in Zimbabwe, there is

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potential for role conflict. This conflict is based on the fact that expectations of supervisory activity are not in keeping with those of administrative behaviour."

Madziyire (1995:94) argues that the principal as administrator's behaviour is based on bureaucratic authority. Bureaucratic authority requires the supervisor to be impersonal, stick to rules and regulations. When the same administrator takes on the role of supervisor, he/she is expected to be a colleague helping the teacher develop and grow professionally. Supervision of instruction calls for personal relationships and a non-threatening and trusting atmosphere, yet the administrator's perceived authority in the school does not allow for colleagueship.

3.7 MODELS FOR SUPERVISION

In order for supervisors to be successful in their role of promoting instructional effectiveness and thereby increasing student achievement, supervisory models are needed. The models of supervision reviewed in this chapter include scientific supervision, clinical supervision, self assessment supervision, developmental supervision, and collaborative or co-operative or collegial supervision. Supervision styles that emanate from these models that will be reviewed are the autocratic, consultative, participatory, democratic, directive and non-directive supervisory styles (see 3.8).

3.7.1 Scientific supervision

Scientific management or supervision or the classical theory as it is often referred to, was developed by Talor (1911) to create better, more efficient organisations. Taylor's concern was the need to increase efficiency by lowering costs. According to Madziyire (1995:8) Taylor believed there was one best way to do a job and that workers had to be scientifically selected and then thoroughly trained. He also underscored the need for co-operation between management and employees so that the job was done according to set standards. There was need to divide work with managers taking the responsibility for planning and supervision, while the workers painstakingly went through planned procedures. The supervisory styles that seem to emerge from the scientific model of supervision are the *charismatic, autocratic* and the *nomothetic* supervisory styles (see section 3.8). Leaders [principals] who adopt such styles are serious about the task and not so much concerned about people. Harber and Davies (1997:60) conclude that power relations in schools in developing countries are largely authoritarian or bureaucratic. They go on to give the following example about Nigerian schools: "[I]n theory it is expected that some heads of Nigerian schools will fall into categories like autocratic, democratic and laiseez-faire, but most heads tend to be authoritarian if not altogether autocratic" (Harber and Davies 1997:61).

Ever and Morris (1990:155) prefer to use the term assertive supervisory style to refer to the autocratic style. They explain that in the assertive style, the principal wants things done his/her way and tells rather than listens. Such a principal does not worry too much about other people's feelings or opinions, regularly checks on staff, is

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aggressive if challenged and goes by the book. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979:3) summarise the leadership style used with scientific supervision thus: "[T]raditional scientific management represents the classical autocratic philosophy in which teachers are viewed as appendages of management and as such are hired to carryout prespecified duties in accordance with the wishes of management."

According to Murimba (1993:150) the relationship that existed between the teacher and supervisor (principal) in Zimbabwe from the 1920s right up to the early 1970s was that of the boss and the employee. The teacher as junior partner in the relationship had no say and his creativity was stifled by bureaucratic control. "[I]nspectors forced teachers to use methods of teaching that encouraged rote learning. School inspectors visited schools with the express purpose of trying to detect faults in teachers." (Murimba 1993:150)".

Mbamba (1992:28) observes that "...within the traditional concept, supervision is characterised by formality, rules and regulations and an artificial social milieu which makes the supervisor appear as a God in the institution". Greater control of Zimbabwe's education system during the 1920s up to the early 1970s was manifested through detailed schemes that were strictly adhered to. The scheme prescribed the content and methodology which were to be utilized by the teacher in every lesson. The timetable, scheme of work, the teaching procedures and pacing were literally identical throughout the country; thus it was possible to tell what all grade five teachers would be teaching and how they would be teaching it on a given day. Murimba (1993:152) observes that "[c]lose supervision, deadlines, formats, no trust in teachers and no

initiative, are features of the scientific model".

3.7.2 Human relations supervision

Mbamba (1992:105) explains that "[t]he human relations model tries to emphasise team work as opposed to the creation of social cliques among employees. The underlying principle of this model is that people who are satisfied increase productivity and it is easier to lead, control and work with individuals who are satisfied."

The human relations model frowned at the view that workers were mere tools to be used by management for their ends. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979:3) observe that "...in this model teachers were to be viewed as people in their own right rather than packages of needed energy, skills and aptitudes to be used by supervisors".

Supervision, according to the human relations model, has to create a feeling of satisfaction among teachers showing interest in them as people. Personal feelings and comfortable relationships were the watch words of human relations supervision. Participation was to be an important method and its objective was to make teachers feel that they were useful and important to the school.

Ever and Morris (1990:16) coined the term *solicitous supervisory style* to refer to the style to refer to the style emanating from human relations supervision. They assert that the principal who uses the solicitous supervisory style cares about people and wants to be liked. He/she avoids conflict and if the school is happy that is all that matters.

Such a principal praises to the point of flattering and glosses over slack or poor performance.

Madziyire (1995:15) informs us that with the post independence democratization of the education system in Zimbabwe during the 1980s, there was some attempt of supervising teachers in a manner geared towards demonstrating a concern for the interest of learners. Supervisors, too, became more human in their supervision of teachers. However, Madziyire (1995:16) warns that "[w]hen supervisory practices are based on the human relations model, teachers tend to adopt a laissez-faire attitude, which leads to chaos. Teachers may neglect their work knowing fully well that the principal would not reprimand them for fear of straining relations."

3.7.3 Human resources supervision

The human resources model was a challenge to the scientific and human relations supervision models although it did incorporate what was considered the good of the former two models (the scientific and human relations models). This model emphasizes the full utilization of a person's capacity for continued growth. The proponents of this model believe in giving teachers challenging work. The proponents of the human resources model realised the need to intergrate personal needs and organisational needs. (Madziyire (1995:82) reveals that:

> *Human resources theorists had an interest in people,*
> *but more so in the potential these people had. Workers*
> *✱ would receive maximum satisfaction and enrichment from*

achievement at work. The workers would then work to reach higher levels of effectiveness because they are committed to organisational goals.

In the human resources model, the supervisors' (principals') role would be mainly to help teachers develop as total beings with individual talents and competencies. Satisfaction emanating from the use of this model, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979:72), results from the successful completion of important and meaningful work. Supervisors who base their supervision on the human resources model, help staff members to find solutions to poor performance and involve staff in making decisions which affect them.

According to Chakanyuka (1996:25) the supervisory style that appears to stem from the human resources model, is the participatory style. The *participatory style* encourages participatory decision-making, increased worker responsibility and gives teachers more autonomy. Supervisors (principals) who base their supervision on the human resources model, help staff members to find solutions to poor, performance and involve staff in making decisions which affect them.

3.7.4 Development supervision

This model recognises teachers as individuals who are at various stages of development and growth. According to Glickman (1981)(in Beach and Reinhartz 1989:136) "...as supervisors work with teachers in an educational setting, they should match their assistance to teachers' conceptual levels with the ultimate goal of teachers

taking charge of their own improvement". In addition, supervisors must be knowledgeable about and responsive to the developmental stages and adult life transitions of teachers (Beach and Reinhartz 1989:136).

Development supervision is described by Beach and Reinhartz (1989:144) in terms of two teacher variables that change over time and are related to instruction. These variables are teacher commitment and level of abstract thinking. The term commitment refers developmentally to the willingness of teachers to expend time and energy. It appears that over time, teachers move from concern for self to concern for their students and finally to concern for other students and other teachers. The concern is expressed in the teacher's willingness to devote time and energy to helping others (Glickman 1984:110).

The teacher continuum ranges from low to high as shown in Figure 3.1 below. According to this model, teachers at the one end of the continuum are low in commitment. These teachers tend to show concern for their own success and survival and seldom demonstrate any concern for learners and other teachers. At the opposite end of the continuum are teachers who have a high level of commitment which is shown in their concern not only for their pupils but for other pupils and teachers as well (Glickman 1984:115). These teachers are willing to spend extra energy and effort to helping others.

Figure 3.1:   Commitment continuum

Low	High
* Little concern for students.	* High concern for students and other teachers.
* Little time or energy expended.	* Extra time or energy expended.
* Primary concern with keeping one's job.	* Primary concern with doing more for others.

Source: Glickman (1984:43)

Glickman (1989)(in Beach and Reinhartz 1989:165) also provide a continuum of abstract thinking for teachers as shown in Figure 2 below.

Figure 3.2:   Continuum of abstract thinking

Low	Moderate	High
*Confused about the problem.	*Can define the problem.	* Can think of the problem from many perspectives.
*Doesn't know what can be done.	*Can think of one or two possible responses to the problem.	* Can generate many alternative plans.
* "Show me".		
*Has one or two habitual responses to problems.	*Has trouble thinking through a comprehensive plan.	* Can choose a plan and think through each step.

Source :   Glickman (1984:46)

According to this model teachers with high abstract thinking ability are at the desired end of the continuum.   Teachers at the end of the continuum have the ability to conceptualise a problem from many perspectives, formulate several alternative plans and select a plan and follow through each step.   In working with such teachers, the

supervisor encourages and reassures them as they experiment with new ideas and teaching methods and secures appropriate resources for successful lesson implementation (Glickman 1984:115). Teachers who function at the other end of the continuum, that is, those with low levels of abstract thinking are unclear about the problems and therefore cannot conceptualise what should be done. Glickman (1984:120) contends that "... in working with such teachers the principal helps by providing simple clear statements, many opportunities to practice what has been discussed, concrete guidance and continuous supervision to ensure that items discussed are implemented".

This model (development supervision) it will appear, implies that novice teachers (young teachers) would be (generally), found in the low abstract thinking category after which they move to the moderate thinking category which is then followed by the high abstract thinking category.

Wiles (1975:57) proposes that in working with teachers who have a limited ability to think abstractly, the supervisor (principal) may use the directive style (see section 3.8.2):for those who are moderate in abstract thinking the best styles would be the consultative and participatory styles (see section 3.8.1.2), and for the high abstract thinkers the democratic and non-directive styles (see section 3.8.1.1) would be the most ideal.

Within the development model, the role of the supervisor is to return more responsibility for instructional improvement to the teachers, and a cooperative problem-solving

approach is employed. Supervisors make decisions collectively with teachers. Motivation for continued instructional improvement comes from the supervisor as well as from the teacher. In such an environment, teachers take greater control of their own professional development (Beach and Reinhartz 1989:166; Gordon 1987:64).

3.7.5 Clinical supervision

The essential ingredients of clinical supervision as articulated by Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) (in Sergiovanni and Starratt 1979:209) include the establishment of a healthy supervisory climate, a special mutual supervisory support system called colleagueship, and a cycle of supervision comprising conference, observation of teachers at work, and pattern analysis. The supervisor is first and foremost interested in improving instruction and increasing the teachers' personal development.

Mbamba (1992:107) sees clinical supervision as "... an intensive process designed to improve teachers' classroom performance. If clinical supervision is to operate effectively, a collegial, collaborative relationship between teachers and supervisors (principals) is an essential prerequisite. One of the proponents of clinical supervision, Cogan (1973)(in Madziyire 1995:87), names the stage of clinical supervision that of *establishing a teacher-supervisor relationship*. It includes a two way support system called colleagueship: the supervisor builds a relationship based on mutual trust and support and inducts the teacher into the role of co-supervisor. The teacher must not fear the supervisor but must take him/her as a colleague helper.

The second phase is that of *planning with teachers*. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979:321) "[t]eacher and supervisor [principal] plan together a lesson, a series of lessons or a topic unit". The teacher and supervisor (principal) ask themselves if the plan is in tune with larger plans surrounding it. They have to scrutinize the content for suitability. This shared planning means that the plan belongs to both the teacher and supervisor (principal) and ensures that there will not arise a situation where the teacher is blamed for failure.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979:323) say that phase three involves *planning the strategy of observation*. Together the teacher and the principal plan and discuss the kind and amount of information to be gathered during the observation period and the methods to be used to gather this information.

The fourth phase is *the observation of instruction*. The roles to be assumed by the principal are agreed upon prior to the lesson. The principal may either be a colleague teacher, resource person, demonstration teacher, principal or a non-interacting entity in the classroom. Both the teacher and the principal observe the teacher's and pupils' behaviour and any other events worth noting (Goldhammer 1969:98; Madziyire 1995:84; Sergiovanni and Starratt 1979:362).

The firth stage is *the analysis of the teaching learning process*. Either together or separately, the teacher and principal analyse the proceedings of the lesson. The extent to which set objectives were achieved is assessed. Any critical incidents including the teacher's style is examined (Beach and Reinhartz 1989:156; Ndebele

2002:45; Olivia 1976:112).

The *conference strategy* is planned in the sixth phase. Time and place for the conference are discussed. Privacy is important and the teacher's classroom is the most ideal place for the conference (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1979:323).

The actual conference is the seventh phase which puts more emphasis on behaviours than on the individual. It is an answer which is wrong and not the teacher. The conference provides the opportunity and setting for the teacher and principal to exchange information about that which was intended in a given lesson or unit and that which actually happened (Madziyire 1995:89; Sergiovanni and Starratt 1979:324).

The eighth phase (which is the last) is *the return to planning*. Any incident or any patterns identified for improvement are incorporated into the new planning, and the cycle once again starts (Madziyire 1995:91; Sergiovanni and Starratt 1979:324; Beach and Reinhartz 1989:155).

Goldhammer (1969)(in Beach and Reinhartz 1989:156-158) condensed the phases of clinical supervision into five. Goldhammer's five-step clinical supervision process includes pre-observation, conference, observation, conference and post conference analysis.

The democratic supervisory and non-directive styles like the consultative and the participatory style (discussed in detail in section 3.8.1.2) slot well into the clinical

supervision model because the principal allows subordinates freedom in making decisions. The supervisor serves as facilitator and refrains from criticising unnecessarily. The democratic supervisory style (see section 3.8.1.1) allows teachers to seek help from a principal without fear of assessment or grading. In fact various styles can be related to the clinical approach. The participatory style is found where both teacher and supervisor (principal) plan together. The collaborative style is evident during the stage when the principal seeks to establish colleagueship in order to work harmoniously together (Madziyire 1995;37; Olivia 1976:120; Beach and Reinhartz 1989:157).

3.7.6 Self-assessment supervision

Another model of supervision involves teachers in self-evaluation and is called self-assessment evaluation. Bailey (1981) (in Beach and Reinhartz 1989:16) defines self-assessment as "[t]he process of self-examination in which the teacher utilises a series of feedback strategies for the purpose of instructional improvement". The purpose of teacher self-assessment is to enable the teacher to become self directed in improvement activity. During self-assessment, teachers are called upon to evaluate their own performance so that they will be more aware of strengths and weaknesses associated with classroom instruction (Bailey 1981:214) (in Beaton 2000:71).

Bailey (1981:215) states that the first step in self-assessment involves teachers analysing and reflecting on their teaching performances. As they reflect on their performances, teachers can use carefully developed inventories that are based on

teacher behaviour associated with effective instruction. The inventories should be specific enough to encourage teachers to make critical decisions regarding their instructional efficiency.

In the second step of the self-assessment model, the teacher uses the information generated from the completed inventory when answering the question, "How objective have I been in assessing my own performance?" (Bailey 1981) (in Beach and Reinhartz 1989:158).

The third step in self-assessment involves feedback from other people like the principal. The supervisor (principal) uses the inventory designed to gather information about the teacher's instructional behaviour that relates to variables associated with effective instruction. In addition to inventories, videotaping or audio taping can be useful tools for the teacher in building a teaching profile. These techniques provide a more objective data base for analysing teacher performance, and give teachers the opportunity to see how they look and/or sound (Bailey 1981:217; Dillon-Peterson 1981:99; Orlich 1984:34; Ncube 2000:150).

According to this model, the fourth step which entails accurate assessment of existing personal and professional attributes, is most important in determining the accuracy of the information from other people (Bailey 1981:217). Self-assessment can be considered a success when the teacher verifies that the perceptions of others have yielded an accurate picture of existing personal and professional attributes (Beach and Reinhartz 1989:172). If the data collected on the inventories or the feedback from

others are inconsistent with the teacher's own rating there is a misconception concerning classroom effectiveness (Orlich 1984:34). For the process of self-assessment supervision to be effective, teachers should honestly commit to analysing and changing their classroom behaviours. Additionally, teachers should have confidence in the process and in themselves. If these two factors are objectively addressed, the original goal of the model, namely that of self-improvement, can be achieved (Beach and Reinhartz 1989:172; Bailey 1981:217; Orlich 1984:35).

Supervisors (principals) who encourage self-assessment supervision are actually using non-directive supervisory styles (see section 3.8.1). Non-directive styles assume that teachers are capable of analysing and solving their own problems. Principals should therefore not unnecessarily interfere but should come to complement the teacher's own efforts (Gickman 1989:79; Beach and Reinhartz 1989:175; Madziyire 1995:41).

3.8   LEADERSHIP STYLES

As indicated in section 3.7, there are various leadership styles that principals can employ as they carry out the supervision process. Reddin (1875) (in Sergiovanni and Starratt 1979:64) proposes that the effectiveness of a given leadership style can only be determined within the context of a specific leadership situation and that styles can be grouped as directive or non-directive. These styles which are also discussed by Kasambira (1989:99 - 110) are presented below. It should be borne in mind that the classification of leadership styles can be related to the three well-known broad categories of style; namely, autocratic, democratic and free-reign (laissez-faire) as

identified by Bittel (1974:103) (in Beaton 2000:73).

3.8.1 Non-directive styles

These styles allow subordinates to generate ideas and participate freely in decision making. Examples of leadership styles that would fall under this group include, inter alia; the democratic, consultative and laissez-faire leadership styles, (Madziyire 1995:11; Ever and Morris 1990:155; Murimba 1993:150; Sergiovanni and Starrat 1979:5).

3.8.1.1 Democratic style

A leader using this style allows subordinates a lot of freedom and accords them the opportunity to make decisions. While the leader ensures that they influence decisions through suggesting and consulting, they do not issue orders. Quite often the principal serves as a facilitator and refrains from critising unnecessarily. This style tends to keep the morale of subordinates high. The disadvantage of the style is that no one may take full responsibility for decisions arrived at (Kasambira 1989:100; Marks 1985:231; Murimba 1993:24; Sergiovanni and Starrat 1979:5).

3.8.1.2 Consultative/Collaborative/Participatory style

The consultative style is sometimes referred to as the collaborative or participatory style (Murimba 1993:25). The consultative style allows teachers to work with other

teachers in experimenting with alternative practices and procedures. In schools where the consultative style is implemented, teachers learn to view each other as resources for professional growth and work together with instructional supervisors (principals) toward common instructional goals (Harber and Davies 1997:80; Kasambira 1989:100; Murimba 1993:25).

3.8.1.3   The Laissez-faire style

The laissez-faire style is a kind of leadership style where there are practically no rules in the organisation. Subordinates are free to do what they want. The school principal just watches what is going on in the school. The school principal acts as an information centre and exercises minimum control. He depends upon employees' sense of responsibility and good judgement to get thing done. The advantage of the style lies in that mature people are free to do what they want and are free to innovate (Bittel 1974:104; Kasambira 1989:121;Madziyire 1995:98; Musaazi 1982:63).

3.8.2   Directive styles

The directive styles emphasise the role of work and organisational goals. The role of the supervisor (principal) is to direct workers (teachers) to work towards the achievement of set goals, objectives and tasks of the organisation. Success has to be ensured through close supervision. The styles under the directive styles do not put emphasis on individual needs (Ever and Morris 1990:155; Madziyire 1995:11; Murimba 1993:26). Examples of leadership styles that would fall under this group would include,

inter-alia, the autocratic, nomothetic and the charismatic leadership styles (Ndebele 2002:60; Beaton 2000:37; Madziyire 1995:13).

3.8.2.1 Autocrative style

A leader (principal) using this style gives minimum concern to relationships. The leader is seen as having no confidence in others, as unpleasant and is interested only in the immediate job. Everything has to be controlled from top management and supremacy is placed on the supervisor's (principal's) authority over supervisees (teachers) (Bittel 1974:105; Beach and Reinhartz 1989:231; Madziyire 1995:41).

According to this researcher any of the fair styles discussed above can be implemented successfully if they are appropriate to a specific supervisory context (section 3.7).

3.8.2.2   Nomothetic style

The style stresses the role of the work and organisational goals. Workers are coerced to achieve set goals, objectives and tasks of the organisation. Success has to be ensured through close supervision. The style does not put sufficient emphasis on individual needs. Subordinates (teachers, therefore end up identifying themselves with the needs of the organisation (Murimba 1993:25; Marks 1985:232).

3.8.2.3   Charismatic style

The style is based on the magnetic personality and influence of the leader (principal). The leader commands respect, obedience, love, faith and devotion of the subordinates (teachers). This could be due to personal attributes like attractiveness, eloquence or posture. Subordinates (teachers) tend to be drawn toward the charismatic leader rather than being devoted to the organisation (Kasambira 1989:102; Murimba 1993:26; Sergiovanni and Starratt 1979:6).

3.9   STAFF DEVELOPMENT: WORKING WITH PEOPLE

Working with people is the main activity in the instructional supervision process. The concern for teachers as individuals should be the focus of what principals do when fostering professional growth and development. Staff development activities are not just for teachers who are experiencing difficulties with delivering instruction; rather these activities are for all teachers (Beach and Reinhartz 1989:231; Madziyire 1995:100). This, therefore, underlines the importance of staff development activities for all teachers. This section will discuss staff development under the following sub-headings: Definition and purpose of staff development, teacher characteristics, steps in developing staff development programmes and management support to staff development.

3.9.1 Definition and purpose of staff development

In order for teachers to grow and develop professionally, there is need for instructional supervisors (principals) to plan and implement school based in-service staff development programmes. In this regard, Edefelt and Johnson (1975:5) state that:

> *[i]n-service education of teachers [or staff development] is defined as any professional activity that a teacher undertakes singly or with other teachers after receiving his or her initial teaching certificate and after beginning professional practice.*

Other researchers have characterised in-service programs in a variety of ways. Dillon-Peterson (1981:99) has identified five purposes of in-service activities. These are:

+ Identifying key components of an effective staff development programme;

+ identifying free and inexpensive resources available to school districts;

+ examining successful models that fit a variety of situations and people;

+ planning for human needs; and

+ developing a practical staff improvement which is applicable to the local situation.

Orlich (1984:34) views in-service education differently. He sees in-service educational development as the key component of supervision as consisting of

> *... programmes that are based on identified needs, planned and designed for a specific group of individuals in school districts, have a specific set of learning*

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> *objectives, and are designed to extend, add or improve job oriented skills or knowledge.*

Yet another perspective on in-service is offered by Howsam (1977:12) who regards in-service educational development as continuing education for teachers. For him in-service educational development is

> *the deliberate effort made by teachers and professional organisations to provide for keeping up to date and expanding the professional knowledge and skills throughout the career of the teacher regardless of where the teacher teaches.*

For Beach and Reinhartz (1989:226) in-service staff development is a process that should be viewed comprehensively. In-service staff development, according to them, include the following aspects:

◆ The exploration of knowledge, techniques and curriculum;

◆ a way of keeping up with new developments in one's field;

◆ a means of expanding one's own knowledge and ideas and remaining intellectually alert;

◆ an effort to develop professional or intellectual excellence;

◆ the pursuit of personal professional goals;

◆ the opportunity to link in-service education with pre-service education;

◆ an activity intended for all teachers regardless of professional or developmental level; and

◆ a systematic, long term, individualized and eclectic procedure oriented toward

improving classroom instruction.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983:327) are of the opinion that "[i]t is helpful for instructional supervisors (principals) to think of staff development as not something the school does to the teachers but as something the teacher does for himself/herself".

3.9.2 Steps in developing in-service/staff development

Beach and Reinhartz (1989:248) argue that:

> *Not only must supervisors have a knowledge of their own strengths and weaknesses as well as of the developmental characteristics of the teachers they work with, they must also be aware of the aspects of successful staff development programmes. A comprehensive and continuous plan for the improvement of instruction is a prerequisite if staff development is to be effective.*

Supervisors (principals) therefore need to properly plan their staff development programs if these are to make any impact on the development of the teachers. They should make a large investment of time and effort and commit other resources to the staff development program. However, as Wood and Thompson (1980:129) observe "...even with a large investment of time and effort from supervisors as well as commitment of financial and material resources, staff development may frequently appear to be disorganised, with unclear goals and objectives". Perhaps one reason for this disorganised appearance is that supervisors have often been accused of supporting *MacGregor's Theory X* in that they view teachers as disliking and avoiding

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in-service sessions. Orlich (1984:198) says that "...the supervisor's [principal's] view

of teachers in this regard are communicated to teachers, who then consider in-service

sessions as a waste of time". Consequently, as Beach and Reinhartz (1989:200)

confirm "[i]n many schools *Theory X* becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy".

Staff development should become the vehicle for improving instruction and not a waste

of teachers' time. What does it take to make staff development effective? Several

investigators have provided some insights into this question. Orlich (1984:210) has

identified the following six steps for achieving successful staff development programs:

◆   Involve the participants during the presentation;

◆   incorporate sessions into an overall plan to improve instruction;

◆   offer specific, concrete training that takes place over an extended period of time;

◆   observe similar skills or programs in action;

◆   provide sessions that focus on concrete, practical problems; and

◆   use logically developed materials.

For Sparks (1983:79) staff development also offers a promising road to teacher growth

and instructional improvement. And although teacher growth is the objective, according

to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983:237)

> *[i]n-service staff development should be less a function
> of polishing existing teaching developments and more
> a function of the teacher's changing as a person; of seeing
> himself/herself, the school, the curriculum and students
> differently.*

The teacher should feel the usefulness of staff development and appreciate the positive change that the in-service education programme was brought to him or her as an individual. To do a good job in planning and conducting in-service staff development activities, the instructional supervisor (principal) will clearly need to devote considerable time and effort (Sparks 1983:84).

3.9.3 Teacher characteristics

When planning and implementing staff development activities, principals need to consider the demographic make up of the teachers they work with and the different stages of the teacher's development. Beach and Reinhartz (1989:239) state that when viewing teachers as learners, supervisors should keep in mind the following general principles of teacher development:

1.   Unique identifiable stages or periods of development exist for adults as well as children;

2.   the movement from one stage or period to another is sequential; and

3.   the rate of development and movement from one period or stage to the next is unique for each individual.

According to Beach and Reinhartz (1989:230) teachers then, like students, go through development stages that have distinct characteristics and involve distinct tasks. Levin (1987:87) suggests that an understanding of the life cydes can be an important

resource for supervisors and other school leaders because seldom, if ever, will all the teachers whom a principal works with be at the same stage of development. Three distinctive periods of adult development (Holms and Turner 1986) and the corresponding development tasks (Newman and Newman 1987) are summarised in figure 3.3 below.

Figure 3.3:   Stages of adult development

Period of development	Age	Task/characteristics
Early adulthood	20-40	Seek intimacy versus isolation through marriage, work, and life style; is idealistic and motivated.
Middle adulthood	40-65	Seeks generativity versus stagnation of career or household, nurturing marriage or other intimate relationships, raising children, has conformist behaviour and seeks belonging.
Later adulthood	65 to death	Seeks integrity versus despair by redirecting energy toward new roles and interests, accepting one's position in life, coping with physical and physiological changes, and developing a perspective about death.

Adopted from Beach and Reinhartz (1989:240).

By combining the basic principles of development with the periods of adult development Reinhartz and Beach (1989:130- 131) cites the work of Warnat (1979), providing information related to adult learners at different ages.

1.   In terms of intelligence, adult learners are the smartest between the ages of 18 to 25 years, but they become wise and more experienced with increased age.

2.   The vocabulary of a 45 year old adult learner is about three times greater than that of an individual just graduating from college.

3.   The brain of the adult learner at the age of 60 possesses about four times more

information than when the individual was 21.

4. In terms of happiness and satisfaction with life, adult learners·have the best sense of their physical self from ages 15 to 24.

5. Adult learners have the best sense of their professional self between the ages of 40 to 45.

6. For the adult learner, pessimism peaks between the ages of 30 and 39.

7. After age 30 adults become more realistic about achieving happiness; they realise that talent and determination are not always enough to guarantee success and that happiness is no longer an aim in and of itself, but that it encompasses their health, professional achievement and emotional goals.

8. In terms of creativity, generally, the peak period is between the ages of 30 and 39 but varies according to the profession.

9. While the peak in most fields come early, people continue to produce quality work throughout their lives.

Santmire (1979:105) posits that "because of the number of teachers who participate in staff development sessions and the differences in their ages, many if not most, function at different developmental levels". Principals should therefore pay particular attention to teachers' level of cognitive functioning. Supervisors (principals) must recognise that teachers, like students, are individuals with varying cognitive abilities, and that they have different levels of commitment to personal growth and change (Santmire 1979:106).

3.9.4 The management approach to change

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While not necessarily seen as a staff development model perse, one of the most widely recognised approaches for people development has been proposed by Blanchard and Johnson (1982) in their book *"The One Minute Manager"*. This model has a business orientation and therefore focuses on ways of increasing profits while improving the productivity of people within the organisation. Beach and Reinhartz (1989:250) state that the concepts presented by the *"One Minute Manager"*, however, provide a sound basis for a generalisable model that instructional supervisors (principals) can use in working with teachers. *"The One Minute Manager"* approach places an emphasis on principles of people management and is designed to get quality results from the people in any organisation. Perhaps emphasis on people is best summarised when Blanchard and Johnson (1982:25) as follows:

> *The One Minute Manager's symbol, a one minute read out from the face of a modern digital watch, is intended to remind each of us to take a minute out of our day to look into the faces of the people we manage [supervise]. And to realise that they are our most important resources.*

In applying this view to schools, instructional supervisors (principals) must realise that teachers are their greatest resources. Beach and Reinhartz (1989:253) provide the three steps in the approach as outlined below.

The first step in the approach is called *One Minute Goal Setting*. In this step, the supervisor (principal) works with the teachers by:

1.   Establishing and agreeing on goals;

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2.   demonstrating and showing what good behaviour performance looks like; and

3.   reading and focusing on each goal.

The second step of the management approach designed to help people reach their full potential, is especially important during training and development. This step is called *One Minute Praising*. In implementing this step, the supervisor (principal) incorporates the following components:

1.   Telling teachers up front how they are doing;

2.   giving praise immediately and being specific about what was done right;

3.   telling teachers how he/she feels about their performance;

4.   pausing to allow teachers to feel the praise and experience how good they feel; and

5.   encouraging teachers to do more of the same and shaking hands or touching in a way that makes it clear that the supervisor (principal) support their success.

With the *"One Minute Manager"* approach, the key to develop people is to catch them doing something right and praising them for it. As teachers become successful, supervisors [principals] do not have to catch them doing something right very often, since teachers are able to reinforce themselves (Blanchard and Johnson 1982:194).

The third and final step in this approach involves the *"One Minute Reprimand"*. The step is to be used for good teachers only. The reprimand should never be used for those who are learning and developing and need reinforcement when they do things

right or approximately right. In implementing this step, the supervisor (principal) should include the following components:

1.   Telling teachers that they will be given both negative and positive feedback on their performance;

2.   providing the reprimand immediately;

3.   being specific about what was done incorrectly;

4.   telling teachers how you feel about what they did wrong;

5.   pausing to let teachers feel your dissatisfaction with their performance; and

6.   reaffirming that you think well of them and that while you are not pleased with their performance in this situation, you value them as members of the school organisation (Beach and Reinhartz 1989:260; Blanchard and Johnson 1982:198).

Beach and Reinhartz (1989:261) observe that *"The One Minute Manager"* provides an approach that can be a tool for instructional supervisors (principals) to use as they assist teachers in improving their performance in the classroom. The *"One Minute Manager"* emphasizes that the best minute that principals can sound is the one that is invested in people (Blanchard and Johnson 1982:198).

3.10 CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

In this chapter, the concept instructional supervision was defined and its purposes given in order to provide principals with the necessary concepts and skills to help

teachers to improve classroom instruction and increase student achievement.

The roles of the instructional supervisor (principal) were outlined and these include, among others, planning, organising, leading, helping, appraising, communicating and decision making. Problems faced by principals during the supervision of instruction were highlighted. It was revealed that the principal's time is spent too often on administrative housekeeping matters and maintaining order at the expense of supervising instruction; their work is overloaded with a multiplicity of demands from boards of directors, parents and the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture directors.

Models of supervision namely the scientific model, human relations model, developmental model, clinical model, and the self-assessment model were discussed. Findings reveal that the models of supervision give supervisors (principals) choices about how classroom instruction is supervised and analysed. Leadership styles associated with supervision models were revealed.

Finally, staff development was discussed. It was shown that supervisors (principals) should consider the purpose of staff development, the principles of adult learning and development and strengths and weaknesses of teachers when planning meaningful staff development programs. The literature study also revealed that staff development is intended for all teachers and not just for those who are inexperienced, young or underqualified.

The next chapter, *research design and methodology*, will discuss the research design

including the instruments to be used. The sample design, sampling techniques and the

criteria for the choice of sample size will be explained.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND

METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines research design with particular reference to the methods employed in this study. In order to focus the discussion, the research question and the emerging sub-questions are restated. The chapter then discusses the methodology in educational research in order to identify the most appropriate methods and approaches for use in this study. Various data collecting procedures are looked at, highlighting their strengths and shortcomings, in order to help develop the most suitable instruments to be used in the research at hand. Finally, the population, sampling and analysis procedures are discussed.

4.2 RESTATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH QUESTION

The main research problem of the study is: What does instructional supervision pertaining to Zimbabwean primary school principals entails? Out of this main research problem, the following sub-problems emerge:

7.   What do Zimbabwean principals understand by the concept instructional

supervision?

2.	What models of supervision are commonly used by Zimbabwean principals?

3.	What is the extent to which principals help teachers at a variety of professional levels to improve instruction?

4.	What are the problems faced by principals during the supervision of instruction?

5.	What are Zimbabwean teachers' views towards instructional supervision?

6.	Do principals effectively help their teachers to improve their teaching skills?

7.	How best can Zimbabwean principals be assisted to improve their supervisory skills?

## 4.3	AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The main purpose of the study is to provide Zimbabwean school principals with the necessary concepts and skills needed to help teachers improve classroom instruction and subsequently increase student achievement. The central theme of the research is the improvement of instruction and the focus is on the principal's supervisory practices in the improvement process.

Furthermore, the study aims at:

★	Finding out supervisory roles that promote teacher effectiveness.

★	Finding out modern models of supervision which have worked elsewhere to promote student achievement.

★	Investigating effective teaching behaviours that increase student achievement.

★   Establishing mechanisms of guiding principals as they work with teachers in

their quest for instructional excellence which will lead to high standards of

student achievement.

4.4   RESEARCH APPROACH

There is an ongoing debate concerning the most appropriate approach of research

inquiry in the social sciences generally, and in educational research in particular. A

review in literature points to the fact that the debate centres around the paradigms

which guide and inform research in the social sciences, in particular, data collection

methods and trustworthiness of the research findings (Leedy (1998:170; Tuckman

1978:87; Forcese and Richer 1973:52; Bailey 1982:90). These "paradigm wars", as

Bailey (1982:92) refers to the debate, revolve around the dominant approaches namely

the quantitative and qualitative traditions. Capturing the essence of this debate, House

(1994:2) claims that for sometime now, the educational research community has been

in fervent debate over the proper approach to research. Van Dalen (1979:168)

contends that the debate is mainly about research techniques or methods on the one

end, and paradigms, methodology, or strategy on the other.

The quantitative tradition, also referred to as positivist, relativist, and rationalistic is

based on the methodological procedures of the natural sciences, especially the

positivist approach to phenomena which concentrates on issues of operational

definitions, objectivity, reliability and causality (Bassey 1995:61; Schurink 2000:240;

Welman and Kruger 2000:55; Neuman 2000:110). The qualitative approach sometimes

referred to as naturalistic, interpretive, hermeneutical, and humanistic, on the other hand, follows the social sciences procedures of research (Miles and Huberman 1984:210; De Vos 2000:375; Schurink 2000:243; Menton 1998:89).

The paradigm debate discussed above reveals issues that are pertinent to any study as their understanding can help researchers to choose the most appropriate methods of research inquiry to be followed in the social sciences. Cohen and Manion (1995:162) contend that the differences between the qualitative and quantitative traditions should be viewed in terms of being tendencies and not absolutes like, for example, the statements that quantitative strategies do not always test preconceived hypotheses and that qualitative strategies never test hypotheses.

Whereas some researchers have defined the two approaches as polar opposites, Babbey (1979:78) and Fink and Kosekoff (1985:103) view the differences as representing a continuum with rigorous design principles on one end (the quantitative approach); and emergent, less well-structured directives on the other (the qualitative approach). This view of the competing paradigms being regarded as a continuum has the advantage of making it possible to combine the methods and designs in one study in order to harness the strengths of each other (McBurney 1994:39; De Vos 2000:359; Borg 1981:219).

The use of multi-methods in one study (in this case different methods related to both the qualitative and quantitative approaches) is called triangulation and it is based on the assumption that any bias in particular data sources, the investigator, and method

would be neutralized when used in conjunction with other data sources, investigators, and methods (Haralambos 1990: 725; Leedy 1980:75; Cohen and Manion 1995:160; Bailey 1982:273; Babbey 1979:78). Supporting this combination of research methods in one study, Anderson (1990:120)and Cresswell (1994:6) claim that such an approach to research secures an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question as it adds vigour, breadth and depth to any investigation.

Bailey (1982:273) and Haralambos (1990:726) advance five advantages of combining methods in a single study, namely:

★   It helps to converge results;

★   it is complementary in that overlapping and different facts of phenomenon may emerge;

★   it is developmental, in that the first method is used sequentially to help inform on the second method;

★   it helps merge contradictions and fresh perspectives; and

★   mixed methods add scope and breadth to a study

The combination of research methods related to both the quantitative and qualitative approaches in one study is supported by Dominowski (1980:74) who claims that despite the continued defence of the incompatibility between paradigms and educational and other social science, researchers have gradually come to accept the combination of research methods in one study, a practice which suggests the legitimate complementarity of paradigms.

The complementary nature of the two approaches is also described by Leedy (1980:83) quoted in Ndebele (2000:45) who states that the key features common to all methods related to qualitative research can be seen when they are contrasted with methods related to quantitative research. Most quantitative data techniques are data condensers that condense data in order to see the big picture (Bailey 1982:347; Menton and Marais 1991:113; Dominowski 1980:78). Qualitative methods, by contrast, are best understood as data enhancers because, when data is enhanced, it is possible to see key aspects of cases more clearly (Neuman 2000:15; Haralambos 1990:730).

Having highlighted the differences of the quantitative and qualitative traditions, and the advantages of combining the two approaches in one study it was found that a combination of the two in this study would be the most appropriate. The data collection techniques to be used in this study are discussed in the next section (4.5).

Ndebele (2000:53) is of the opinion that approaches or methods to be adopted depends on the nature of the research question. Because this study is concerned with perceptions of supervisors (principals) and teachers towards instructional supervision, the qualitative approach is found to be relevant. The quantitative approach is, however, also relevant because, as Leedy (1980:95) as quoted in Ndebele (2000;50) explains, it seeks to explain reality through an appeal to universal laws that regard measurement as the quintessential means through which reality can be represented. The choice of approaches and methods also match the information needs of the identified evaluation audiences as Leedy (1993:155) demands. In this study, the identified audience refers to instructional supervisors (principals) and instructional

supervisees (teachers).

As indicated above, this study employs a combination of the quantitative and qualitative approaches. The research instruments for data collection was the postal survey questionnaire for largely the quantitative approach, and the semi-structured interview for the qualitative approach.

A review of the literature indicates that the quantitative and qualitative traditions differ in that they are grounded on different foundations with regards to the nature of social reality, objectivity-subjectivity, the issue of causality and issues of values (Haralambos 1990:715; Anderson 1990:120; Leedy 1993:70; Bassey 1995:64; Borg and Gall 1971:66).

4.4.1 The nature of social reality

Cresswell (1994:4); Neuman (2000:64); De Vos (2000:359) and McBurney (1994:79) concur that the quantitative approach to research contends that there is a reality out there to be studied, captured and understood. In other words, the proponents of the quantitative approach assume that the world and the laws that govern it are relatively stable and predictable, which makes it possible to apply scientific procedures to study it (Cohen and Manion 1985:75; Van Dalen 1979:437; Babbie 1979:137; Dane 1990:63). Mouton and Marais (1991:110) claim that underlying the quantitative approach to research is the belief or assumption that we inhabit a relatively stable, uniform, and coherent world that can be measured, understood, and generalized about. This

conception of the quantitative approach to social reality is succinctly captured by

Dominowski (1980:93) and Dane (1990:67) who declare that it seeks to explain reality

through an appeal to universal laws that regard measurement as the quintessential

means through which reality can be presented. Forcese and Richer (1973:118) as

quoted in Magagula (1996:6) assert that the disciples of the quantitative paradigm

believe that reality exists and is apprehensible, that it is driven by immutable nature

laws, and that reality takes a mechanistic form.

Citing Guba (1981), Magagula (1996:6) purports that the disciples of the quantitative

tradition believe that there is a single, tangible reality, which can be fragmented into

independent variables and processes, any of which can be studied independently of

the others. The whole essence of social reality from the point of view of the proponents

of the quantitative tradition is summarized by Vulliamy et al (1990:8) who claim that:

> ... positivism involve the testing of hypotheses in order to
> uncover social facts and law-like generalisations about the
> social world. Thus, it is assumed that, in principle, at least
> the subjects of research can be treated as objects similar to
> objects in the natural world.

On the other hand, Miles and Huberman (1984:34) claim that qualitative tradition:

> ...assumes that reality is socially constructed through
> individual or group definitions of a situation. Reality is
> mind dependent and mind constructed. It does not exist
> independently of the mind and cannot be known through
> a neutral set of procedures. Therefore it follows that there
> are as many multiple, intangible realities and constructions
> as there are people making them.

Neuman (1997:331) contends that qualitative researchers emphasize the importance of the social context for understanding the social world because they hold that the meaning of a social action or statement depends, in an important way, on the context in which appears. Dominowski (1980:98) concurs with the above sentiments and argues that the qualitative approach to research strives to capture the human meanings of social life as it is lived, experienced, and understood by the participants. They further claim that capturing the contest is very crucial because it is assumed by the proponents of the qualitative tradition that each context examined is idiosyncratic. (Haralambos 1990:722; Dominowski 1980:99).

Emphasizing the relevance of the use of a qualitative approach to research in the social sciences, Anderson (1990:104), argues that the social historical world is not just an object domain that is there to be observed. It is also a subject domain which is made up, in part, of subjects who, in the routine course of their everyday lives are constantly involved in understanding themselves and others, and in interpreting the actions, utterances, and events which take place around them.

Bassey (1995:56) underscores this view by asserting that people are contextual social beings as they are affected by the context and setting they are born in. Van Dalen (1979:168) contends that in the qualitative approach this has significant implications in two ways. Firstly, in order for social scientists to understand human action, they should not take the position of an outside observer who sees only the physical manifestations of acts, but they should understand what the actors mean by their actions from their own points of view (Van Dalen 1979:168). Secondly, the

interpretations that social scientists construct can be, and often are re-interpreted and integrated into the lives of the subjects they describe.

In summary, Haralambos (1990:763) declares that people make sense of the world because of their contextuality, the social setting and its past. Miles and Huberman (1984:222) also assert that "...the primary goal of social science is to understand meaning in the context in which it is produced and received".

On their part, Menton and Marais (1991:98) underscore the perspective of social reality by the qualitative tradition by emphatically pointing out that qualitative research stresses the socially constructed nature of reality; the ultimate relationship between the researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape the inquiry.

4.4.2 Objectivity - subjectivity

Magagula, (1996:7) Dane (1990:215) and Miles and Huberman (1984:222) assert that because the quantitative approach to research is based on the assumption that reality exists out there and can be studied independently, it is believed that the investigators have the ability to detach themselves from the object of investigation in order to avoid bias and data contamination (Dane 1990:215). Furthermore, Bailey (1982:66) asserts that the quantitative tradition holds that the use of surveys and experiments are an attempt to control for bias, select a systematic sample, and be objective in assessing a situation.

However, contesting the objective nature of quantitative research, Haralambos (1980:760) argues that the approach only appears to be objective because it constitutes a refusal to look closely at the chaotic patterns of variation and interconnection that permeate human existence. It is a lens that imposes orderly patterns where the underlying story is really quite different and interesting.

Forcese and Richer (1973:76) argue that human beings are intentional and social, and more responsive to their environment than are physical objects. It is therefore not proper for the human sciences to rely as heavily on research methods such as those favoured by the physical scientists as a way of confirming or falsifying fundamental conceptions (Forcese and Richer 1973:76). Haralambos (1990:771) supports this argument by declaring that in order to know and understand a particular social setting and seeing it from the point of view of those in it, the researcher should not be detached, but part of the whole situation.

Arguing for the issue of subjectivity as a result of the investigator interacting with the subjects under study, Bobbie (1979:114) questions the validity of the essence of objectivity in the use of tests and questionnaires by pointing out that these instruments are designed by human beings and are subject to the intrusion of the researcher biases. McKerrow and Mckerrow (1991)(in Bassey 1995:80) in their effort to clarify the observer effects, cite the *Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle* which is understood to mean essentially that observers by their very presence always change what is observed. In essence, the Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle claims that whatever method is used, there will always be some interference as human beings are always involved. Leedy

(1993:178) believes that the only way to establish credibility is that the investigator should be committed to understand the world as it is, to be true to the complexities and multiple perspectives as they emerge.

4.4.3 Cause-effect relationship

Literature search reveals that one of the main distinguishing characteristics between quantitative and qualitative approaches to research is the relationship between cause and effect (Cohen and Manion 1995:155; Mouton and Marais 1991:120; Babbie 1979:90). It has been observed that the quantitative methodology uses a deductive form of logic where theories and hypotheses are tested in a cause and effect form. The approach uses predetermined hypotheses in order to develop generalizations that contribute to the theory and enable one to predict, explain and understand some situations. Bailey (1982:72) argues that the positivists paradigm conceptualises "treatments" as causes in much the same way that physicians construe pharmaceutical products as causes, and in this way it reduces human beings to mechanistic systems. Cohen and Manion (1998:122) assert that:

> ...concepts, variables and hypotheses are chosen
> before the study begins and remain fixed throughout
> the study in a static design, as though everything has
> stopped.

On the other hand, Haralambos (1990:715) and Fink and Kosecoff (1985:192) contend that the qualitative approach employs inductive logic where categories emerge from

informants rather than being identified *a priori* by the researcher. Such an approach is said to produce rich context bound information leading to patterns or theories that help to explain the situation under study.

4.4.4 Values and beliefs

Mauthner, Birch, Jessop and Miller (2002:56) posit that another distinguishing factor of the quantitative and qualitative approach is concerned with the relations of values to inquiry. The quantitative paradigm claims that inquiry should be value-free, and this is attained through the use of objective methodologies (Bailey 1982:74). Cohen and Manion (1995:160) further point out that positivism as a philosophy of science has an attitude towards metaphysics that separates value from fact. Haralambos (1990:730) is of the view that the concept of value-free is accomplished through the omission of statements about values from the written report, using impersonal language, and reporting the "facts".

On the other hand, Haralambos (1990:725) declares that in the qualitative approach:

> *...the investigator admits the value - laden nature*
> *of the study and actively reports his or her values*
> *and biases, as well as the value nature of information*
> *gathered from the field.*

It can be argued that social inquiry has to be value-laden because of its being influenced by various factors such as the investigator's values, the selected paradigm,

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the choice of the issues to be studied, the methods used to gather and analyse data, and the interpretation of the findings.

4.5 RESEARCH METHODS

Cohen and Manion (1992:41) posit that by methods we mean the range of procedures used to gather data which are to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction. In a sense, the term refers to the more technical procedures commonly used for data collection. As Cohen and Manion (1992:41) cogently observe, the word traditionally refers to those techniques associated with the positivist model obtaining responses to predetermined questions, recording measurements and performing experiments. However, for the purpose of this study, the meaning is extended to include those methods associated with the interpretive model such as non-directive interviewing. Put differently, then, methods in this study refer to procedures used in the process of data-gathering.

Principally, as already pointed out (in section 1.5.2), the study uses questionnaires and semi-structured interviews as the main devices to gather opinions and attitudes of the teachers and principals. (More information on this is discussed in section 4.5.3).

4.5.1 Using multiple methods

Melville and Goddard (1996:3) posit that there are several criteria by which one can classify research. These include the method of the research and the goal of the

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research (Melville and Goddard (1996:3). However as Bryman (1992:63) note, many research projects use more than one method.

The research methodology of this study is anchored in triangulation. As Bryman (1992:63) argues, the notion of triangulation comes from the idea of multiple operationism which is premised on the suggestion that the validity of findings will be enhanced by the deployment of more than one approach to data collection. Method triangulation is employed in this study mainly because the correlation between instructional supervision and teacher effectiveness is considered a complex phenomenon and also to minimise threats to validity, both internal and external (Tuchman 1994:366).

The term triangulation, which comes from surveying and is also a practice in navigation where a position is fixed more accurately by taking two trigonometrical readings (Mc Fee 1992:215) is applied in this study essentially as a means of countering the selective bias of a single view usually generated by a single method. The use of triangulation in this study suggests two things: firstly, that particular facts and opinions about primary school instructional supervision in Zimbabwe can be placed systematically in relation to other facts and opinions, and secondly, that if several independent sources of evidence point to a common conclusion, then there are grounds for confidence in that conclusion (Bromley 1986:24). Additionally, the use of method triangulation adds depth to the analysis and can increase the validity of this study and, hopefully strengthen confidence in its findings.

The methodology of combining approaches essentially describes the use of diverse strategies in tackling a research problem (Mc Fee 1992:216). Accordingly to this view, research designs which do not encompass multiple strategies are seen as narrow and inadequate (Brannen 1992:11). The argument is that researchers ought to be flexible and therefore ought to select a range of strategies that are appropriate to the research problem under investigation.

4.5.2 Theoretical implications of triangulation: integration versus complementarity

Brannen (1992:12) asserts that there is a great deal of controversy as to the conditions under which multiple methods ought to be combined. For example, some researchers have talked in terms of the complementarity of the approaches. By this it means that each approach is used in relation to a different research problem or different aspect of a research problem (Brannen 1992:13).

By contrast, Denzin (1970) (in Bromley 1986:25) in his original formulation of triangulation, saw the combining of research methods as a means of examining the same research problem and hence of enhancing claims concerning validity of the conclusions that could be reached about the data. In Denzin's (1970) view, the assumption was that the data generated by two or more methods which were assumed to focus on the same research problem, were consistent with and were to be integrated with one another.

With regards the first view, Fielding and Fielding (1986:31) argue that the assumption

that combining approaches ensures the validity of data is naive. Indeed as Brannen

(1992:13) cogently argues, the differences between different data sets are likely to be

as illuminating as their points of similarity. The idea that data generated by different

methods can simply be aggregated to produce a single unitary picture of what is

assumed to be the truth is often advanced by positivist (fielding and Fielding 1986:32).

In this study, the assumption is rather that data can only be understood in relation t the

purposes for which they are created, for example, the answering of a research

question. If the purposes differ, the data cannot be integrated (Brannen 1992:14).

4.5.3 The research instruments

This section discusses in detail the two instruments of research that were used in this

study. As already pointed out the study uses questionnaire schedules to obtain

information from principals and teachers. In addition it also uses the semi-structured

interviews.

The decision to triangulate the questionnaire schedule with face-to-face interviews

arose mainly from the decision to seek collaboration in terms of concepts drawn from

different theoretical perspectives. It seemed to the researcher that the concepts from

the context theory, the systems theory and the social action theory could not have been

operationalised and addressed fully other than by employing in-depth interviews.

The use of "triangulation within a method" which takes as its starting point the claim that

the reality of the situation is not to be apprehended from a single point of view seeks to avoid the risks that stem from reliance on a single type of units of analysis. Thus, as McFee (1992:216) aptly point out, it brings to bear two or more viewpoints on a particular occasion such as those of principals and teachers as is the case in this study.

However, the metaphor of "triangulation within a method" is not unproblematic (Bromley 1986:25). In a sense, triangulation within a method is not strictly speaking bringing together a number of independent data sources (McFee 1992:216). Rather as Elliot (1991:31) correctly observes the object under investigation is a whole situation comprised by a combination of such viewpoint.

4.5.3.1   The survey questionnaire

Cohen and Manion (1995:83) contend that the most commonly use approach in quantitative research is the survey. Surveys are suitable particularly in avoiding bias and subjectivity (Haralambos 1990:731). Cohen and Manion (1995:83) further explain:

> *Typically, surveys gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared, or determining the relationships that exist between specific events.*

Although there are different types of surveys, for this study the postal questionnaire was the favoured one because, as illustrated in the next section, it can be mailed, has the ability to reach many respondents who live in widely dispersed addresses and

preserves anonymity which encourages greater honesty.

However, it should be pointed out that the postal questionnaire, like all other instruments of data collection, has its advantages and disadvantages.

(a)   Advantages of postal questionnaires

A literature review reveals that the questionnaire has some advantages over other instruments of data gathering (Haralambos 1990:731-732; Bailey 1982:156; Cohen and Manion 1995:283; Ndebele 2002:56):

* It tends to be more reliable than the interview because it avoids face to face interactions, thus reducing bias.

* Because it can be mailed, it has the ability to reach many respondents who live at widely dispersed addresses.

* Because it is anonymous, it encourages greater honesty.

* It is economical in terms of money and time because it needs stamps and envelopes that can cost very little, and there is no need for transportation and accommodation money.

* Respondents have time to give thoughtful answers, to look up records, or to consult with others.

(b)   Disadvantages of postal questionnaires

The postal questionnaire like any data collecting instrument has its own disadvantages (Bailey 1982:157-158; Cohen and Manion 1995:283; Haralambos 1990:732-733):

*   It cannot be assumed that different answers to the same question reflect real differences between respondents. However much care is taken with the wording of questions, respondents may interpret them differently.

*   there is generally a low response rate.

*   it is difficult to get questions that explore in-depth information.

*   it is inflexible in that it does not allow ideas or comments to be explored in-depth.

*   Many question may remain unanswered. With no supervision while filling the questionnaire, the respondent may leave some questions unanswered.

*   it cannot record spontaneous answers. It is difficult to gather spontaneous first opinions, as the respondent has an opportunity to erase a haste answer that he/she later decides is not diplomatic.

*   it has the possibility of a biased sample. Responses and non-responses are not a random sample of the entire sample but are generally biased in some fashion.

*   There is control over the order in which questions are answered or on passing questionnaires to others.

A literature survey and the researcher's experience were used to design the survey questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted mainly of closed questions and a few open ended questions. For the closed questions, the likert scale was used. Anderson

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(1990:85) points out that the Likert Scale has a number of advantages over the other scales such as the thurstone and factorial scales. The Thurstone technique uses a scale of 11, with the middle category neutral. Generally the categories are labelled A through to K rather than 1 to 11, so that the middle category is F. Also, instead of ranking persons on the scale, the judges whose rankings create the scale, rank the statements. The 11 categories are arranged from A to K on the scale the judges whose rankings create the scale right, with A representing the most unfavourable attitude, F neutral, and K the most favourable (Bailey 1982:371; Edwards 1957:83; Cohen and Manion 1995:283; Haralambos 1990:750). Factor analysis is a statistical technique for synthesizing a large amount of data. It lands itself well to scale construction but requires a large amount of computation, and before the development of computers was generally impractical for the average researcher to compute. Factor analysis generally uses as input data a table containing correlation coefficients(r) showing the correlations among all pairs of variables to be analysed (Bailey 1982:373; Anderson 1990:87; Edwards 1957:84).

In this study, only five categories were used, which are: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD), and Not Sure (NS). Some categories like No Opinion (NO), Yes (Y) and /or No (N) were not used in this study. The advantages of the Likert Scale according to Anderson (1990:85) include the following:

*   it is less labourious;

*   the reliability of the Likert Scale tends to be good because of the greater range of answers permitted to the respondents;

*   the Likert Scale provides more precise information about the respondents'

degree of agreement or disagreement;

*   it becomes possible to include items whose manifest content it not related to the

attitude in question, enabling subtler, and deeper ramifications of an attitude to

be explored.

Open-ended questions will be included in order to capture perspectives from a wide

range of respondents so that the findings of the qualitative semi-structured interview

with its small sample can be enriched. The inclusion of open-ended questions in a

questionnaire will also add credibility to the findings.

(c)   The piloting stage

With regard to the piloting phase, Anderson (1990:121) claims:

> *All data gathering instruments should be piloted to test*
> *how long it takes recipients to complete them, to check*
> *that all questions and instructions are clear to enable*
> *you to remove any items which do not yield usable data.*

Bennet et al (1994:174) agree with the above and assert that the piloting of a research

instrument on a sample of respondents with similar characteristics to those of the

intended survey population, for example, may quickly reveal gaps in the logical

sequence of questions, or the incomprehensibility to the respondents of the wording

used.

Further literature search reveals that the piloting of research instruments is important

for several reasons. Firstly, piloting enables a researcher to remove any items which do not yield usable data. Secondly, piloting helps in finding out whether respondents understand and interpret instructions and questions in the same way. Thirdly, piloting is said to help the researcher to have some insight on the time each respondent may take to complete a questionnaire. Fourthly, piloting insists validity in the instrument as shortcomings are identified and then rectified (Bennet et al 1994:174; Anderson 1990:121).

Another important aspect is that the piloting exercise should be contextual as Oppenheim (1992:62) points out that in principle, the respondents in piloting studies should be as similar as possible to those in the main inquiry.

The piloting exercise for this study was done I a few selected primary schools in Nkayi District (Nkayi District is one of the districts in Matabeleland North in Western Zimbabwe as shown in figure 4). After the piloting stage, the questionnaires were fine-tuned and then distributed to the targeted respondents.

Most of the disadvantages of the postal questionnaire are a mirror of the advantages of the qualitative interview. The next section discusses, inter-alia, the semi-structured which is another instruments used in this study.

4.5.3.2   The interview

The essence of the qualitative interview is to capture the perspectives of the

respondents through verbal interaction between the interviewer and interviewee (Cohen and Manion 1995:272; Haralambos 1990:736; Bailey 1982:182). There are many types of interview schedules like the clinical interview or personal history interview, semi-structured interview, structured interview, and the unstructured interview (Bailey 1982:200-202; Haralambos 1990:737:738; Cohen and Manion 1995:273).

(a)   The clinical interview

The interviewer chooses certain aspects of the individual's life history which to question him or her about. The interview is flexible and structured.

(b)   The semi-structured interview

This type of interview uses a combination of open and closed-ended questions. The interview schedule allows the interviewees to express themselves at some length, but has sufficient structure to prevent aimless mumbling. In the semi-structured interview, there is no clear and exact structure for the questions asked.

(c)   The structured interview

It is simply a questionnaire administered by an interviewer who is not allowed to deviate in any way from the questions provided. The interviewer simply reads out the questions to the respondent.

(d)   Unstructured interview:

It takes the form of a conversation where the interviewer has no predetermined questions.

As indicated in 1.5.2, for this study, the semi-structured interview was used as one of the strategies of data collection.

A literature review reveals that the interview has some advantages over other instruments of data gathering (Haralambos 1990:736-737; Bailey 1982: 183-184; Cohen and Manion 1995:273).

- One major of the interview is its flexibility. Interviews can probe for more specific answers and can repeat a question when the response indicates the respondent misunderstood.

- The interview tends to have a better response rate than the mailed questionnaire. Persons who are unable to read and write can still answer questions in an interview, and others who are unwilling to expand the energy to write out their answers may be glad to talk.

- The interviewer is present to observe non verbal behaviour and to assess the validity of the respondent's answers.

- An interviewer can standardize the interview environment by making certain that the interview is conducted in privacy, that there is no noise, and so on, in contrast to the mailed study, where the questionnaires may

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be completed by different people under drastically different conditions.

✦ The interviewer has control over question order and can ensure that the respondent does not answer the questions out of order or in any other way thwart the structure of the interview.

✦ The interviewer can record spontaneous answers. The respondent does not have the chance to retract his or her first answer and write another as is possible with a mailed questionnaire.

✦ The respondent is unable to "cheat" by receiving prompting or answers from others, or by having others complete the entire questionnaire for him or her, as often happens in mailed studies.

✦ A more complex questionnaire can be used in an interview study. A skilled, experienced and well-trained interviewer can work with a questionnaire so full of skips, charts and graphs, arrows and detailed instruction and various other contingencies that even a well educated responded would feel hopelessly lost or at least intimidated if he or she received it in the mail.

The interview, like any other data collecting instrument has its own disadvantages (Bailey 1982:183-184; Haralambos 1990: 758-759; Cohen and Manion 1995:281; Oppenheim 1992:84):

✧ Interview studies can be extremely costly. The more complex studies require small bureaucracies with a host of administrators, field supervisors, interviewers, and perhaps even public relations personnel.

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Sampling is also costly. Interviewer schedules can also be costly to construct and reproduce. In addition, interviewers must be paid not only for the hours that they interview but also for training periods, and they must be reimbursed for travel expenses.

✧ Interviews are often lengthy any may require the interviewer to travel miles. In addition, the interviewer must arrange the interview for times when the respondent is at home. It is not uncommon for an interviewer to return to an address three or more times before an interview is finally granted.

✧ The interviewer can also cause error. He or she may misunderstand the respondent's answer, may understand it but make a clerical error in recording it, or may simply record an answer even when the respondent failed to reply.

✧ It has been repeatedly shown that a person's reasoning ability is adversely affected by such factors as fatigue, stress, illness, heat and density. The respondent may give answers in an interview situation that are less than his or her best effort merely because the interviewer arrived when the baby was crying, dinner was burning and the respondent need to go to the bathroom.

✧ The interview offers less assurance of anonymity than the mailed questionnaire. The interviewer knows the respondent's name and address and often his or her telephone number as well.

In this section it has been indicated that the differences inherent in the quantitative and

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qualitative traditions pervade all aspects of research design, including the research instruments. The combination of two approaches in one study has the advantage of exploiting the assets and neutralizing the liabilities of different methods, thus increasing the credibility of the research findings.

4.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING PROCEDURES

4.6.1 Population

Bailey (1982:85) points out that the sum total of all the units of analysis is called the population or universe. Haralambos (1990:740) contends that a population in research is a discrete group or unit of analysis such as organisations, schools and so on. The target population for this study was three education provinces in Zimbabwe; namely: Midlands, Matabeleland North and Matabeleland South. Zimbabwe is divided into ten education provinces as shown on figure 4 below. Out of these ten provinces eight are largely rural and two are cities; that is, Bulawayo and Harare.

Figure 4.1   Zimbabwe map showing provinces.

Source: Chibvonga, N. (1995:18)

The three provinces selected for this study, Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South and Midlands, are largely rural areas. More importantly, these provinces represent the typical Zimbabwean context, that is, small urban centres surrounded by large rural areas (Madziyire 2003:57). All the schools used in this study are basically rural.

The three provinces have a combined population of 1500 primary school principals out of about 6000 primary school principals in the whole country. They also have about 27000 primary school teachers out of around 90 000 primary school teachers in the entire educational system in this country. This have generally low passrates at national public examinations at Grade seven level. (Grade seven is the highest class in the Zimbabwean primary school system). Whereas the national average percentage passrate at Grade Seven for the past three years was 55%, Matabeleland North's

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average passrate stood at 35%, Matabeleland South at 39% and Midlands at 45% (Madziyire 2003:58).

4.6.2 Sample

4.6.2.1 Questionnaire

Having identified the population for this study the sample for the survey questionnaire constituted 200 principals and 600 teachers in the three provinces. Systematic sampling was used to come up with the 200 schools. Names of all primary schools in the three provinces were obtained from the Permanent Secretary of Education's Office and then arranged in alphabetical order. Every 10th school in the list was selected; that is numbers 10, 20, 30, 40 up to 2000. Every principal from the 200 selected schools automatically became a respondent for this study. Principals from the selected schools were requested to choose randomly one teacher from the infant classes (Grade 1 and 2) one from the intermediary classes (Grades 3 and 4) and one from the junior classes (Grades 5 to 7).

This was done so that respondents most probably came from all the three stages in the primary school system. For each of the 200 selected schools, this therefore implies that four questionnaires were sent; one far the principal and the three for teachers giving a total of 800 respondents for the study. The reason for the relatively large sample was to get more background information and add breadth, and to increase the external validity of the findings. As indicated in 4.5.1, the postal questionnaire can

have the disadvantage of high non-response rates, while some questionnaires may be rejected for various reasons; therefore the large number was to counter those problems.

4.6.2.2. The semi-structured interview

Purposive sampling was utilized to come up with respondents for the interview. Bailey (1982:99) describes purposive sampling as a type of non-probabilistic sampling in which the researcher uses his or her own judgement about which respondents to choose and picks only those who best meet the purpose of the study. The advantage of purposive sampling is that the researcher can use his or her research skill and prior knowledge to choose respondents. For this study, the sample for the semi-structured interview was made up of six primary schools easily accessible to the researcher by virtue of being near the researcher's place of work. Six principals from the selected schools and three of their teachers were the interviewees for the study, giving a total of twenty four interviewees constituting of six principals and eighteen teachers. Individual interviews were conducted with all the twenty four interviewees.

4.7   DATA PRESENTATION, ORGANISATION AND ANALYSIS

Apart from instrumentation and procedural concerns, collecting data raises concerns relating to data representation, organisation and analysis.

4.7.1 Statistical measures of data

Data can be qualitative or quantitative. On the one hand, as Melville and Goddard (1996:49) note, quantitative data have numerical values, for example, in the range zero to fifty. Qualitative data, on the one hand, have categorical values, for example, instructional supervision or teacher effectiveness. For example, whether the instructional supervision carried out by Zimbabwe primary school principals is effective or not is a qualitative question.

Quantitative data can be discrete or continuous. It is discrete if it takes on only whole values and continuous if it takes on only real value in some interval. For example, the extent of autocratic supervision style a principal practices is continuous data. In this regard, the statistical measure of data in this study is both discrete and continuous.

4.7.2 Graphical representation of data

Melville and Goddard (1996:51) argue that sometimes a picture explains a situation much more clearly than a jumble of numbers or words. Several common types of pictures from computers with spreadsheet facilities containing in-built graphing facilities are therefore used in this study.

4.7.2.1 The questionnaire

Data analysis for the postal questionnaire was done using a computer package for

analysing quantitative data called *Statistical Package for the Social Sciences*. Oppenheim (1992:297) advises that before the data is fed into the computer, certain things have to be done. Firstly, there is a stage of clearing the data set, which will be an attempt to eliminate some of the more obvious errors that might creep in during the data collection stage. For example, it has to be verified whether all questionnaires have been returned, whether all items have been properly answered, and whether there is consistency in responding to questions.

Tables, and graphs, showing inter alia descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, response and non-response rates, were made and used to present the findings. For the free-response questions which were included ·in the survey questionnaires, Oppenhein (1992:266) offers two alternatives for the analysis namely drawing up of a coding frame and verbatim reporting of responses. For this study verbatim reporting was used.

4.7.2.2 The semi-structured interviews

In the main, variables are treated as being unproblematically given by data in quantitative analysis. For qualitative analysis, however, it is the variable itself which becomes problematised and in need of explanation. It is perhaps for this reason that Fielding (1986:17) urges that in order to combine quantitative and qualitative approaches in analysis "...we could take the variable-centred regularities but would regard them not as an explanation but as social facts for explanation".

Qualitative analysis in this study attempts to take Fielding's perception and adopts a strategy that allows for quantitative and qualitative data to be used comparatively in analysis to provide findings which are on the one hand statistically reliable and on the other allowing a depth of interpretation. The inclusion of qualitative data from both the principals and teachers in this study attempts to achieve this conceptualisation.

In broad terms, however, qualitative data in this study are analysed using content analysis strategies. As Pons (1993:608) points out, content analysis refers to any analysis of the content of a document or speech or other formerly prepared account.

4.8 TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE RESEARCH

A review of the literature reveals that different strategies are employed by those who support the quantitative and qualitative paradigms in assessing the trustworthiness of the research findings (Johnson 1994:48; Newman 1997:66; Vulliamy et al. 1990:12). Bell (1993:50) asserts that whatever procedure for collecting data is selected, it should always be examined critically to assess the extent to which it is likely to be reliable and valid.

Magagula (1996:11) points out that some of the ways used by the physical sciences paradigm include reliability, validity, and objectivity. Reliability is the extent to which a test or procedure produces similar results under constant conditions on all occasions (Bell 1993:51; Bryman and Cramer 1996:65). The question of validity draws attention to how far a measure really measures the concept that it purports to measure (Dryman

and Cramer 1996:66).

In this study the reliability of the questionnaire was estimated in two ways. Firstly, the questions were checked for ambiguity, precision, language, and type of questions asked by making several attempts at improving the wording. Colleague teachers in the languages department at the researcher's school were asked to cross-check the questionnaires, while drafts were sent to the study supervisor / promoter for comments. Secondly, the questionnaire was pilot tested in some schools in Nkayi District (where the researcher works) whose characteristics were almost similar to the main sample.

Magagula (1996:11) claims that the physical sciences paradigm uses internal and external validity in order to instil the credibility and trustworthiness of the research findings. Cohen and Manion (1995:170) declare that internal validity is concerned with whether the experimental treatments make a difference in the specific experiment under scrutiny while external validity asks to what populations or settings these demonstrable effects, can be generalized. The threats to the validity of the research under study were tackled through piloting and cross-checking of questions as illustrated above.

On the issue of validity and reliability of the data collected, triangulation was utilized. This view of the use of multiple data sources as a way of enhancing the validity and reliability is supported by Haralambos (1990:754) who claims that such an approach to data collection further increases the trustworthiness of the research findings. The size of sample in this study and its typicality allowed for generalizations to be made.

However, it has been argued by the followers of qualitative paradigm that knowledge of human affairs is irreducible, subjective, and therefore cannot be captured by statistical generalizations and causal laws as applied in the physical sciences paradigm (Guba and Lincoln 1982:157; Ndebele 2000:56). Guba and Lincoln (1982), quoted in Magagula (1996:11) proposed a set of approximating credibility and trustworthiness of research findings such as isomorphism, irritability, transferability, dependability, and conformability. Magagula summarizes these authors' propositions and gives four strategies in which they are exhibited. Firstly, the investigator's statements should accurately reflect the respondents' perceptions. Secondly, the findings should be a function solely of the informants and the conditions of inquiry rather than the biases, motivations, interests, and perceptions of the investigator. Thirdly, if the inquiry is repeated with the same or similar subjects, the findings should be consistent with those of first inquiry. Fourthly, the results must be transferable to other similar situations.

In this study, some of the strategies that were employed in approximating the credibility of the research findings, are listed below.

+ *Triangulation* whereby interviews were conducted with principals and teachers. *Field notes* collected during interviews were used in conjunction with the lessons learnt from the literature review in chapter two and three.

+ *The piloting* of the interviews schedule and the questionnaire is expected to also lend credibility to the research findings.

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4.9   CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

This chapter has set the conceptual and operational framework for this study by bringing together the methodology, research methods and techniques which describe a variety of initiatives to study and implement effective instructional supervision of primary schools in Zimbabwe.   This chapter also discussed research instruments and why they were chosen. The population and sample were identified and described in detail, with justifications made. Data presentation, organisation and analysis were also discussed.

This chapter has used both qualitative and quantitative approaches. In this regard, the chapter has attempted to deconstruct the qualitative-quantitative divide, arguing that the dichotomy that usually depicts one approach as representing the true way and the other work of the devil is unfruitful. Finally, the chapter has revealed that all research methods have advantages and disadvantages, and the choice depends on the research questions.

The "data sets" generated from the principals and teachers are presented and discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION,

ANALYSIS AND

DISCUSSION

CHAPTER FIVE

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5. DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

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5.1 INTRODUCTION

In the first three interlinked chapters of this study (chapter one, two and three), an attempt to theorise instructional supervision in developing countries was made. These chapters did not only describe and analyse the way in which instructional supervision is carried out in developing countries, but more significantly tried to explain why it is carried out this way. Chapter four dealing on both quantitative and qualitative approaches, focused on the research approaches and methods used in this study.

This chapter reports on the results of the field work that was carried out from January to September 2005. As outlined in chapter four (see section 4.4 and 4.5), the research design of this study had two main data collecting features; a questionnaire and an interview guide. In consequence, the fieldwork in this study was carried out in two phases. The first phase, focusing on the interview was conducted between January 2005 and February of the same year. The six principals and eighteen teachers comprising fourteen male and ten female were interviewed at their respective schools.

The second phase, focusing on the questionnaire, was undertaken in two stages. The

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first stage which was pilot testing the questionnaire was done during the month of March 2005. Soon after completion of the piloting activity at the end of March 2005, the process of distributing questionnaires was undertaken. The process of administering the questionnaire took six months, that is, from April 2005 to mid September of the same year. Six hundred and fifty (650) questionnaires were distributed through the Post Office while the remaining one hundred and fifty (150) were distributed at various principals' and teachers' meetings and gatherings. The principals and teachers were requested to either post their completed questionnaires to this researcher (using the provided stamped addressed envelopes) or deposit them in sealed envelopes (that were provided) at designated schools within their districts which were centrally located.

The questionnaire was originally meant to be completed by two (200) principals and six hundred (600) teachers. However, despite the use of various strategies, including personally collecting completed questionnaires from a number of respondents and from a number of centrally situated points and the use of stamped addressed envelopes (SAES) to ensure a high-return rate, the return rate for the principals remained at one hundred and seventy-six (176) representing 86 per cent of the sample. The return rate for the teachers was five hundred and seventy two (572) representing 95 per cent of the sample.

The results that are about to be reported draw extensively on both the quantitative and qualitative data. Since most of the epistemological issues raised by linking quantitative and qualitative approaches were discussed in chapter four (see section 4.4) it is not necessary to explore them here.

The first section of the chapter deals with characteristics of the subjects in the sample. This information is found in tables 1 to 7. The second section presents findings of the study on instructional supervisory practices of Zimbabwean primary schools' principals using tables and graphs. The third part of the chapter presents and discuss findings from open-ended questions on the questionnaire in conjunction with findings from the semi-structured interviews. Finally, the last part of the chapter is based on extensive discussions of the findings of the study.

The demographic characteristics for the sample of principals and teachers respectively are summarised in tables 1 to 7. Overall, the two groups differed slightly in terms of gender composition, age, education level and teaching experience.

5.2 PROFILES OF PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS.

Table 5.1:   **Response rate to questionnaires.**

Categories of respondents	Number of questionnaires sent	Number of questionnaires returned	% of questionnaires returned
Principals (n=176)	200	176	86
Teachers (n=572)	600	572	95

The response rate from both principals and teachers was relatively high. The size of the sample from which the results will be based was therefore not significantly decreased by the problem of non-returns. Non-returns according to Philips and

Pugh(2000:48) "...introduced a bias in as much as they are likely to differ from respondents in many important ways thereby adversely affecting reliability and validity of the findings".

Table 5.2: Composition of sample by gender

Categories of respondents	Male		Female	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Principals (N = 176)	99	56	77	44
Teachers (N = 572)	257	45	315	55

As table 5.2 shows, 56 per cent of the sample principals were male, whereas 45 per cent of the teachers were male. The principal sample therefore contained more males (56%) than females (44%). The teachers' sample on the other hand contained more females (55%) than males (45%). Both sets of data were considered statistically significant to the extent that they tended to confirm the gender gap (in favour of males) with regards senior management in education which had always been pointed out by many a gender activist and educational publications. For example, the *Secretary for Education, Sport and Culture* (Zimbabwe Annual, Report of the *Secretary for Education, Sport and Culture*: 1995:8) clearly acknowledge the existence of disparities in senior management positions between males and females in favour of males in education and described them as a cause of concern.

Table 5.3: Demographic profiles of principals and teachers by approximate age.

Categories of respondents	18-25		26-30		31-35		36-40		41-45		Over 45	
	nf	%f	nf	%f	nf	%f	nf	%f	nf	%f	nf	%f
Principals (n = 176)	0	0	1	1	4	2	67	38	56	32	48	27
Teachers (n = 572)	67	12	103	18	160	28	137	24	69	12	34	6

Table 5.3 shows the age range for principals and teachers. As the table demonstrates, 97 per cent of the principals are above thirty-five years. Only 3 per cent are below thirty six years. Teachers are generally younger; more than 82 per cent of the 572 involved in the sample are below forty-one years. These figures indicate that the teaching force in the sample was relatively young. This has profound implications for the process of instructional supervision.

Table 5.4: Demographic profiles of principals and teachers by academic qualifications.

Academic Qualifications	Principals (n = 176)		Teachers (n = 572)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Ordinary level	113	64	370	65
Advanced level	34	19	160	28
Bachelor of Arts	24	14	13	2
Bachelor of Science	4	2	21	4
Master's Degree	1	1	7	1
Totals	176	100	572	100

The demographic characteristics for the sample of principals and teachers by academic qualifications are summarised in table 5.4. The two groups are almost identical in many respects. For example, most principals and teachers have ordinary level as their highest academic level (64% and 65% respectively). Only 1 per cent of each group are in possession of Masters Degrees. Ordinary level (commonly referred to as "O" level) is the minimum academic certificate with a minimum of five subjects with a grade "C" or better that anyone aspiring to be enrolled as a teacher trainee must possess in Zimbabwe. Ordinary level examinations are written at the end of a four year secondary school course. Before the localisation of the Zimbabwean examination regime (in the 1990s), the ordinary level certificate was offered by the University of Cambridge or the University of London. This therefore explains the reason why most principals and teachers possess this academic qualification. It is interesting to note that more teachers than principals possess the advanced level academic qualification (15% for principals

and 28% for teachers). This could be explained by the fact that soon after attainment of independence, the new government of Zimbabwe democratized education. There were massive expansions in the education sector particularly at secondary school level to accommodate all those prospective students who had failed to access education during the pre-independence period because of limited educational opportunities and to accommodate returning former refugees and freedom fighters who had terminated their education in order to join the war of liberation. (Chivore 1995:40; Ndebele 2000:63). The obvious result of this expansion was the high number of ordinary levels or Form Four graduates which necessitated the expansion of advanced level vacancies. With more students proceeding to advanced level (Form 6) the number of advanced level graduates increased thereby forcing most teacher training colleges to give first preference to prospective students who had done advanced level. Quite a significant number of younger teachers therefore possess advanced level as a result.

Table 5.5: Demographic profiles of principals and teachers by highest professional qualifications.

Highest Professional Qualifications		Principals (n=176)		Teachers (n=572)	
		nf	%f	nf	%f
Primary Teachers' Lower	(PTL)	0	0	10	2
Primary Teachers' Higher	(PTH)	0	0	10	2
Certificate in Education	(CE)	71	40	80	14
Diploma in Education	(DE)	29	17	419	73
Bachelor of Education	(BED)	71	40	53	9
Master of Education	(MED)	5	3	0	0
Totals		176	100	572	100

The demographic characteristics for the principals and teachers by professional qualifications are summarised in table 5.5. The two groups differed significantly in terms of professional educational levels. For example, 40 per cent of the principals in the sample possessed the Certificate in Education and 43 per cent had university degrees. Significantly, none of the principals had either a Primary Teachers Lower (PTL) or the Primary Teachers' Higher (PTH) certificates. These two (PTL and PTH) are old qualifications which teachers obtained after Standards Six (PTL) and Junior Certificate (PTH). Currently, the requirement is that anybody aspiring to be a primary school principal in Zimbabwe should have a minimum of C.E or D.E., which were/are awarded by the University of Zimbabwe through teacher training colleges which are associate colleges of the University of Zimbabwe (Chivore 1995:58).

The Certificate of Education (C.E) was phased out in 1992 and in its place came the

Diploma in Education (D.E). This explains why the majority of teachers (73%) who are

relatively younger (as depicted in table 5.3 above) are in possession of the D.E.

5.6 Demographic profiles of principals and teachers by teaching experience.

Teaching Experience	Principals (n=176)		Teachers (n=572)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
0 - 5 years	0	0	93	16
6 - 10 years	0	0	246	43
11 - 15 years	80	45	159	28
16 - 20 years	58	33	57	10
Above 20 years	38	22	17	3
Totals	176	100	572	100

As table 5.6 shows, the most common teaching experience of principals is 11-15 years

(45%) while the equivalent experience for teachers was 28 per cent. Most teachers

(43%) had teaching experience of between 6 -10 years. Significantly larger proportions

of principals had teaching experience of more than 20 years (22%) and yet a smaller

proportion of teachers (3%) had the same experience. It is significant to note that while

large numbers of teachers had ten or less years of teaching experience, no principal

fell within this range. The reason why no principal falls within 0-10 years teaching

experience could be that for one to become a substantive deputy principal, one should

have served a minimum of six years. Personnel should stay at least one year in the

deputy principals's grade before they can be promoted to the substantive principal

grade (Ndebele 2000:68). Principals in Zimbabwe are appointed by the Public Service

Commission (PSC) representing the government. It is this commission (PSC) that sets

the minimum standards for the promotion of principals. These standards include, inter

alia, academic and professional qualifications, performance and experience. When for

example, there are two deputy principals who applied for the same post of principal and

have the same qualifications and performance, the more experienced of the two is most

likely to get the post (Chivore 1995:19). This probably explains why most principals in

the sample have many years of experience.

Table 5:7: **Demographic profiles of principals by experience on the position of**
principal.

Experience as Principal	Principals (n=176)	
	nf	**%f**
0 - 5 years	46	26
6 - 10 years	20	11
11 - 15 years	81	46
16 - 20 years	26	15
Above 20 years	3	2
Totals	176	100

As table 5.7 indicates, the majority of principals have more than eleven years of

experience (63%) as principals. This revelation is inconsistent with findings by

Madziyire (1995:136)(see section 1.2) who discovered that in quite a number of schools

in Zimbabwe, due to a shortage of trained teachers, inexperienced teachers have been placed in supervisory roles (as acting principals). The implications of this situation are that most principals have relatively adequate experience necessary to guide teachers on instructional supervision.

5.3 QUANTITATIVE DATA ON INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORY PRACTICES OF ZIMBABWEAN PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS.

Data about instructional supervisory practices of Zimbabwean primary school principals is reported in this section.

Figure 5.1: Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item

1: "Principal conducts class visits twice per term."

Figure 5.1.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

Figure 5.1.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

Figure 5.1.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.
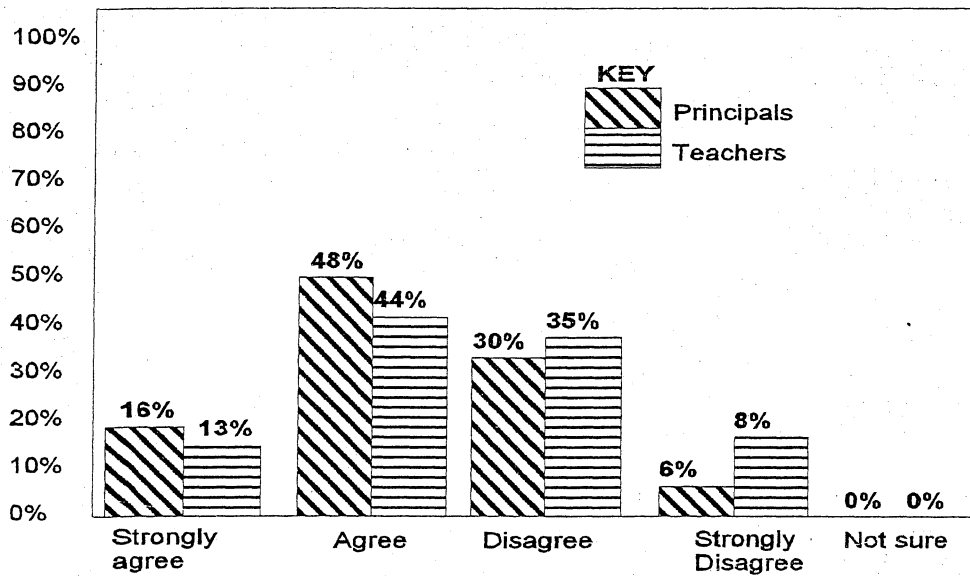
A noteworthy finding revealed in graph 5.1 is that both the principals (mean 64%) and teachers (mean 54%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals conducted class visits twice per term per teacher. At the other end of the spectrum 35 per cent (mean) of principals and 48 per cent (mean) of teachers either rejected or strongly rejected the statement. Significant too is the fact that none of the respondents from either group was not sure on the item.

Table 5.8: Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item

2: "Principal conducts class visits once per term per teacher."

Table 5.8.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	16	27	29	14
Agree	20	32	88	43
Disagree	23	38	47	23
Strongly disagree	2	3	41	20
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.8.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	14	25	21	12
Agree	20	35	79	46
Disagree	19	34	43	25
Strongly disagree	3	6	29	17
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.8.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	14	24	17	9
Agree	18	30	49	25
Disagree	13	22	59	30
Strongly disagree	14	24	70	36
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

The data above reveals that both principals (mean 58%) and teachers (mean 50%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals conduct class visits at least once per term per teacher. At the other extreme 41 per cent (mean) of the principals and 43 per cent (mean) of the teachers either rejected or strongly rejected the statement. Noteworthy is the fact that none of the respondents from either group was not sure on the item.

Table 5.9: Responses by principals and teachers to item 3: "The principal informs teachers in advance of impending class visits."

Table 5.9.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	26	42	57	28
Agree	32	53	90	44
Disagree	3	5	29	14
Strongly disagree	0	0	29	14
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.9.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	23	40	43	25
Agree	28	50	72	42
Disagree	5	10	29	17
Strongly disagree	0	0	28	16
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.9.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	27	45	56	29
Agree	30	51	88	49
Disagree	2	4	23	12
Strongly disagree	0	0	27	14
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.9 shows that 94 per cent (mean) and 71 per cent (mean) of principals and teachers respectively either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals informed teachers in advance about impending class visits. At the other end of the spectrum, six per cent (mean) of the principals and 29 per cent (mean) of the teachers indicated that principals did not inform teachers in advance. None of the respondents from either side were not sure on the item.

Figure 5.2: Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item

4: "The principal works with teachers in the actual planning of the

lessons to be observed."

Figure 5.2.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

Figure 5.2.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

Figure 5.2.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.
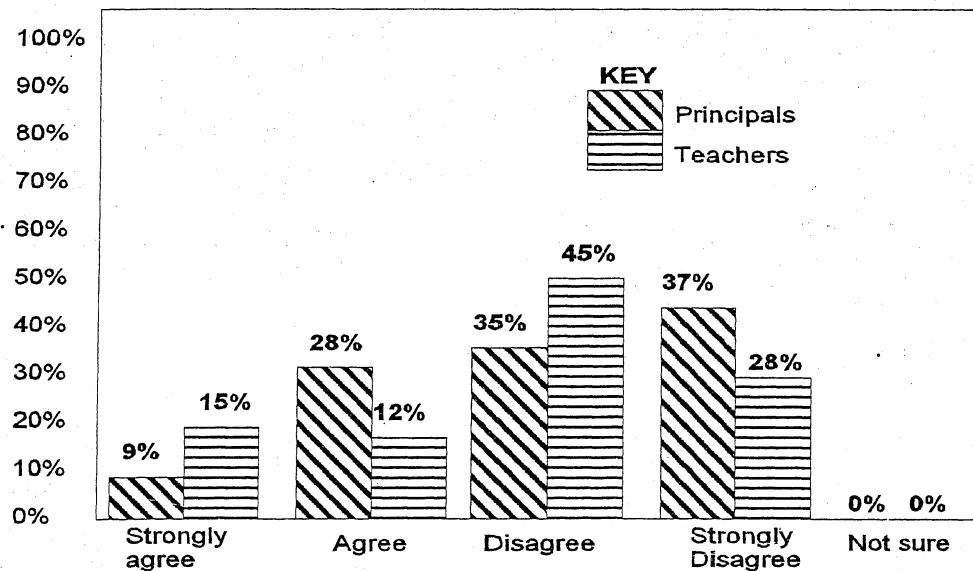
Figure 5.2 shows that 73 per cent (mean) o f the principals and 76 per cent (mean) of the teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that principals worked with teachers in the actual planning of the lessons to be observed. At the same time, 27 per cent (mean) of the principals and 24 per cent (mean) of the teachers either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals jointly worked with teachers in the actual planning of lessons to be observed. Significant too is the fact that none of the respondents from either group was not sure on the item. As figure 5.2 demonstrates, there is convergence of perceptions on this item. The implications of this situation are that the majority of principals are not using the clinical model of supervision. According to Cogan (1973) in Madziyire (1995:87) planning with teachers is the second phase of the clinical supervision model (see section 3.7.5). According to Sergiovanni and Starrat (1979:321)(see section 3.7.5) both the teacher and supervisor (principal) together plan a lesson, a series of lessons or a topic unit. The teacher and

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supervisor (principal) ask themselves if the plan is in tune with larger plans surrounding it. They have to scrutinise the context suitability. This shared planning means that the plan belongs to both the teacher and supervisor (principal) and ensures that there might not arise a situation where the teacher is blamed for failure.

Table 5.10: Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 5: "The principal discusses lessons observed with teachers immediately after the end of the lesson."

Table 5.10.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	30	49	12	6
Agree	23	37	21	10
Disagree	7	12	68	33
Strongly disagree	1	2	104	51
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.10.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	30	53	10	6
Agree	20	37	19	11
Disagree	4	7	60	35
Strongly disagree	2	3	83	48
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.10.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	32	55	20	10
Agree	24	40	21	11
Disagree	2	3	70	36
Strongly disagree	1	2	84	43
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

The picture that emerges from the data on table 5.10 shows that there is a marked discrepancy between the responses of principals and teachers on whether principals discuss lessons immediately after the end of the lesson observation. Ninety per cent (mean) of the principals (86% Matabeleland North; 90% Matabeleland South; 95%

Midlands) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement whereas on the other

hand 82 per cent (mean) (84% Matabeleland North; 83% Matabeleland South; 79%

Midlands) of the teachers rejected the statement. The reason for this discrepancy is not

very clear. However, in the case of self report, one has to accept that subjectivity may

distort some responses.

Figure 5.3: **Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 6: "The principal makes follow-up to rectify shortcomings noted during the previous sessions."**

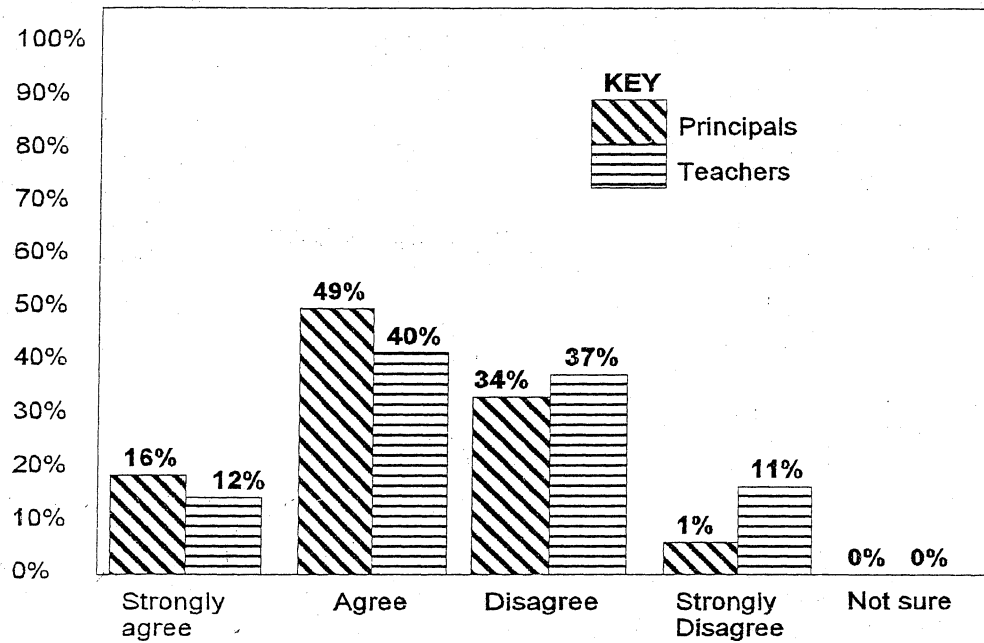**Figure 5.3.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.**
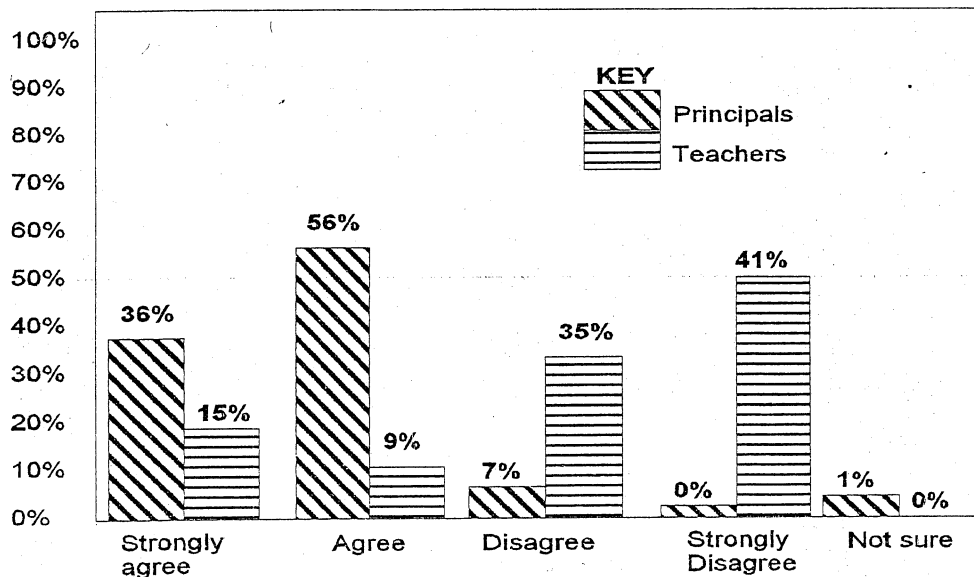
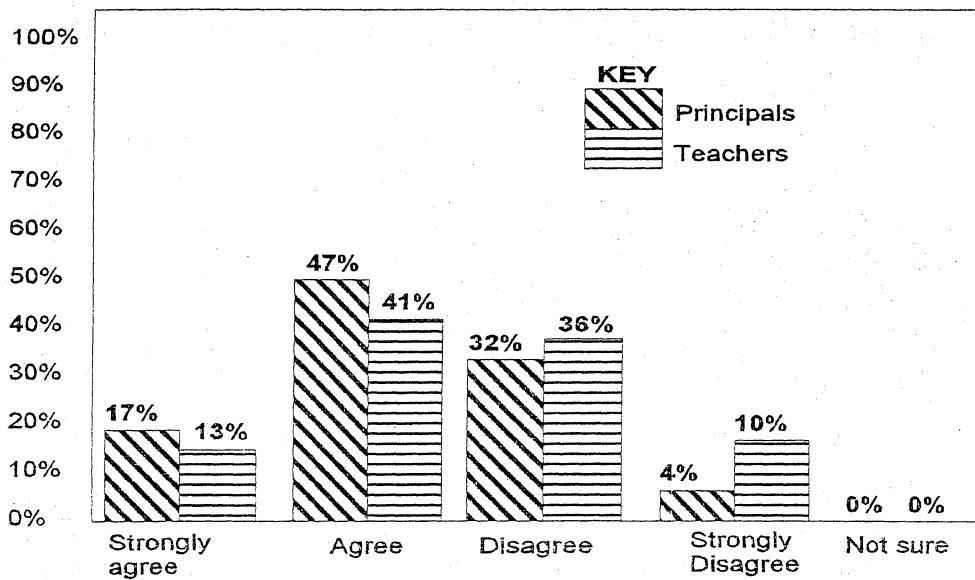## Figure 5.3.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.
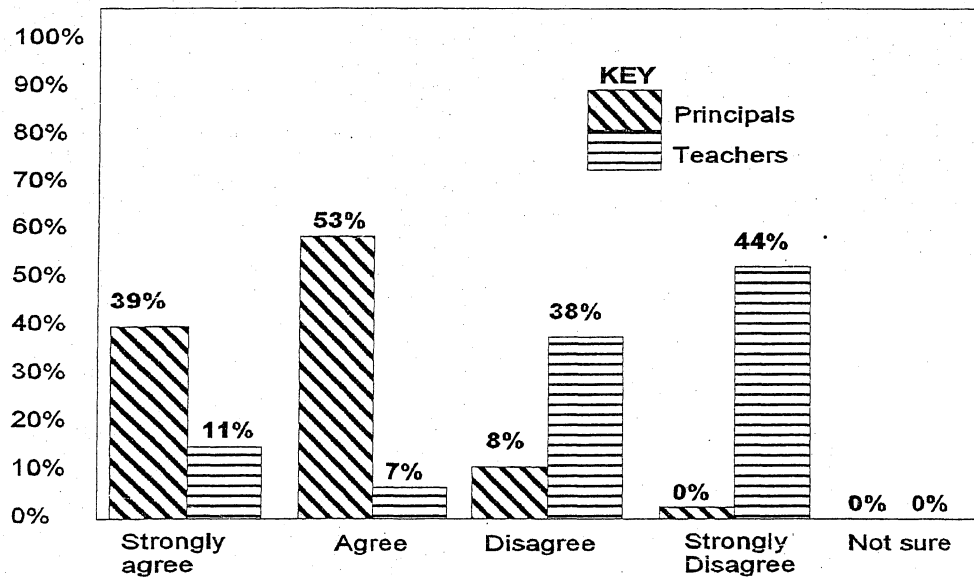
## Figure 5.3.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.
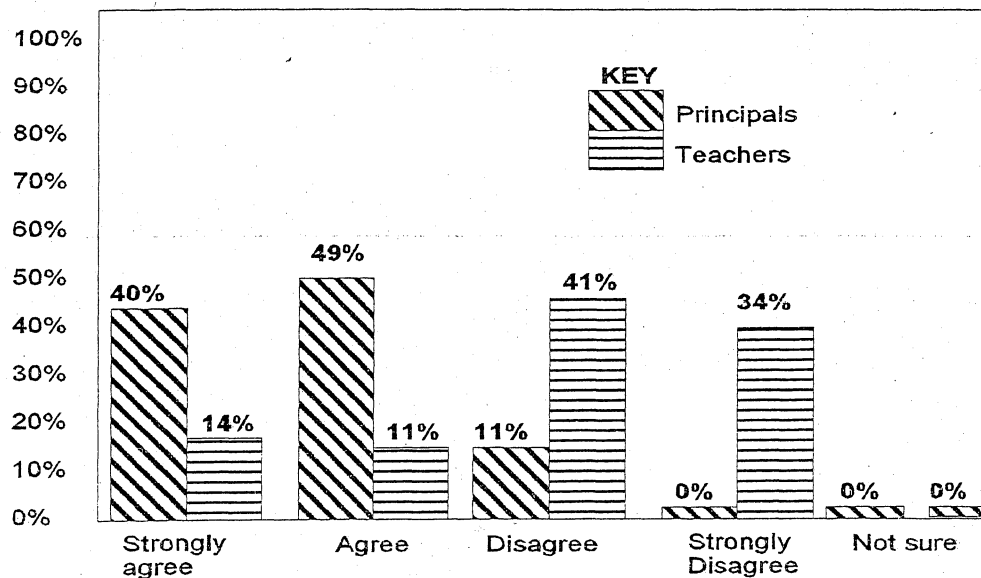
Data in figure 5.3 suggest that there is a significant discrepancy between the responses of principals and teachers on whether principals make follow-up to rectify shortcomings

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noted during the previous sessions. Of the sample principals, 92 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 92%; Matabeleland South 92%; Midlands 89%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement and yet 78 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 76%; Matabeleland South 82%; Midlands 75%) of the sample teachers disagreed with the statement. Surprisingly, one per cent of the principals in Matabeleland North were not sure whether they made follow-ups. A paltry 22 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 24%; Matabeleland South 18%; Midlands 25%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

Table 5.11:   Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 7: "The principal sometimes make unannounced class visits to teachers."

Table 5.11.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	9	15	92	45
Agree	32	53	82	40
Disagree	15	24	25	12
Strongly disagree	4	7	6	3
Not sure	1	1	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.11.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	7	12	74	43
Agree	33	60	71	41
Disagree	10	18	17	10
Strongly disagree	6	10	3	2
Not sure	0	0	7	4
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.11.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	9	16	76	39
Agree	29	49	92	47
Disagree	17	28	17	9
Strongly disagree	3	6	6	3
Not sure	1	1	4	2
Total	59	100	195	100

As table 5.11 demonstrates, there is a convergence of perceptions on this item. The information shows that 68 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 68%; Matabeleland South 72%; Midlands 65%) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals sometimes make unannounced class visits to teachers. At the same

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time, 31 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 31%; Matabeleland South 28%; Midlands 34%). Of the sample teachers 85 per cent (mean) agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals sometimes make unannounced class visits to teachers and 13 per cent (of teachers) either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that principals made unannounced visits.

Figure 5.4: Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces on item 8: "The principal makes his/her expectations known before he/she conducts lesson observations."

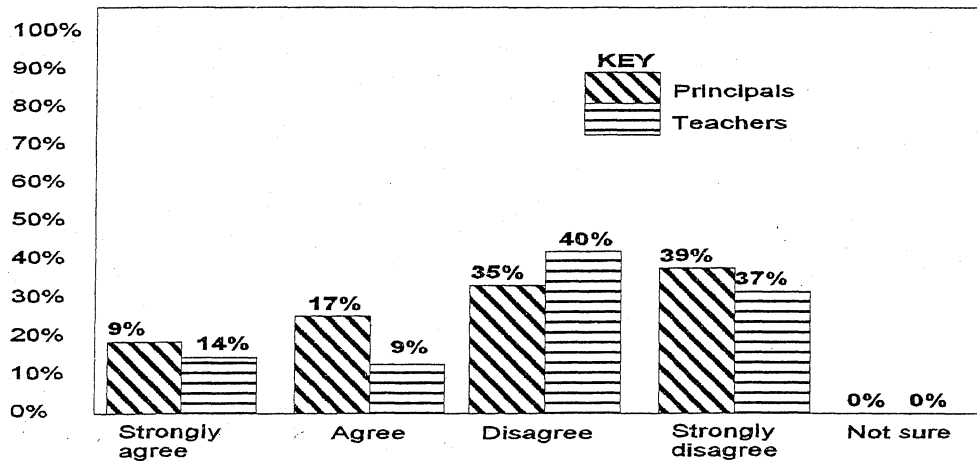**Figure 5.4.1: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.**
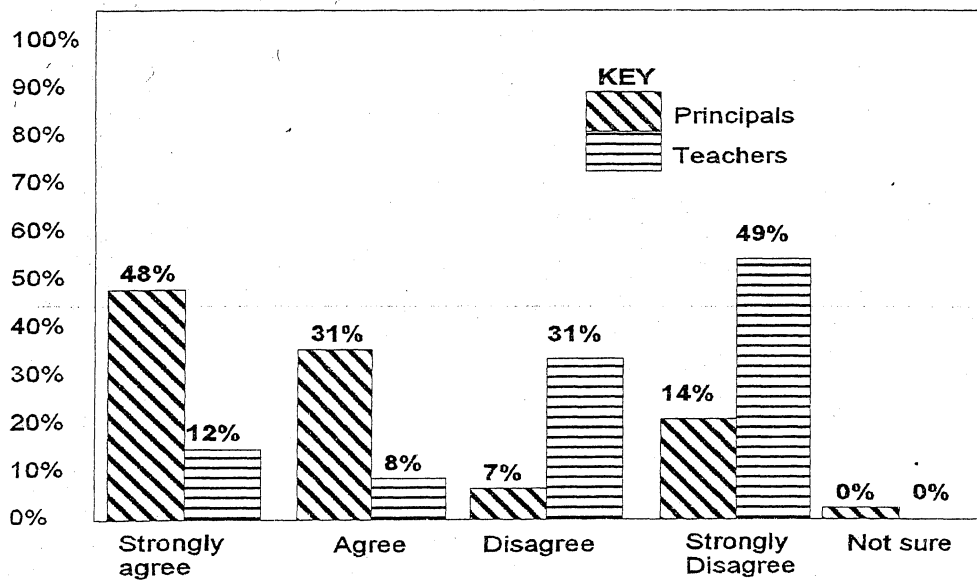
Figure 5.4.2: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.
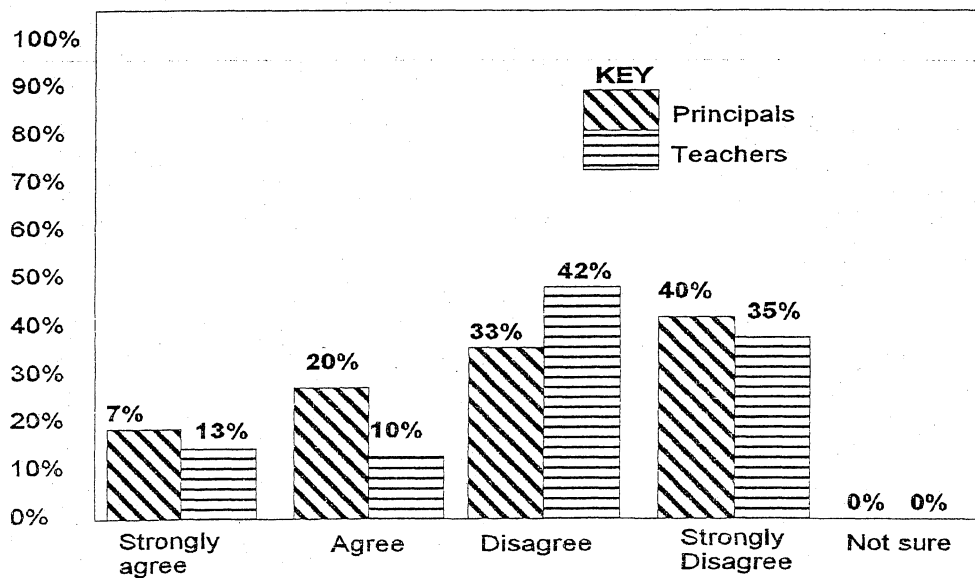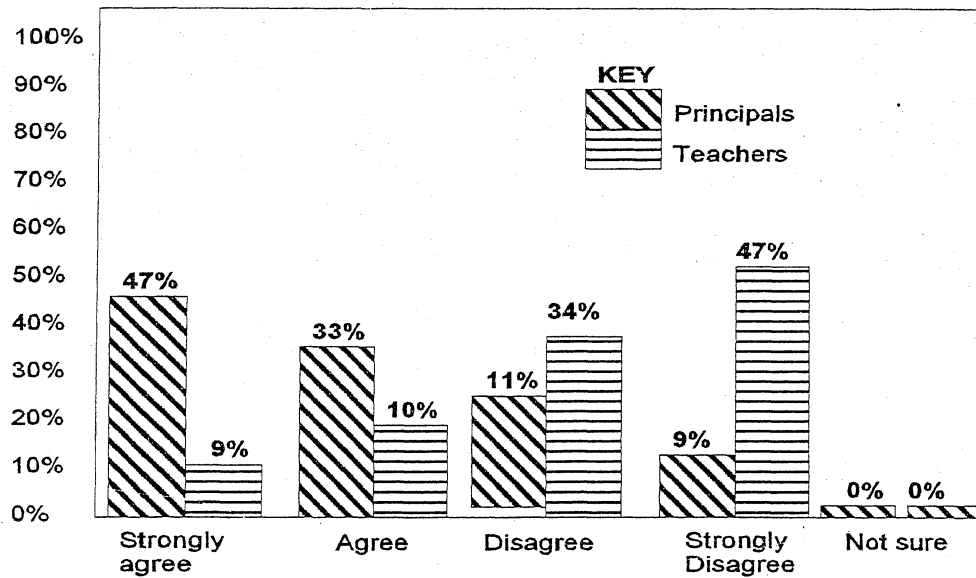

**Figure 5.4.3: Responses by the principals and teachers in Midlands.**
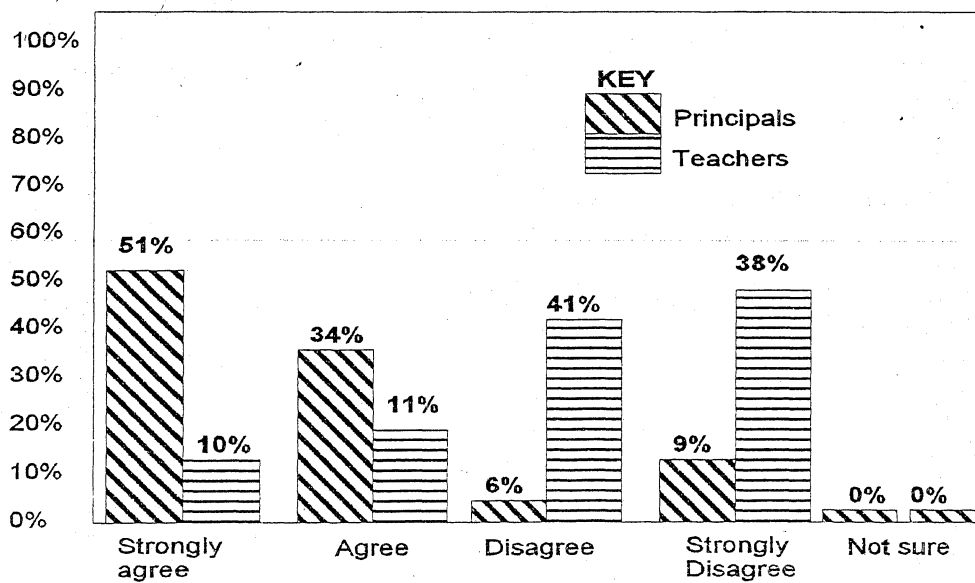
As figure 5.4 demonstrates, there is no convergence of perceptions on this item. Whereas 81 per cent (mean) of the sample principals (Matabeleland North 79%;

Matabeleland South 80%; Midlands 85%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that the principal makes his/her expectations known before he/she conducts lesson observations, 80 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers(Matabeleland North 80%; Matabeleland South 81%; Midlands 79%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. None of the respondents were not sure about the item.

Table 5.12:   Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces on item 9: "All teachers benefit from the class visits carried out by the principal."

Table 5.12.1: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	18	30	29	14
Agree	21	35	18	9
Disagree	4	6	72	35
Strongly disagree	1	2	84	41
Not sure	17	27	2	1
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.12.2: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	15	27	26	15
Agree	20	36	12	7
Disagree	2	4	65	38
Strongly disagree	2	3	67	39
Not sure	17	30	2	1
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.12.3: Responses by the principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	18	31	19	10
Agree	22	37	16	8
Disagree	3	5	74	38
Strongly disagree	2	3	84	43
Not sure	14	24	2	1
Total	59	100	195	100

There is a significant discrepancy between responses of principals and teachers regarding benefits teachers get from class visits. Of the sample principals, 65 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 65%; Matabeleland South 63%; Midlands 68%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement whereas only 21 per cent (mean)

(Matabeleland North 23%; Matabeleland South 22%; Midlands 18%) of the teachers

agreed or strongly agreed with the statement. At the same time only 8 per cent (mean)

(Matabeleland North 8%; Matabeleland South 7%; Midlands 8%) of the principals

disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement whereas 78 per cent (mean) of the

teachers (Matabeleland North 76%; Matabeleland South 77%; Midlands 81%)

disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Rather significantly to note, 27 per

cent (mean) of the principals were not sure whether teachers benefited from the class

visits they carried out.

Table 5.13:   Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces to

item 10: "When the principal carries out instructional supervision

he/she will be on a fault finding mission."

Table 5.13.1: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	2	84	41
Agree	5	9	82	40
Disagree	12	19	23	11
Strongly disagree	43	70	16	8
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.13.2: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	3	74	43
Agree	6	11	71	41
Disagree	13	24	15	9
Strongly disagree	35	63	12	7
Not sure	1	1	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.13.3: Responses by the principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	2	76	39
Agree	6	11	78	40
Disagree	14	23	21	11
Strongly disagree	37	63	20	10
Not sure	1	1	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

A noteworthy finding in table 5.13 is that only 13 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 11%; Matabeleland South 14%; Midlands 13%) of the principals either agreed or strongly agreed that they used instructional supervision for fault finding and yet interestingly, 81 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 81%; Matabeleland South 84%;

Midlands 79%) of the teachers indicated that principals use instructional supervision

for discovering faults from teachers. Eighty-seven per cent (mean) of the principals

(Matabeleland North 89%; Matabeleland South 87%; Midlands 86%) rejected the

statement that they carry out instructional supervision to find faults with teachers and

only 19 per cent (mean) of teachers concurred with the majority of the principals.

Table 5.14: Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 11: "The classroom observations that the principal carries out clearly promote the professional growth of teachers."

Table 5.14.1: Responses by he principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	21	34	16	8
Agree	31	51	16	8
Disagree	2	4	103	50
Strongly disagree	1	1	70	34
Not sure	6	10	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.14.2: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	18	31	10	6
Agree	30	54	16	9
Disagree	3	6	91	53
Strongly disagree	1	2	55	32
Not sure	4	7	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.14.3: Responses by the principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	21	36	18	9
Agree	30	51	14	7
Disagree	1	2	97	50
Strongly disagree	2	3	66	34
Not sure	5	8	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.14 shows that 86 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 85%; Matabeleland South 85%; Midlands 87%) either agreed or strongly with the statement that the classroom observations that the principal carries out clearly promote the professional growth of the teachers, whereas only 16 per cent (mean) of the teachers

felt that these lesson observations promote their professional growth. At the other end of the spectrum, only 6 per cent (mean) of the principals felt that the classroom observations they carried out did not promote the professional growth of teachers with a significant 84 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers (Matabeleland North 84%; Matabeleland South 85%; Midlands 84%) who indicated that the classroom observations carried out by principals did not promote the professional growth of teachers. Noteworthy is that 8 per cent (mean) of the sample principals were not sure whether the classroom observations they carried out promoted the growth of teachers.

Table 5.15: Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 12: "The principal is very knowledgeable of all models of instructional supervision."

Table 5.15.1: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	14	22	24	12
Agree	23	38	68	33
Disagree	7	11	45	22
Strongly disagree	2	4	68	33
Not sure	15	25	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.15.2: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	15	26	26	15
Agree	18	33	50	29
Disagree	7	13	34	20
Strongly disagree	1	2	62	36
Not sure	15	26	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.15.3: Responses by the principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	14	23	26	13
Agree	22	37	62	32
Disagree	6	11	45	23
Strongly disagree	2	3	62	32
Not sure	15	26	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.15 shows that 60 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 60%; Matabeleland South 59%; Midlands 60%) and 45 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 45%; Matabeleland South 44%; Midlands 45%) respectively either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that the principal is knowledgeable of all models of instructional supervision. At the other end of the spectrum, 14 per cent

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(mean) of the principals and 55 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers either

disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Of significance is the fact that 26

per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 25%; Matabeleland South 26%;

Midlands 26%) were not sure of their knowledge of models of instructional supervision.

The implications of the data in table 5.15 are that primary school principals in the

provinces rely on very limited number of models of instructional supervision.

Figure 5.5: **Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 13: "My school atmosphere is supportive enough to help the effective conduction of class visits."**

Figure 5.5.1: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.
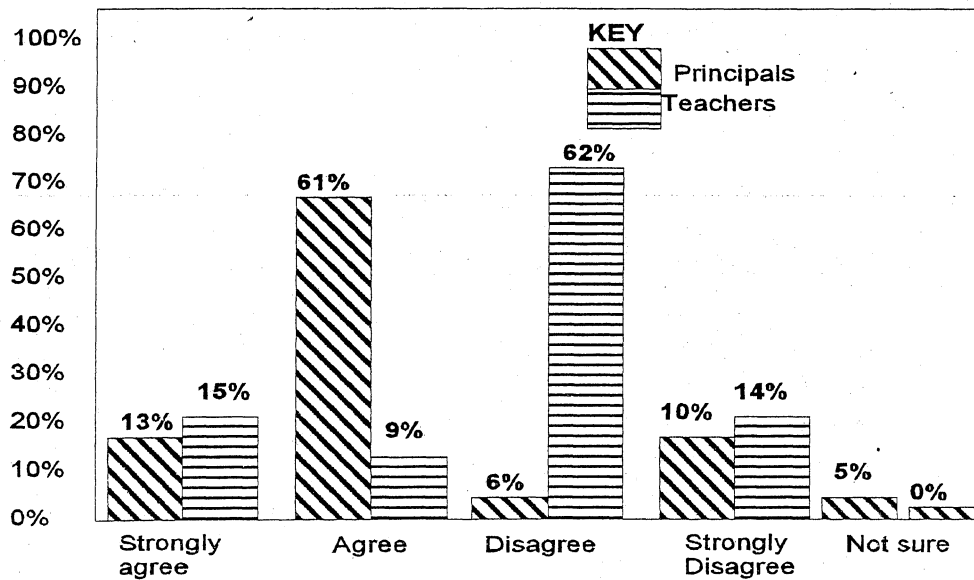
Figure 5.5.2: Responses by the principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.
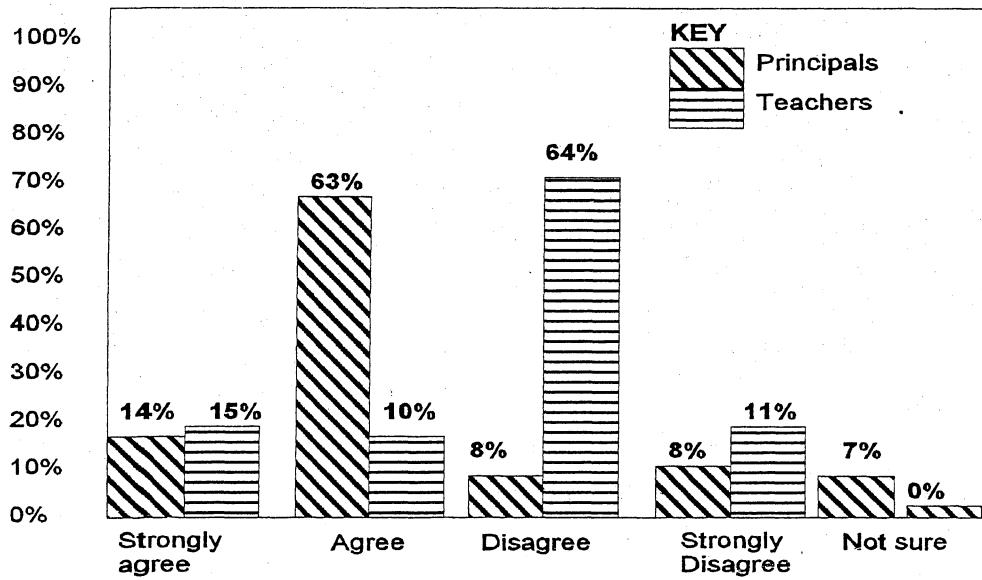
Figure 5.5.3: Responses by the principals and teachers in Midlands.
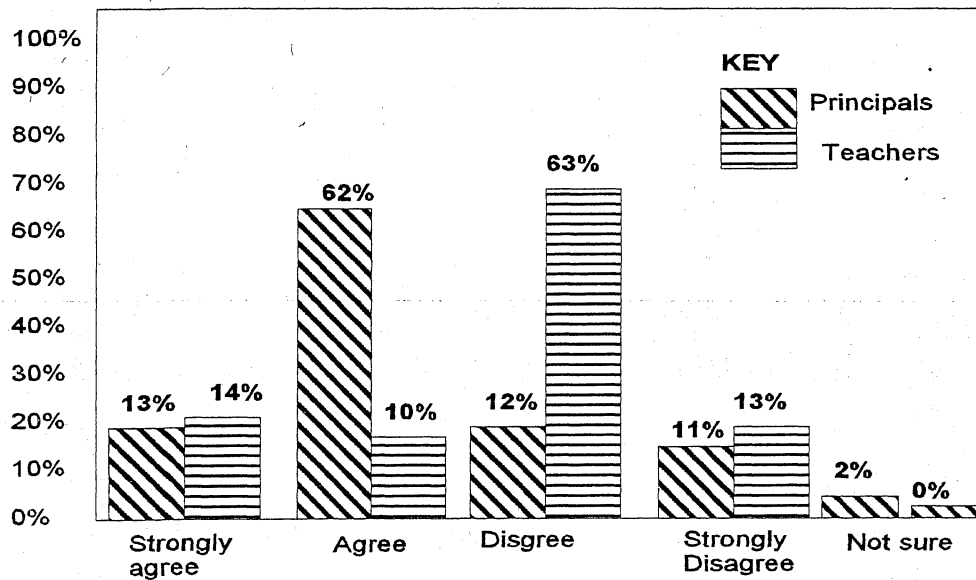
The data above indicates that 75 per cent (mean) of the sample principals (Matabeleland North 74%; Matabeleland South 77%; Midlands 75%) said that their school atmosphere was supportive enough to help them effectively conduct

instructional supervision. Only 24 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers concurred wit their principals. The majority of the teachers (76% mean) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement that their school atmosphere were supportive enough to promote effective instructional supervision. Worth noting is the fact that 5 per cent of the principals were not sure whether the atmosphere at their schools was supportive enough to help them effectively conduct class visits.

Table 5.16: Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 14: "Teachers are given the chance to evaluate their classroom performance."

Table 5.16.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	1	2	1
Agree	2	4	4	2
Disagree	16	27	154	75
Strongly disagree	41	67	45	22
Not sure	1	1	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.16.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	1	2	1
Agree	2	4	3	2
Disagree	15	27	127	74
Strongly disagree	37	66	40	23
Not sure	1	2	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.16.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	1	2	1
Agree	2	4	5	3
Disagree	16	28	146	75
Strongly disagree	38	65	42	22
Not sure	1	2	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.16 shows that there is congruency between the responses of principals and teachers regarding the statement whether principals gave teachers the chance to evaluate their classroom performance. Data indicates that only 5 per cent (mean) of the sample principals (Matabeleland North 5%; Matabeleland South 5%; Midlands 5%

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agreed with the statement with only 3 per cent (mean) of the teachers concurring with the principals. At the other end of the spectrum, 93 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 94%; Matabeleland South 93%; Midlands 93%) disagreed with the statement with 97 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers (Matabeleland North 97%; Matabeleland South 97%; Midlands 97%) concurring with them (principals). Two per cent (mean) of the sample principals were not sure whether they gave teachers the chance to evaluate their classroom performance. None of the sample teachers were unsure about the statement.

Table 5.17: Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item

15: "The principal establishes staff development sessions at his/her

school to improve the quality of lesson delivery by teachers."

Table 5.17.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	30	49	60	29
Agree	29	49	110	54
Disagree	1	1	16	8
Strongly disagree	1	1	19	9
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.17.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	28	50	52	30
Agree	26	48	93	54
Disagree	1	1	12	7
Strongly disagree	1	1	15	9
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.17.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	28	48	56	29
Agree	30	51	109	56
Disagree	1	1	14	7
Strongly disagree	0	0	16	8
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

A noteworthy finding reflected in table 5.17 is that there is convergence of perceptions on this item. Of the sample principals and teachers (98% and 83% respectively) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals established staff development sessions at their schools. At the other end of the spectrum, 2 per cent (mean) of the principals and 16 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers disagreed or

strongly disagreed with the statement. Significant to is the fact that none of the respondents from either group was not sure on the item.

Table 5.18: Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 16: "The principal encourages teachers to help each other when scheming or planning lessons."

Table 5.18.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	1	33	16
Agree	12	19	8	4
Disagree	35	58	125	61
Strongly disagree	13	22	39	19
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.18.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	1	27	16
Agree	10	18	9	5
Disagree	33	59	103	60
Strongly disagree	12	22	33	19
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.18.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	1	1	29	15
Agree	11	19	12	6
Disagree	35	60	119	61
Strongly disagree	12	20	35	18
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Data in table 5.18 depicts a consensus in perceptions between principals and teachers regarding the statement that principals encourage teachers to help each other when scheming or planning lessons. Of the sample principals, 20 per cent (mean) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement with a similar figure for teachers (20%) concurring with them. At the other end of the spectrum, 80 per cent (mean) of the

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sample principals and 80 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Noteworthy too is the fact that none of the respondents from either group was not sure of the item.

Table 5.19:   Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 17: "when designing staff development programmes, the principal makes it a point that various stages of development of teachers are catered for."

Table 5.19.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	2	4	16	8
Agree	1	2	16	8
Disagree	16	26	127	62
Strongly disagree	42	68	44	21
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.19.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	3	5	14	8
Agree	2	3	12	7
Disagree	14	26	108	63
Strongly disagree	37	66	35	20
Not sure	0	0	3	2
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.29.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	2	3	16	8
Agree	2	3	17	9
Disagree	16	27	119	61
Strongly disagree	39	67	37	19
Not sure	0	0	0	3
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.19 demonstrates that 7 per cent (mean) of the sample principals (Matabeleland North 6%; Matabeleland South 8%; Midlands 6%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals made sure that staff development programmes they (principals) designed catered for various stages of development of teachers, whereas 16 per cent (mean) o the teachers (Matabeleland North 16%; Matabeleland South 15%;

Midlands 17%) strongly agreed or agreed with the same statement. At the same time, 93 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 94%; Matabeleland South 92%; Midlands 93%) and 83 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 82%; ~~Matabeleland South 88%; Midlands 88%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed with~~ the statement. Two per cent of the teachers in the sample were not sure on this item.

Table 5.20: **Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 18: "The principal involves teachers during the planning of staff development."**

Table 5.20.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	20	32	111	54
Agree	14	23	43	21
Disagree	1	2	41	20
Strongly disagree	26	43	8	4
Not sure	0	0	2	1
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.20.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	17	30	90	52
Agree	13	23	41	24
Disagree	2	3	33	19
Strongly disagree	24	44	5	3
Not sure	0	0	3	2
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.20.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	20	33	107	55
Agree	14	24	45	23
Disagree	3	5	37	19
Strongly disagree	22	38	4	2
Not sure	0	0	2	1
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.20 shows that 55 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 55%; Matabeleland South 53%; Midlands 57%) and 76 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 75%; Matabeleland South 76%; Midlands 78%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that principals involved teachers during the presentation of staff development sessions. A significant number of principals 45%

surprisingly indicated that they did not involve their teachers during the planning of staff development sessions.

Table 5.21: **Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 19: "The principal involves teachers during the presentation of staff development programs."**

Table 5.21.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nr	%r	nr	%r
Strongly agree	17	27	14	7
Agree	14	23	19	9
Disagree	29	48	113	55
Strongly disagree	1	2	59	29
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.21.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	16	28	14	8
Agree	12	22	15	9
Disagree	26	47	93	54
Strongly disagree	2	3	50	29
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.21.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	16	27	12	6
Agree	13	23	19	10
Disagree	29	49	109	56
Strongly disagree	1	1	55	28
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.21 shows that of the sample principals 50 per cent (mean) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement, whereas only 16 per cent (mean) of the teachers concurred with them (principals). At the other end of the spectrum, 50 per cent of the principals either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement and 84 per cent of

the sample teachers concurred with them (principals). Notably too, is that none of the respondents from either group was not sure on the item.

Table 5.22: Responses of principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 20: "The principal usually engages in the most current pressing issues affecting the school at the expense of instructional supervision."

Table 5.22.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	19	31	43	21
Agree	26	42	133	65
Disagree	13	22	19	9
Strongly disagree	3	5	10	5
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.22.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	17	30	38	22
Agree	24	43	114	66
Disagree	13	23	15	9
Strongly disagree	2	4	5	3
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.22.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	18	30	45	23
Agree	26	44	125	64
Disagree	12	21	19	10
Strongly disagree	3	3	6	3
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.22 indicates that 73 per cent (mean) of the sample principals and 87 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that the principal usually engages in the most current and pressing issues affecting the school at the expense of instructional supervision. At the other end of the spectrum 27 per cent (mean) of the principals and 13 per cent (mean) of the teachers either

disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Noteworthy too, is that none of the respondents from either group were not sure on the item.

Table 5.23: Responses of principals and teachers in three provinces to item 21: "The principal's day is sporadic, characterised by short activities, variety and fragmentation."

Table 5.23.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	28	46	55	27
Agree	18	29	155	56
Disagree	8	13	6	3
Strongly disagree	6	10	29	14
Not sure	1	2	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.23.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	23	42	48	28
Agree	18	32	98	57
Disagree	7	13	4	2
Strongly disagree	6	10	22	13
Not sure	2	3	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.23.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	27	45	49	25
Agree	18	30	113	58
Disagree	7	12	6	3
Strongly disagree	6	11	27	14
Not sure	1	2	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

A noteworthy finding reflected in table 5.23 is that there is convergence of perceptions on this item between sample principals and sample teachers. Of the sample principals and teachers, 75 per cent (mean) and 84 per cent (mean) respectively either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that the principal's day is sporadic, characterised

by short activities, variety and fragmentation. At the other spectrum, 23 per cent (mean) of the principals and 16 per cent (mean) of the teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Interestingly, 2 per cent (mean) of the principals were not sure on the item.

Table 5.24.1: **Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 22: "Most of the principal's time is spent on administrative house-keeping matters and maintaining order in the school at the expense of instructional supervision."**

Table 5.24.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	20	32	58	28
Agree	32	53	129	63
Disagree	3	5	16	8
Strongly disagree	6	10	2	1
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.24.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	18	33	50	29
Agree	30	54	107	62
Disagree	2	3	12	7
Strongly disagree	6	10	3	2
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.24.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	19	32	56	29
Agree	31	52	119	61
Disagree	3	6	18	9
Strongly disagree	6	10	2	1
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.24 shows that 85 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 85%; Matabeleland South 87%; Midlands 84%) of the sample principals and 91 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland 91%; Matabeleland South 91%; Midlands 90%) of the sample teachers concurred with the statement that principals spend most of their time on administrative

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house-keeping matters and maintaining order at the expense of instructional supervision. At the other end of the spectrum, 15 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland 15%; Matabeleland South13%; Midlands 16%) and 9 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 9%; Matabeleland South 9%; Midlands 10%) of the teachers disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. None of the respondents from either group were not sure on the item.

Table 5.25: **Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 23: "The principal spends a lot of time attending tp parents and other visitors to the school."**

Table 5.25.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	31	51	66	32
Agree	23	38	123	60
Disagree	2	4	10	5
Strongly disagree	5	7	6	3
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.25.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	29	52	59	34
Agree	22	39	108	63
Disagree	2	3	3	2
Strongly disagree	3	6	2	1
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.25.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	29	50	58	30
Agree	21	36	125	64
Disagree	4	6	8	4
Strongly disagree	5	8	4	2
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.25 indicates that there is consensus between principals and teachers on this issue. Of the sample principals, 89 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 89%; Matabeleland South 91%; Midlands 86%) agreed with the statement that they spend a lot of time attending to parents and other visitors to the school. On the teachers' side,

94 per cent concurred with the principals on this statement. Only 11 per cent of the

principals and 6 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 8%; Matabeleland South 3%;

Midlands 8%) of the teachers disagreed with the statement. Significant to note too is

that none of the respondents were not sure on this item.

Table 5.26: Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 24: "Over the last five years, the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture demands to the principal have increased."

Table 5.26.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	20	33	115	56
Agree	33	54	76	37
Disagree	4	7	6	3
Strongly disagree	4	6	4	2
Not sure	0	0	4	2
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.26.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	17	30	93	54
Agree	32	58	62	36
Disagree	3	5	7	4
Strongly disagree	4	7	7	4
Not sure	0	0	3	2
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.26.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	18	31	109	56
Agree	33	56	74	38
Disagree	4	6	8	4
Strongly disagree	4	7	2	1
Not sure	0	0	2	1
Total	59	100	195	100

A noteworthy finding reflected in table 5.26 is that both principals (87% mean) (Matabeleland North 87%; Matabeleland South 88%; Midlands 87%) and teachers (92% mean)(Matabeleland North 93%; Matabeleland South 90%; Midlands 94%) in the sample agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that demands from the *Ministry*

of Education, Sport and Culture have increased over the last five years . Thirteen per

cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 13%; Matabeleland South 14%;

Midlands 13%) and 6 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 5%;

Matabeleland South 8%; Midlands 5%) either disagree or strongly disagree with the

statement. None of the principals and 2 per cent of the teachers were not sure on the

item.

Table 5.27: Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces to

item 25: "Over the last five years, demands from parents and the

community have increased on the principal's work."

Table 5.27.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n=61)		Teachers (n=205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	**nf**	**%f**	**nf**	**%f**
Strongly agree	26	42	86	42
Agree	24	40	82	40
Disagree	9	15	27	13
Strongly disagree	2	3	6	3
Not sure	0	0	4	2
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.27.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n=56)		Teachers (n=172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	22	40	76	44
Agree	23	41·	69	40
Disagree	9	16	21	12
Strongly disagree	2	3	3	2
Not sure	0	0	3	2
Total	56	100	172 ·	100

Table 5.27.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n=59)		Teachers (n=195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	%f	nf	%f
Strongly agree	25	43	78	40
Agree	25	42	88	45
Disagree	8	13	23	12
Strongly disagree	1	2	4	2
Not sure	0	0	2	1
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.27 demonstrates that there is convergence of perceptions on this item. Of the sample principals 83 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 82%; Matabeleland South 81%; Midlands 85%) either agreed strongly agreed with the statement that demands

from parents and community have increased on the principal's work. Teachers who concurred with them (principals) also constituted 84 percent (mean) (Matabeleland North 82%; Matabeleland South 84%; Midlands 85%) of the sample teachers. Those who disagreed were made up of 17 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matebeleland North 18%; Matabeleland South 19%; Midlands 15%) and 14 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 16%; Matabeleland South 14%; Midlands 14%). None of the principals and 2 per cent (mean) of the teachers were not sure on this item.

Figure 5.6: **Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 26. "Over the last five years the effectiveness of the principal as an instructional supervisor has decreased."**

Figure 5.6.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.
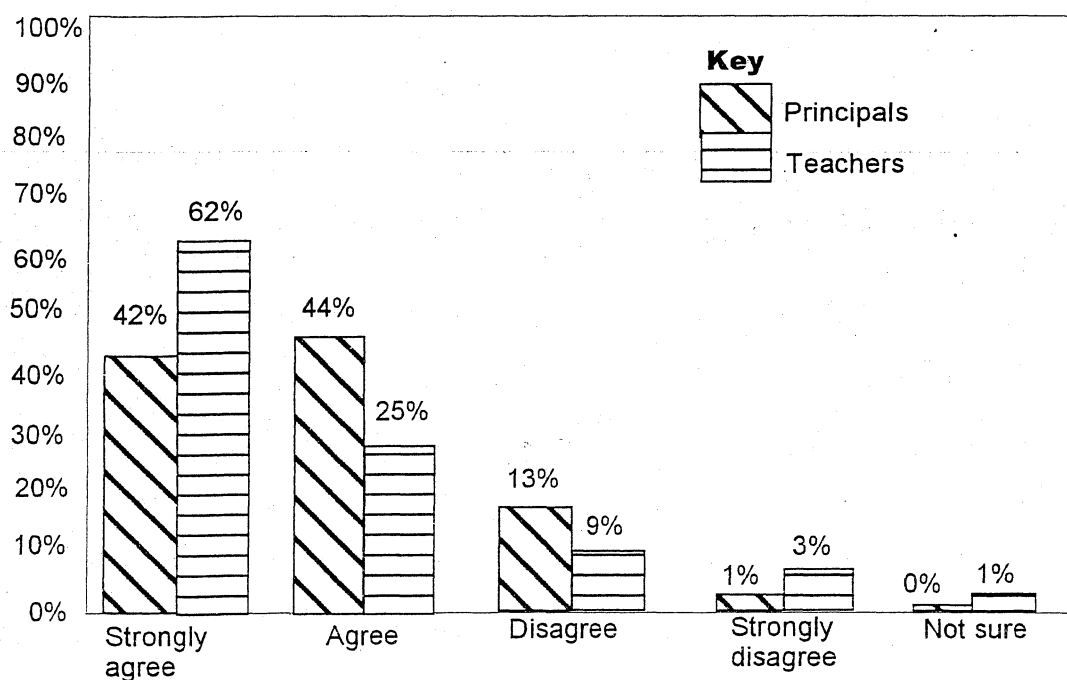
Figure 5.6.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South
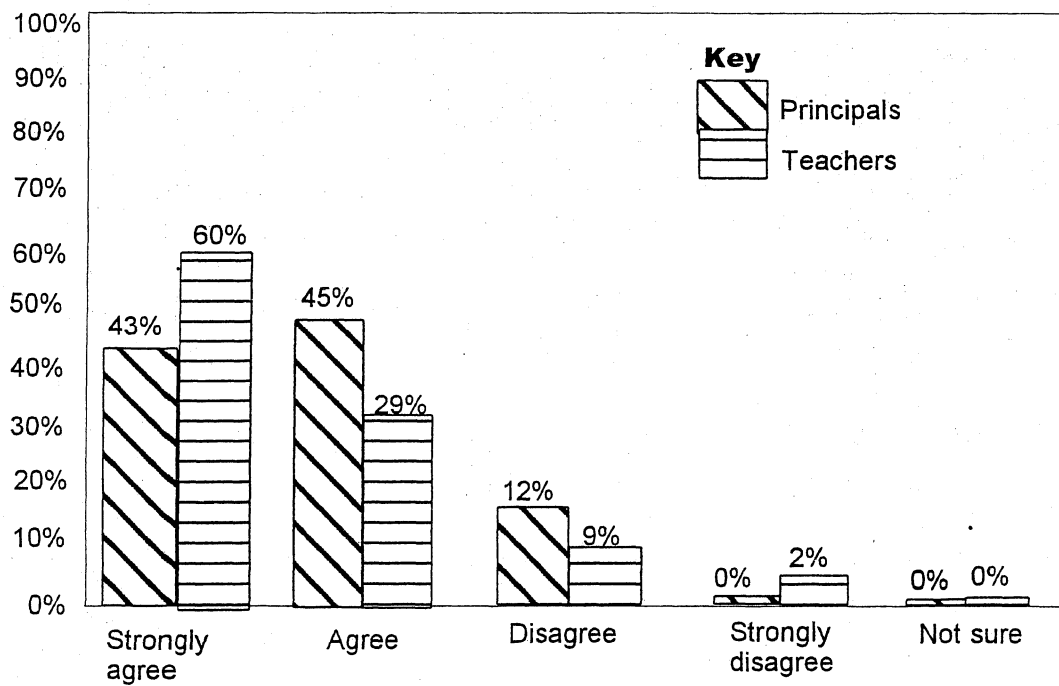
Figure 5.6.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.
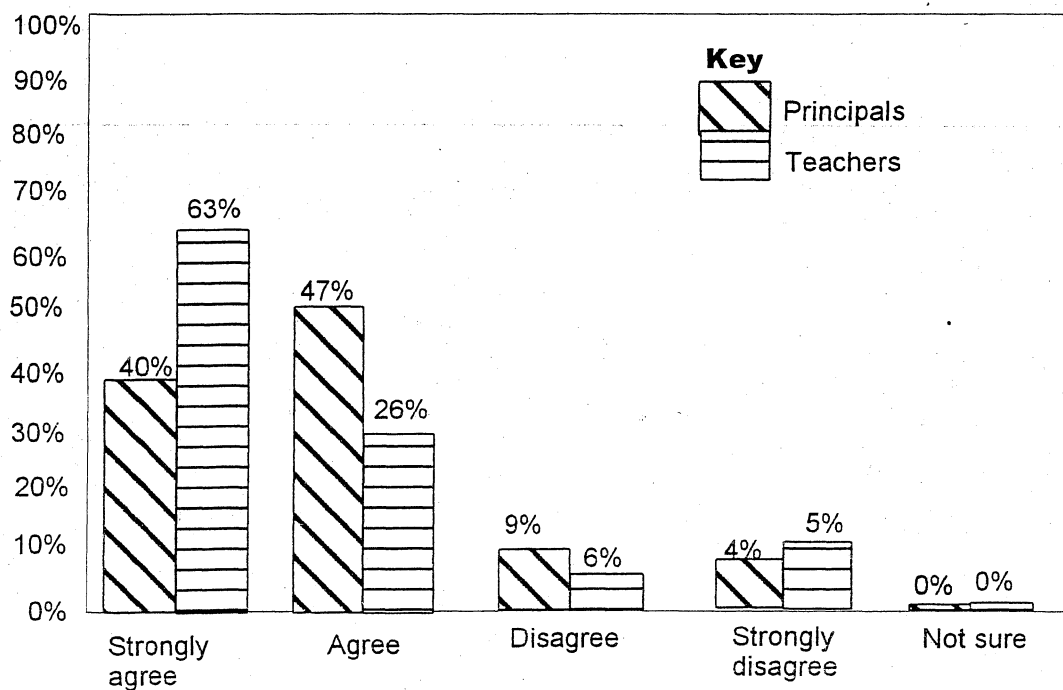
As figure 5.6 demonstrates, most of the principals (87% mean) Matabeleland North 86%; Matabeleland South 88%; Midlands 87%) and (Matabeleland North 87%; Matabeleland South 89%; Midlands 89%) of the sample teachers either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that over the last five years the effectiveness of the principal as an instructional supervisor has decreased. At the same time 14 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 14%; Matabeleland South 12%; Midlands 13%) of the principals and 11 per cent (mean) (Matabeleland North 12%; Matabeleland South 11%; Midlands 11%) of the teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Possible reasons for this decrease could be attributed perhaps to administrative and parental matters discussed in tables 5.22 up to 5.27 in this section.

Table 5.28   Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 27: " The effectiveness of assistance that the principal receives from his/her supervisors has decreased."

Table 5.28.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n = 61)		Teachers (n = 205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	32	52	88	43
Agree	21	34	78	38
Disagree	4	7	6	3
Strongly disagree	4	7	0	0
Not sure	0	0	33	16
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.28.2 Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n = 56)		Teachers (n =172	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	28	50	69	40
Agree	20	36	75	44
Disagree	5	9	2	1
Strongly disagree	3	5	0	0
Not sure	0	0	26	15
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.28.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n = 59)		Teachers (n = 195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	31	53	88	45
Agree	20	34	72	37
Disagree	4	6	2	1
Strongly disagree	4	7	0	
Not sure	0	0	33	17
Total	59	100	195	100

The data above indicates that 86 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 86% ; Matabeleland South 86%; Midlands 87%; and 82 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 81%; Matabeleland south 84%; Midlands 82%) indicated that the effectiveness of assistance that the principal receives from his/her superiors had

decreased. Only 14 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 14%; Matabeleland South 14%; Midlands 13%) and 2 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 3%; Matabeleland South 1%; Midlands 1%) disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. None of the principals were not sure on this item whereas 16 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 16%; Matabeleland South 15%; Midlands 17%) were not sure on the item.

Table 5.29: Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces to item   28: "The authority of the principal has decreased."

Table 5.29.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n = 61)		Teachers (n = 205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	7	12	84	41
Agree	4	6	94	46
Disagree	35	58	19	9
Strongly disagree	14	23	6	3
Not sure	1	1	2	1
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.29.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Princ ipals (n = 56)		Teachers (n = 172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	7	13	69	40
Agree	5	8	81	47
Disagree	31	56	17	10
Strongly disagree	12	22	3	2
Not sure	1	1	2	1
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.29.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n = 59)		Teachers (n = 195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	7	13	82	42
Agree	4	7	91	47
Disagree	35	59	14	7
Strongly disagree	12	20	4	2
Not sure	1	1	4	2
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.29 shows that only 20 per cent (mean) of the sample principals (Matabeleland South 18%; Matabeleland South 21%; Midlands 20%) agreed with the statement that the authority of the principal has decreased, whereas 88 per cent of the teachers (Matabeleland North 87%; Matabeleland South 87%; Midlands 89%) agreed with the statement. On the other side, 79 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North

81%; Matabeleland South 78%; Midlands 79%) disagreed with the statement with 11

per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 12%; Matabeleland South12% ;

Midlands 9%) concurring with them. Those who were not sure on the item constituted

one per cent from either group.

Table 5.30: **Responses by the principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 29: "Trust in the leadership of the principal with regards to instructional supervision has decreased."**

Table 5.30.1. Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North.

	Principals (n = 61)		Teachers (n = 205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	6	9	68	33
Agree	38	63	107	52
Disagree	9	15	16	8
Strongly disagree	7	11	2	6
Not sure	1	2	2	1
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.30.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n = 56)		Teachers (n = 172)	
	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	4	7	59	34
Agree	36	65	93	54
Disagree	8	15	10	6
Strongly disagree	6	10	7	4
Not sure	2	3	3	2
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.30.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

RESPONSE CATEGORY	Principals (n = 59)		Teachers (n = 195)	
	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	5	8	70	36
Agree	38	65	111	57
Disagree	9	16	8	4
Strongly disagree	6	10	4	2
Not sure	1	1	2	1
Total	59	100	195	100

The data on table 5.30 reveals that both principals (72% mean) (Matabeleland North 72%; Matabeleland South 72%; Midlands 73%) and teachers (89% mean) (Matabeleland North 85%; Matabeleland South 88%; Midlands 93%) either agreed or strongly agreed with the statement that trust in the leadership of the principals with

regards to instructional supervision has decreased. At the other extreme, 26 per cent (mean) of the principals (Matabeleland North 26%; Matabeleland South 25%; Midlands 26% and 10 per cent (mean) of the teachers (Matabeleland North 14%; Matabeleland South 10%; Midlands 6%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Those who not sure on the item were made up of 2 per cent (mean) of the sample principals and one per cent of the sample teachers.

Table 5:31: **Responses by principals and teachers in the three provinces to item 3: " The principal can fulfil effectively all the responsibilities assigned to him/her."**

Table 5.31.1: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland North .

	Principals (n = 61)		Teachers (n = 205)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	1	1	35	17
Agree	16	27	24	12
Disagree	31	51	80	39
Strongly disagree	13	21	66	32
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	61	100	205	100

Table 5.31.2: Responses by principals and teachers in Matabeleland South.

	Principals (n = 56)		Teachers (n = 172)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	2	3	33	19
Agree	14	26	22	13
Disagree	28	50	69	40
Strongly disagree	12	21	48	28
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	56	100	172	100

Table 5.31.3: Responses by principals and teachers in Midlands.

	Principals (n = 59)		Teachers (n = 195)	
RESPONSE CATEGORY	nf	% f	nf	% f
Strongly agree	1	1	35	18
Agree	17	28	22	11
Disagree	29	50	78	40
Strongly disagree	12	21	60	31
Not sure	0	0	0	0
Total	59	100	195	100

Table 5.31 shows that 29 per cent (mean) of the sample principals (Matabeleland North 28%; Matabeleland South 29%; Midlands 29%) and 30 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers (Matabeleland North 29%; Matabeleland South 32%; Midlands 29%) either agreed or strongly agreed with statement that the principal can fulfil effectively all the

responsibilities assigned to him/her. At the same time, 72 per cent (mean) of the sample principals (Matabeleland North 72%; Matabeleland South 71%; Midlands 71%) and 70 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers (Matabeleland North 71%; Matabeleland south 68%, Midlands 71%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. It is noteworthy to observe that none of the respondents from either side were not sure on the item.

5.4 QUALITATIVE DATA AND ANALYSIS THEREOF ON INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORY PRACTICES OF ZIMBABWE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Findings from the open-ended questions which constitute section c of the questionnaire and has six questions (see appendices 1 to 6) and from the semi-structured interview schedules (see appendices 7 to 12) are presented in this section. Both questionnaires for teachers and principals had six open-ended questions where spaces were left respondents to respond as freely as they could, as reflected in appendices one to six. Questions 1, 2, 3, 5 and 6 were the same for both teachers and principals. Only question 4 was different in both questionnaires and interviews. The semi-structured interview had six questions which were identical to those found on the ope-ended section of the questionnaire as shown on appendices 1 to 6 for the questionnaire. The semi-structured interviews were conducted on a one-on-one basis with both principals and teachers. As mentioned before, qualitative research focuses on the richness of responses and not on numbers (see section 4.4.1).

The first question, namely "What do you think are the purposes of instructional supervision?", from both the questionnaire (see appendices 1 to 6) and interview schedule (see appendices 7 to 12) wanted to determine what respondents thought should be the purposes of instructional supervision. From the principals' side the most commonly recorded responses were: instructional supervision assist teachers where they lack; it equips teachers with the necessary teaching skills; it improves teaching/learning standards. Responses from teachers were also recorded. Teachers seemed to concur with principals, for example in that instructional supervision promotes delivery of quality instruction and learning and that it equips teachers with new strategies. In addition, teachers indicated that instructional supervision motivates teachers to work harder it is done properly.

The second question, namely "Suggest any methods which you think would improve the quality of instructional supervision at your school?", sought suggestions from respondents on any methods which they thought could improve instructional supervision at their schools (see appendices 1 to 6 and 7 to 12). The majority of principals suggested that there should be extensive use of demonstration lessons; teachers should be informed well in advance of pending class visits; teachers should be encouraged to work in teams; there should be peer supervision and teachers should be involved during the instructional supervision process. Teachers on the other hand, offered the following suggestions: extensive use of staff development sessions; use of demonstration lessons; joint planning of lessons by the principal and teacher to be observed; quick follow-ups on lessons observed; use of external supervisors who may be more objective; improved interpersonal relations between teachers and supervisors

(principals) ; provision of clear objectives before the lesson observation is done; increased number of class visits; and use of democratic supervisory strategies.

The third question, namely "Do you think that instructional supervision as is currently carried out at your school is adequate? Give reasons for your answer." (see appendices 1 and 6 for the questionnaire and appendices 7 to 12 for the interview), sought to find out whether respondents felt that instructional supervision as is currently carried out at their schools was adequate. The majority of principals indicated that instructional supervision was not adequate and the major reason mentioned was lack of time because of competing demands. During the face to face interviews (see appendices 9 and 10) principals were asked elaborate on this issue. They cited the numerous meetings that they were expected to attend during the course of the term under two categories; outside the school plant and inside the school. Those outside the school included cluster meetings, zonal meetings, district meetings, provincial meetings, national meetings, ward meetings, the chief's meetings, the councillor's meetings and church related meetings. Inside school meetings mentioned included staff meetings, staff development meetings, school development committee/association meetings such as Parent Teachers Association consultative meetings with individual parents, mass meetings with parents, prefects meetings, one-on-one meetings with teachers and pupils, meetings with local dignitaries (like the councillor, village head, the chief and church leaders) as well as meetings with both official and unofficial visitors like booksellers and insurance officer. The few principals who said they felt instructional supervision was adequate at their schools cited the high pass rate of their candidates at grade seven level examinations as evidence of the adequacy of .

instructional supervision at their schools. From the teachers' side, there was concurrence with principals that instructional supervision as it was currently carried out at their schools was inadequate. The major reasons cited were that the principal did not allow teachers' suggestions and it was just the principal's inputs that were discussed during the post lesson observation session; teachers also indicated that principals did not have adequate time to carry out meaningful instructional supervision due to their crammed programme. When probed further to explain what really constituted the principals' crammed programme, most teachers gave the reasons that were put forward by the principals on the same issue. In addition some teachers indicated that most principals did not have time for instructional supervision because they were always away on private business. Some of the principals were alleged to run bottle stores, grocery shops, butcheries, transport businesses and shebeens. Teachers also alleged that there were no follow-up to monitor implementation of suggestions of previous lesson observations. The few teachers who said that instructional supervision was adequate at their schools indicated that " too much" of instructional supervision disturbs particularly the hard-working, responsible and experienced teachers.

The fourth question on the principals' questionnaire and interview schedule (see appendices 1 to 6 and 7 to 12), namely "Are you aware of any models of supervision? If so which one are you using to supervise teachers?", sought to find out from principals whether they were aware of any models of supervision. If so, they were requested to indicate which ones they were using. The majority of principals mentioned clinical supervision and "spot checks".

The fourth question for teachers on both the questionnaire and interview schedule (see appendices 1 to 6 and 7 to 12), namely "How do you feel when your principal visits your class for lesson supervision?", wanted teachers to explain how they felt when their principals visited them for lesson supervision. A number of responses were recorded. Common responses included the following: "Lesson observation was the most boring routine that has no impact at all and no new ideas are brought in." "It makes me feel uncomfortable because the principal usually commented negatively without genuinely highlighting anything positive from the lessons." "It makes me feel restless and timid because the principal would be on a fault-finding mission." "I feel underrate." When probed further, they explained that principals at times used lesson observations to settle old scores with teachers who might have picked-up quarrels with them in the past. Some principals were alleged to be in the habit of openly criticising teachers in front of pupils.

Question five, namely "What recommendations would you suggest to the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture that would help improve the instructional supervision process at your school?", (see appendices 1 to 6 and 7 to 12), wanted respondents to suggest specific recommendations for consideration by the *Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture*. Common recommendations recorded from the principals included the following: The *Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture* should provide standard crits or forms for use by all schools in lesson observation, reduce the workload of principals as a matter of urgency, make principals non-teaching, and conduct workshops for principals to up-date them on current trends on instructional supervision. The responses from teachers also tended to be congruent with those of principals. The

following were the most common ones: lessen the workload of principals so that they concentrate on instructional supervision; appoint principals with relevant degrees to their job description; the *Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture* officials should visit schools at least once a year to augment the principals' supervision activities; conduct workshops for principals to improve their supervisory skills; principals must not have a full class to teach; the *Ministry of Education , Sport and Culture* should give a guide on the expectations of the instructional supervision process so that teachers can use it for self-evaluative exercises and principals must be observed presenting lessons on a regular basis by superiors to make sure they are properly advising teachers on lesson delivery.

The last question, namely "Do you think that the quality of instructional supervision at your school affects the performance of pupils at public examinations?. Give reasons for your response", (see appendices 1 to 6 and 7to 12), sought to find-out from respondents whether they felt that the quality of instructional supervision affected the pupils at public examinations. The majority of principals indicated that it affected the pass rate of pupils in that where it was conducted efficiently and effectively, pupils' results were usually good and where it was not conducted effectively the results of pupils were conversely bad or poor. The majority of teachers also concurred with their principals on this issue. They indicated that the performance of pupils depended to a large extent on the quality of instruction or teaching provided to pupils by teachers whose instruction also depended on the quality of instructional supervision prevalent at the school. However, during face-to- face interviews, both principals and teachers argued that much as instructional supervision affected the performance of pupils at

public examinations, it was nevertheless not the only variable that impacted on pupils' performance. Both principals and teachers mentioned lack of resources like textbooks, exercise books, pens, chalk, and charts as well as pupils' intelligence, quotients, pupils' attitudes, environment and also teachers' qualifications and experience as other variables that impacted either negatively or positively on pupils' performance in examinations.

5.5   FINDINGS: SYNOPSIS

5.5.1 Data from the close-ended questions on the questionnaire

To ensure unnecessary repetition, the researcher has categorised the findings concerning the close-ended questions on the questionnaire.

5.5.1.1 Frequency of class visits by principals

Data indicate that Zimbabwean principals in the three provinces of Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South and Midlands conduct visits either once (58% principals and 50% teachers) or twice per teacher per term (64% principals and 54% teachers) as reflected in figure 5.1 and table 5.5 (see section 5.3). Both principals and teachers were agreed on this item. The implications of this information is that Zimbabwean primary school principals in the three provinces under study (Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South and Midlands) make class visits quite adequately on average in terms of quantity. This is a positive revelation as it shows that principals are interested or appear to be

interested in observing how teachers deliver lessons so that they give them advice and guidance when necessary.

5.5.1.2 Actions preceding class visits

Data also reveal that principals inform teachers in advance of impending class visits

(94% and 71% principals and teachers respectively) as shown in table 5.9 (see section 5.3). This information proves that Zimbabwean primary school principals in the three provides do not ambush teachers, but are appreciating the need to treat teachers as professional equals who should be made aware in good time about class visits so that they prepare adequately for this important activity.

The investigation also revealed that principals do not work with teachers in the actual planning of the lesson to be observed (73% principals and teachers respectively) as shown in Figure 5.2 (see section 5.3). The implications of this situation are that principals are not using the clinical model of supervision correctly (see section 3.7.5).

Data also reveal that principals in the three provinces of Zimbabwe (Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South and Midlands) did not make their expectations known to the teachers before they conducted their lesson observations as shown in figure 5.4 (see section 5.3) despite the fact that principals inform teachers in advance of impending lessons (see section 5.3 table 5.9). This implies that the clinical model of observation which is generally accepted as a reliable mode when it comes to the improvement of the teaching is not implemented authentically.

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5.5.1.3 Feedback on class visits

Data too clearly indicate that most principals in the three provinces (Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South and Midlands) do not discuss with teachers lessons that have been observed immediately after the end of the lesson observation exercise as shown in table 5.10 (90% and 82% principals and teachers respectively concurred) see section 5.3). This means that the most intense impact of the feedback is not considered since an unnecessary time lapse is allowed.

5.5.1.4 Criticism concerning the process of instructional supervision

The investigation reveals that most teachers do not benefit from the class visits carried out by their principals. The majority of teachers in the three Zimbabwean provinces under study (Matabeleland North 76%, Matabeleland South 77% and Midlands 81%) indicated that they did not benefit from the lesson observations carried out by their principals (see section 5.3) . This finding is certainly significant as it highlights a distressing signal that should be addressed since meaningful class visits is a key feature of proper instructional supervision.

Data reveal that principals use instructional supervision as a fault -finding mechanism. Despite the denial by principals in the three provinces of Zimbabwe covered by the study (Matabeleland North 89% Matabeleland South 87% and Midlands 86%) as shown in table 5.13 (see section 5.3), the majority of teachers in the three provinces

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(Matabeleland North 81%, Matabeleland south 84% and Midlands 79%) as reflected in table 5.13 (see section 5.3) indicated that principals use instructional supervision for fault-finding. This information could perhaps indicate that the convictions of the principals and teachers differ or that either the principals or teachers could be providing false information. However, what it certainly does mean is that communication between principals and teachers as far as clinical supervision is concerned is inadequate. This research is of the opinion that false information was not given since principals did not shy away from negatively responding to their role in other items, e.g. their lack of allowing teachers to work together (see table 5.18).

The investigation also reveals that most principals in three provinces of Zimbabwe under study (Matabeleland North 85%, Matabeleland South 85% and Midlands 87%) as shown in table 5.14 (see section 5.3) believe that the classroom observations they carry out clearly promote the professional growth of their teachers. However, a significant number of teachers in the three provinces (Matabeleland North 84%, Matabeleland South 85% and Midlands 84%) (see section 5.3) seem to feel that the classroom observations carried out by their principals do not contribute to their professional growth. It is very difficult to explain this lack of convergence on this item and to this end further research may be appropriate. It is worth noting, however, to mention that Firth (1987:59) states that supervision of instruction is an important activity in promoting effective teaching in schools. Its primary purposes is the improvement of instruction by fostering the continued professional development of all teachers. Teachers should experience this professional development and thus become motivated to support the supervisory system (Firth 1987:75; Boyan and Copeland 1978:200).

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Boyan and Copeland (1978:205) further suggests that many instructional problems encountered by classroom teachers can be resolved if the teachers change their behaviour in a positive way. In this regard he is of the opinion that recognition of needed changes in behaviour is more effective when it comes from teachers, rather than being imposed from without (Boyan and Copeland 1978:201). This underlines the significance of positive perceptions by teachers towards the classroom observations conducted by principals. Both principals and teachers should believe that the classroom observations clearly promote the professional growth of teachers.

Data indicate that the majority of the sample teachers in the three provinces (Matabeleland North 76%; Matabeleland South 75% and Midlands 76%) as shown in figure 5.5 (see section 5.3) felt that their atmosphere was not supportive enough for effective lesson observations despite the fact that the majority of the principals (Matabeleland North 74%; Matabeleland South 77% and Midlands 75%) (see section 5.3) said their school atmospheres were supportive enough to help them effectively conduct class observations. The school climate or atmosphere influences the behaviour of people in a school (see section 3.6). A closed climate inhibits people from performing to their best . As Doll (1983:67) and Bolin (1986:210) observe, "[e]ven if one hires competent workers, on subjecting them to a negative climate they respond with lower productivity." For schools in particular "[a] good climate is important because it does not only affect teacher competence and productivity, but also student behaviour and outcomes" Paula and Silver (1983:197). A negative or closed climate would manifest itself in student indiscipline and poor examination results. This is supported by Harris (1988:115) who argues that "[t]he climate of the school is related

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to the quality of instruction students receive." A healthy school climate frees all concerned to concentrate more fully on educational matters. This is made possible by the high motivation and clear direction given by the instructional supervisor towards achievement of educational goals (Harris 1985:115). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979:89) contend that when there are no unnecessary conflicts and all members with the school, the emphasis is on the provision of improved instruction and instructional programmes. The work of instructional supervisors becomes very difficult in an unhealthy climate. Subordinates become dissatisfied and tend to react with hostility. Once this happens, the quality of instruction is negatively affected. An open and healthy climate calls for both the principal and teachers to share their views, and by so doing , learn from each other (Tanner and Tanner 1987:4).

The investigation revealed that principals did not give teachers the chance to carry out self evaluation of their classroom performance (see section 5.3). Of the sample principals from the provinces (Matabeleland North 94%, Matabeleland South 93% and Midlands 97%) as reflected in table 5.16 (see section 5.3), indicated that they did not give their teachers the chance to evaluate their classroom performance and of the sample teachers (Matabeleland North 97%; Matabeleland South 97% and Midlands 97%) as shown in table 5.16 (see section 5.3) concurred with their principals. The implications of this situation are that teachers do not have the chance to analyse and reflect on their teaching performances. To improve instructional, teachers must learn to analyse their own classroom behaviour. Teachers therefore need to have the self-analysis skills for examining all aspects of their instructional delivery system. Such skills assist teachers in making appropriate decisions about their teaching (Renhartz

and Beach 1983:11) (see section 3.3). As defined by Bailey (1981:9), self-evaluation is:

> the process of self-examination in which teacher utilises a series of sequential feedback strategies for the purpose of instructional improvement. The purposes of teacher self-assessment are to enable the teacher to become aware of personal instructional behaviours [and] become self-directed in improvement activities.

During self-evaluation, teachers are called upon to evaluate their own performance so that they will be more aware of strengths and weaknesses associated with their classroom instruction. Self-evaluation helps to develop trust and self-confidence in teachers (Bailey 1981:10).

The investigation also revealed that principals do not encourage teachers to work together when preparing for lessons (see table 5.18). The majority of sample principals in the three provinces (Matabeleland North 80%; Matabeleland South 81% and Midlands 80%) (see section 5.3) and an equally large number of teachers (Matabeleland North 80%; Matabeleland South 79% and Midlands 79%) rejected the statement that principals encouraged teachers to work together when scheming or planning lessons. The implications of this situation are that teachers are not encouraged to help each other either in pairs or smaller groups. Collaboration between and amongst teachers is not encouraged by principals. As Beach Reinhart (1989:252) observe: " In schools where a collaborative approach is implemented, teachers learn to view each other as resources for professional growth and work together with instructional supervisors (principals) towards common instructional goals." A

collaborative approach, or "peer centred options" to instructional supervision as Glatthorn (1987:89) terms it, is different from schools where teachers work in isolation (see section 3.7). In collaborative schools, teachers have the freedom to work with other teachers and procedures (Rosenholzt 1981:13). Collaboration then, requires teachers to make an investment of their time and skills to ensure that the best academic climate is provided for their students (Paquette 1981:87). The team members assist each other with interpretation of various syllabi, scheming and planning lessons to be taught. In addition, the team members co-teach, observe each other teaching and provide feedback (Glatthorn 1987:89). Staff corporation as envisioned by Johnson and Johnson (1987) is likely to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the schools, and the role of instructional supervision will be to foster teacher cooperation and development.

Data reveals that principals do not design staff development programmes that are tailor-made to suite the various stages of development of their teachers. Of the sample principal in the three provinces (Matabeleland North 94%; Matabeleland South 92%, and Midlands 94%) as reflected in table 5.20 (see section 5.3) admitted that their staff development programmes were not designed to satisfy the various stages of development of their teachers. Those teachers who concurred with the principals constituted (in Matabeleland North 83%, Matabeleland South 83%, and Midlands 80%). There is therefore overwhelming evidence that principals conduct staff development sessions haphazardly just for the purposes of routinely fulfilling this obligation. Earlier on, (see section 5.3), it was revealed that almost all the schools understudy established staff development sessions. Although this is a positive deve opment, it is

inadequate on its own because staff development sessions ought to cater for the various professional needs of teachers (Paquette 1987:90). Beach and Reinhartz (1989:232) (see section 3.9) emphasize that "[t]he concern for teachers as individuals should be the focus of what instructional supervisors (principals) do when fostering professional growth and development". This implies that instructional supervisors (principals) need to consider the demographic make-up of the teachers they work with and the different stages of the teachers' adult development when planning and implementing staff development (Newman and Newman 1987:86). Teachers then, like students , go through developmental stages that have distinct characteristics and involve distinct tasks (see section 3.7.4). An understanding of the life cycles can be an important resource for supervisors principals) because seldom, if ever, will all the teachers a supervisor (principal) works with, be at the same stage of development, (Levine 1987:101; Santmire 1979:54; and Glickman 1981:73). Instructional supervisors (principals) must recognise that teachers, like students, are individuals with varying cognitive abilities and that they have different levels of professional commitment to personal growth and change (see section 3.7.4).

The investigation also reveals that most sample principals in the three provinces did not involve teachers during the planning of staff development sessions (see table 5.20). Both principals (55% mean) and teachers (76% mean) were agreed that principals did not consult teachers during the planning stage of the staff development sessions (see section 5.3). In this regard Dillion- Peterson (1980:150) advises principals to keep in mind that [t]eacher involvement in the planning of staff development sessions provides psychological and emotional support". Hammond and Foster (1987:97) concur with

Dillion and Peterson when they note that designers of staff development sessions often forget that adults learn when they perceive there is a need to learn. Teachers should be involved during the needs identification process. Staff development programmes fail because topics are frequently selected people other than those for whom the staff development programmes are intended and because staff development programmes rarely address the individual needs and concerns of the teachers (Fullan 1998:170). Staff development should be personalised so that it contributes towards the teachers' self-development (Santmire 1979:190). Besides, the principal should aim at promoting growth through direct and active involvement of the teacher (Carely 1986:200). It is unfortunate that in most of our schools, teachers display negative attitudes towards staff development. They tend to regard it is a platform used by the principal to expose their (teachers') weaknesses discovered during the fault-finding and witch-hunting exercises that principals call supervision with the result that this defeats the purpose of staff development as an instrument of professional growth of individual teachers (Carely 1986; Nyagura and Reese 1989, and Ndebele 2000).

The evidence reveals that the principal usually engages in the most current and pressing issues affecting the school at the expense of instructional supervision. Table 5.22 (see section 5.3) provides evidence on this phenomenon. Of the sample principals in the three provinces (Matabeleland North 73%, Matabeleland South 73%, and midlands 74%) (a mean of 73% per cent) admitted that they usually engaged in the most current and pressing issues at the expense of instructional supervision and 87 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers (Matabeleland North 86%; Matabeleland South 88%; and Midlands 87%) concurred with the principals (see section 5.3). This finding,

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together with the next two findings clearly indicate the extent to which time is spent on things that are not key to instructional supervision. If these are ignored it would hardly be possible to improve instructional supervision because there simply would not be time to do it.

The investigation also revealed that most principals' days were sporadic, characterised by short activities, variety and fragmentation. The majority of the sample principals, in the three provinces as shown in table 5.23 (see section 5.3). (Matabeleland North 75%, Matabeleland South 74%, and Midlands 75%) admitted that their day was sporadic, charecterised by short activities variety and fragmentation. The majority of teachers in the three provinces as shown in table 5.23 (Matabeleand North 83%, Matabeleland South 85%. And Midlands 83%) (see section 5.3), concurred with their principals on this phenomenon. This finding is consisted with findings by Martin and Willower (1981) and Peterson (1981) who found that in the United States principals' work days were sporadic, characterised by brevity, variety and fragmentation (see section 3.6). Martin and Willower (1981:29) report that primary school principals in the united States of America perform an average of 149 tasks a day, with constant interruptions. Over 59 per cent of their (principals') observed activities were interrupted. Principals demonstrated a tendency to engage themselves in the most current and pressing situation. They invested very little time in reflective planning. Instruction related activities took up only 17 per cent of their time (Martin and Willower 1981:30).

There is overwhelming evidence that most of the principal's time is spent on

administrative house-keeping matters and maintaining order at the expense of instructional supervision. Of the sample principals in the three provinces as shown in table 5.24 (see section 5.3) 85% per cent (mean) and 91 per cent (mean) of the sample teachers concurred with the statement that principals spend most of their time on administrative house-keeping matters and maintaining order at the expense of instructional supervision. This information is consisted with findings by Sarason (1982:129) (see section 3.6), who contends that most of the principal's time is spent on administrative house-keeping matters and maintaining order since many principals expect or feel that they are expected to keep everyone happy by running an orderly school. This then becomes the major criteria of the principal's ability to manage (Sarason 1982:29). House and Lapan (1978 :145), summarise the problem related to keeping everyone happy:

> Another fact to trying to please everyone and to avoid trouble that might reach central office is to deal with any problem that arises. The principal has no set of priorities except to keep small problems from becoming big ones. His/hers is a continuos task of crisis management. He/she is always on call. All problems are seen as important. This global response to any and all concerns means he/she never has the time, energy and inclination to effectively supervise teachers. Containment of all problems is his/her theme and this adversely affects instructional supervision.

There is evidence that most principals spend a lot of time attending to parents and other visitors to the school. The sample principals in the three provinces (Matabeleland North 89%; Matabeleland south 91%; and Midlands 86%) indicated that they spend a lot of time attending to parents and other visitors to the school (see section 5.3; table

5.25). Even though conversing with parents could have meaningful implications, also in the classroom, time with parents and other visitors during formal school hours deducts from time directly spent on instructional supervision.

A significant number of respondents as shown in table 5.25 (see section 5.3) concurred with their (teachers) principals (Matabeleland North 92%; Matabeleland South 97%; and Midlands 94%). This situation leaves the principal with very little time (if any) to carry-out instructional supervision. This situation is unhealthy because it clearly shows that principals do not have time to carry-out instructional supervision, which in actual fact is the core-business of a school principal.

The data clearly indicates that the majority of principals in the three provinces (Matabeleland North 98%; Matabeleland South 98% and Midlands 99%), as shown in table 5.17 (see section 5.3), establish staff development sessions to improve the quality of lesson delivery at their schools. This was confirmed by a large number of teacher respondents (Matabeland North 83%, Matabeleland South 84% and Midlands 85%) (see section 5.3). Principals are commended for creating time for staff development sessions. Beach and Reinhartz (1989:258) posit that "[s]taff development is crucial in promoting instructional competency and enhancing the appreciation that teachers have for their work" (see section 3.9). The concern for teachers as individuals becomes the focus of what instructional supervisors 9 principals) do when fostering professional growth and development (Tanner and Tanner 1987:9). Staff development activities are not just for teachers who are having difficulties in delivery instruction, but should be for all teachers (see section 3.9). Within the school organisation the need for staff

development programmes is heightened by two factors: the relative stability of the teaching profession and a young group of beginning teachers (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1983:41).

5.5.2 Information from the open-ended questions on the questionnaires for principals and teachers .

A summary of data obtained from the open-ended questions on the questionnaires for principals and teachers which was analysed in section 5.4 is now presented. The information gathered indicate that the majority of the sample principals and teachers in the three provinces appear to understand and appreciate the purposes of instructional supervision (also see appendices 1 to 6). Principals and teachers concur that instructional supervision improves the quality of teaching and learning, ultimately improving the pass rate of pupils at public examinations (see section 5.4). The implications of this information is that there is need for principals in the three provinces to conduct awareness campaigns so as to capitalise on the positive perceptions of teachers towards instructional supervision. Quantitative data on this study, however, reveal that principals in the three provinces use instructional supervision for fault-finding and teachers seem not to benefit much from it (see section 5.5.1).

Information reveal that the majority of principals and teachers in the three provinces were in concurrence in saying that instructional supervision at their schools was not adequately conducted (also see appendices 1 to 6). A number of activities that interfered with the principal's instructional supervision programme were also highlighted

(see section 5.4) Principals are involved in too man non-core business meetings both inside and outside the school thereby affecting their instructional supervision programme.

Teachers in the three provinces explained how they felt when their principals visited them for lesson observation (supervision). The majority of teachers (see section 5.4) indicated that they felt uncomfortable because the principal was coming to identify faults and to condemn everything the teacher was doing. The reasons for his situation could be attributed to the fact that principals do not seem to understand what instructional supervision is all about. This information is consistent with findings by Chivore (1995:39) who posits that

> [i]t is widely felt that what principals meant to be supervision in terms of guidance of teachers [aimed at improving teacher performance and through this pupils' performance] often turned out to be mere inspection of teachers, with teachers not receiving the necessary guidance and substantive support.

In the light of the above instructional supervision carried out by Zimbabwean principals is inadequate and not helpful for the professional growth of the teachers. This is consistent with findings by Acheson and Gall (1987:3) who capture how most teachers seem to feel about the classroom visits made by principals:

> [W]hat grips me more about this so called supervision is that the principal comes into my class once a year for About an hour. It is a scary unpleasant experience. I would not mind if I was being supervised by someone who's been a success in the classroom, but usually it's someone who was a poor teacher who was pushed in

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an administrative position and to top it off, the person
usually has had not training whatsoever in how to supervise.

A number of recommendations were put forward by both principals and teachers in the three provinces for consideration by the *Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture* (see section 5.4). Information reveals that most principals and teachers expect the *Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture* to provide standard crits and reduce the workload of principals so that they concentrate on instructional supervision. This therefore underlines the importance that teachers attach to the process of instructional supervision.

5.5.3 Data collected from the face-to-face semi-structured interviews for both principals and teachers.

Information gathered from the face-to-face interviews revealed that both principals and teachers seem to appreciate the major purposes of instructional supervision (see section 5.4). However , on further probing teachers suggested that instructional supervision would serve its major purpose if it is conducted properly and not the way their principals were currently doing it (see appendix 11 and 12). This underline the significance of conducting instructional supervision professionally and adequately by the principals.

Information collected from the interviews indicate that the majority of the principals felt that a conducive working environment should be provided for teachers, that team work should be encouraged and that there should be extensive use of demonstration lessons

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(see section 5.4). Teachers on the other hand suggested the use of external supervision (see section 5.4). Teachers indicated that external supervision were likely to be more objective and more professional than their principals implying that principals are not conducting instructional supervision properly (see appendix 11 and 12). This information is corroborated by findings from the quantitative data of this study (see section 5.5.1) which reveals that most teachers seem not to benefit·from the class visits by their principals.

On the adequacy of instructional supervision at their schools both principals and teachers concurred that it was inadequate (see section 5.4). What this situation implies is that principals have any little time to spend on instructional supervision. This therefore compromises the quality of instructional supervision provided by principals to their teachers. The few teachers who said that instructional supervision was adequate at their schools indicated that "too much" of instructional supervision disturbs particularly the hard-working, responsible and experienced teachers (see section 5.4).

Principals were asked to mention models of instructional supervision they were aware of and most of them seemed to be ignorant of major models of supervision (see section 5.4). The majority mentioned clinical supervision and interestingly " spot checks" were cited as a model of instructional supervision. This information therefore implies that principals need to be exposed to other modern models of instructional supervision so that may improve their supervision.

On how teachers felt when their principals visited them for lesson observation, the

responses received seem to suggest that teachers generally resent lesson observation by their principals (see section 5.4). Most teachers said that felt uncomfortable and intimidated as the principal would seize the opportunity to highlight all negative issues identified during the lesson observed and totally ignoring any positive aspects (see appendix 11 and 12). This explains the reason why most teachers mentioned that there should be use of external instructional supervisors whom they (teachers) believe could be more objective than their principals (see section 5.4).

On recommendations for consideration by the *Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture* in order to help the principal to improve instructional supervision, principals and teachers were in congruence (see section 5.4) on what should be done. They mentioned that the workload of principals should be minimised so that they (principals) could concentrate on instructional supervision. Teachers further suggested that principals must be in possession of degrees that are relevant to the work of supervision.

5.6   CHAPTER SYNOPSIS

In this chapter, both theoretical and empirical data have shown the centrality of the instructional supervision process towards the improvement of classroom instruction (teaching). Data from this study reveals that on the whole, the practices of principals in the three Zimbabwe provinces of Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South and Midlands are not promotive of effective instructional supervision.

The next and final chapter of the study focuses on:

- Summarising the key features of this study;

- drawing conclusions that seem to stick out in this study and

- recommending a series of actions, which if implemented could help improve the process of instructional supervision in Zimbabwean primary schools.

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CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY,

CONCLUSION AND

RECOMMENDATIONS

CHAPTER SIX

6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 SUMMARY

This study aimed at developing an analytical and explanatory framework for the instructional supervision practices of Zimbabwean primary school principals given their contextual realities highlighted throughout this study against the backdrop of the general theoretic basis. The particular Zimbabwean situation was highlighted, especially in sections 2.5, 5.3 and 5.4. Among other things, an assumption was made that effective instructional supervision will contribute significantly towards improved teacher performance which in turn will most probably result in an improvement in pupils' performance. The study arose, principally, from some evidence highlighted in chapter one which reveals that instructional supervision in Zimbabwean schools is not effective (see section 1.1), and that what is currently happening is inspection, harassment and central of teachers under the disguise of instructional supervision (see section 1.2).

The literature review revealed that most Zimbabwean teachers are apprehensive about being supervised; they appear to be dissatisfied with principles' classroom observations, hence the negative views towards instructional supervision (see section

1.2). It was against this backdrop that an attempt to provide a more effective instructional supervision framework was considered. In order to develop this framework for improving instructional supervision effectiveness in Zimbabwe, it became necessary to start by carrying out an audit of the existing instructional supervision theories and tools in order to establish the strengths, weakness and opportunities of these theories. This was also done to scan the external environments affecting the principals' supervisory practices in relation to the political and cultural contexts (see section 2.4 and 2.5).

In order to carry out this situation analysis, the views of principal and teacher samples were explored and analysed (see section 5.3 and 5.4). Their suggestions were sought in terms of how the existing instructional supervision practices could be transformed to ensure a logical sequel to this situation analysis.

6.1.1 Synopsis of the background to the research problem

As outlined in chapter one and chapter four (see section 1.3) the fundamental problem that this study aimed at addressing was "What does instructional supervision pertaining to Zimbabwean school principals entail"? The specific aims that the study sought to achieve included inter alia. "Finding out supervisory roles that promote teacher effectiveness; investigating effective teaching behaviours that increase student achievement; and establishing mechanisms of guiding principals as they work with teachers in their quest for instructional excellence which will lead to high standards of student achievement" (see section 4.3). The central theme of the research was the

improvement of instruction and the focus was on the role of the principal's supervisory practices in the improvement process. In a sense, the problem in this study was imbedded in the perceived intractability of the process of instructional supervision.

In this regard, this researcher's attention to this problem was considering reinforced by Musaazi's (1983) observation about schools in developing countries. Writing about problems affecting schools in developing countries, Musaazi (1983:225) (see section 1.1), lamented that developing countries face the twin problems of ineffective instructional supervision and poor classroom instruction. However, despite this pessimistic perception of the situation, this researcher became convinced that the instructional supervision process in Zimbabwe is far from being a hopeless one.

6.1.2 Synopsis of the research problem

The basic function of supervision is to improve the learning situation for learners. Instructional supervision is a service activity that exists to help teachers conduct their teaching more effectively. Supervision, through all means available, will seek improved methods of teaching and learning. It works primarily. It is concerned with improving the setting for learning in particular. Supervision is critical to the continuation of quality schooling (also see section 3.3).

Contrary to the above noble purpose of instructional supervision, it has, as mentioned, sometimes not been useful to teachers. Findings from various authorities cited in chapters one to three see section 1.1; 1.2; 2.5; and 3.3) revealed that instructional

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supervision was found to be meaningless, wearisome and frustrating to teachers. What principals meant to be instructional supervision in terms of guidance of teachers often turned out to be more inspection of teachers with teachers not receiving the necessary guidance and substantive support. For this researcher, therefore, the challenge became that of developing a framework that would allow the creation of an instructional supervision process that would best be able to raise, discuss and cope with the real issues affecting Zimbabwean school principals.

In short, therefore, the problem addressed in this study is: "What does instructional supervision pertaining to Zimbabwean primary school principals entail"? From this basic overarching questions, the following sub-problems /questions were addressed (see section 1.3):

- What do Zimbabwean principals understand by the concept instructional supervision?

- What models of supervision are commonly used by Zimbabwean principals?

- What is the extent to which principals help teachers at a variety of professional levels to improve instruction?

- What are the problems faced by principals during the supervision of instruction?

- What are Zimbabwean teachers views towards instructional supervision?

- Do principals effectively help their teachers to improve their teaching skills?

- How best can Zimbabwean principals be assisted to improve their supervisory skills?

The aim of the research (see section 1.3) was to provide principals in Zimbabwean schools with the necessary concepts and skills needed to help teachers improve classroom instruction and subsequently increase student achievement. The ultimate aim of the research is the improvement of instruction due to improved supervisory practices conducted by school principals.

More specifically, the study is guided by four major objectives (see section 1.3):

✠   To enable principals to be aware of supervisory roles that promote teacher effectiveness;

✠   to make principals aware of effective teaching behaviours;

✠   to expose principals to modern models of supervision which have worked elsewhere to promote student achievement; and

✠   to guide principals as they work with teachers in their quest for instructional excellence which could lead to high standards of student achievement.

It was hoped that the findings of this study would include among others, a possible way out of the current ineffective supervision practices of Zimbabwean school principals. Arguably, the problem in Zimbabwe as has been clearly demonstrated in chapter two (see section 2.5.1.1) and in chapter five (see section 5.3 and 5.4), is the power relations in primary schools. Power relations are generally authoritarian and bureaucratic.

6.1.3 Synopsis of theoretical and empirical investigations

In order to respond to the challenge of developing a framework for improving instructional supervision effectiveness in Zimbabwean primary schools, this study chose, as alluded to in chapters one to three (see section 1.1; 2.5; and 3.6), to premise itself in the context theory. Chapter one provided an analysis of the problem being investigated, focussing principally on the contextual realities around instructional supervision in Zimbabwean primary schools. Chapter two, was an overview and critique of existing literature on instructional supervision in developing countries. The aim of chapter two was, inter alia, to demonstrate the realities of instructional supervision practices of primary school principals in developing countries in general and in Zimbabwe in particular.

The third chapter entitled "conceptual frameworks for understanding and explaining instructional supervision explored different theories of understanding the contextual realities in chapels one and two. One major finding in this chapter was that instructional supervision literature in developing countries has been under-theorised in its contextual attributes. The findings of chapter three subsequently provided the proverbial trigger for the birth of chapter four of this study which sought to use multiple theories to construct a triangulated framework for use to gather empirical data in chapter five. Among other things, te data from the principal and teacher samples seemed to suggest the following phenomena (see sections 5.3 and 5.4):

⊞   Lack of a clear vision about what should constitute effective instructional

supervision;

*   instructional supervision models that are not promotive of professional growth of teachers;

*   ineffective leadership styles namely; the autocratic, monothetic and charismatic:

*   internal and external overloads that interfere significantly with the principal's instructional supervision program; and

*   inadequate principal capacity building for effective instructional leadership.

6.2   CONCLUSIONS

Some of the underlying points that are suggested by both theoretical and empirical data and which are related to this study's sub-questions listed below (see section 1.3) are discussed in this section.

*   What do Zimbabwean primary school principals understand by the concept instructional supervision?

*   What models of supervision are commonly used by Zimbabwean primary schol principals?

*   What is the extent to which principals help teachers at a variety cf professional levels to improve instruction?

*   What are the problems faced by principals during the supervisic of instruction.

*   What are Zimbabwean primary teachers' views towards instrucional supervision?

*   Do principals effectively help their teachers to improve their teacing skills?

※ How best can Zimbabwean primary school principals be assisted to improve their supervisory skills?

6.2.1 Conceptualisation of the process of instructional supervision by Zimbabwean primary school principals

Both theoretical and empirical data in this study (see section 1.2; 2.5; 3.3; 5.3; and 5.4) converge on the fact that most principals in primary schools in the three provinces under study do not adequately understand the concept of instructional supervision. They seem to confuse instructional supervision with inspection. Chibvonga (1995:19) (see section 1.2) alludes to inspection as the act of scrutinizing officially or examining closely especially for faults or errors.

6.2.2 Models of instructional supervision commonly used by Zimbabwean primary school principals

Evidence gathered through the views of the samples of principals and teachers (see section 5.3 and 5.4) point to the fact that most principals were using instructional supervision models and styles that are not consistent with the noble aims and objectives of instructional supervision as discussed in chapter three of this study (see section 3.3). The majority of sample principals largely used the scientific supervision model (see section 3.7.1) where principals were using mainly the assertive style, where the principal wants things done his/her way and tells rather than listens. Such a principal does not worry too much about other people's feelings or opinions, regularly

checks on staff, is aggressive if challenged and goes by the book. Teachers are such as appendances of management and as such are hired to carry-out pre-specified duties in accordance with the wishes of the principal. Principals were found to be generally inflexible and once they reached a decision would not change even if teachers tried to explain themselves (see section 5.3 and 5.4). There was little if any democracy in the conduct of supervision in the sample schools in the three provinces. All decisions came from the principal and this negatively affected teacher performance (see section 5.5).

6.2.3 The extent to which principals helped teachers at a variety of professional levels to improve instruction.

The data from the principal and teacher samples in chapter five (see section 5.3 and 5.4) clearly confirm that principals treat teachers as though they all had similar cognitive abilities. There is overwhelming evidence that principals carry out their instructional supervision programmes haphazardly just for the purposes of routinely fulfilling this obligation. The concern for teachers as individuals is not the focus of instructional supervisors (principals) when conducting their supervision. Principals do not consider the demographic make-up of the teachers they work with and different stages of professional development (see sections 5.3 and 5.4).

6.2.4 Contextual problems faced by principals during the instructional supervision process

Both theoretical and empirical data in this study (see section 1.2; 2.5; 5.3; and 5.4) seem to confirm that Zimbabwean primary school principals in the three provinces under study experience a lot of problems as they carry out their instructional supervision. Principals understudy were engaging in the most current and pressing issues at the expense of instructional supervision. Most principals expect or feel that they are expected to keep everyone happy by running an orderly school and this becomes the major criterion of the principal's ability to manage; even if it means ignoring instructional supervision (see section 5.3 and 5.4).

6.2.5 Teachers' perceptions towards instructional supervision

The data from teacher samples in chapter five (see section 5.3 and 5.4) seem to suggest that teachers were generally found to have negative attitudes towards instructional supervision because of the way it was being carried out. Most teachers (81%) felt that principals used instructional supervision for discovering faults from teachers. Another 76 per cent of the sample teachers indicated that they did not benefit from the classroom observations carried out by their principals (see section 5.4). The sample teachers felt that the classroom observations carried out by the principals did not promote their professional growth and were a waste of the teachers' and learners' time. A large number of the sample teachers (84%) said that the classroom observations carried out by their principals did not promote teacher growth.

Another general conclusion was that teachers resented unannounced class visits and viewed these with suspicion. They preferred to be informed in good time so that they could prepare and produce their best.

6.2.6 Towards effective instructional supervision in Zimbabwe

The quality of instruction depends not only on effective teachers (see section 1.2), but on effective supervisory staff as well. Both theoretical and empirical data from the samples of principals and teachers in chapter five (see sections 5.3 and 5.4) suggest that in order to achieve effective instructional supervision, it is important to:

* Establish a relationship that is based on cooperation, mutual respect and reliance upon each other as a source of help in working together toward effective instructional supervision;

* present observational data to teachers in ways that allow the teachers to accept the information as valid and accrete so that they can identify the needed instructional changes;

* appreciate the fact that recognition of needed changes in instructional behaviour is more effective when it comes from teachers rather than being imposed from without;

* realise that many instructional problems encountered by classroom teachers can be resolved if the teachers change their behaviour in positive ways. When teachers encounter instructional problems with students, the relevant questions to ask themselves are: "What can I do? What actions or behaviours can I exhibit

that will bring about changes in my students so that the problem is resolved"? Many factors other than teacher behaviours have an impact on students (for example home environment, peers, physical / physiological conditions), and teachers have no little or no control over these. But teachers can control or modify what they know best, their own instructional behaviours through a effective instructional supervision programme (Joyce and Showers 1982; see section 3.5).

✠ establish specific procedures and techniques that supervisors (principals) can use when working with teachers and observing classroom practice.

Arguably then, instructional supervision in the three provinces of Matabeleland North, Matabeleland South and Midlands can be most effective if:

✠ principals are aware of and concentrate on supervisory roles, that promote teacher effectiveness;

✠ principals are exposed to and utilise modern models of instructional supervision which have worked elsewhere to promote effective classroom practice and high student achievement; and

✠ principals are aware of effective teaching behaviours.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has shown that the gap between rhetoric and reality in terms of effective instructional supervision in the three provinces of Matabeleland North, Matabeleland

South and Midlands is still wide. On the basis of the findings of this study this researcher thinks that most, if not all rural provinces of Zimbabwe and indeed most rural provinces or regions of developing countries (particularly in Africa), would in all probability show the same results because their contextual instructional supervision realities are almost the same with those of the three Zimbabwean provinces under study. But identifying a problem is not quite the same as solving it. Declaration aspirations are of not much help either. An effort has been made to avoid them here.

6.3.1 Suggested models of supervision for use by principals to promote effective instructional supervision

In order for principals to be successful in their role of promoting instructional effectiveness and thereby increasing student achievement, it is recommended that effective supervisory models should be used. Principals are encouraged to use instructional supervision models that encourage interaction between the principal and the teacher as opposed to using models that promote fault-finding or principal dominance during the instructional supervision process.

The models used should also recognise that the teacher is an individual with unique levels of cognitive and professional development and with specific degrees of commitment to his/her position and teaching. Different supervisory contracts, therefore do well as supervisory styles, are required. Within the context of professional development, principals should take into consideration what is known about teacher development as they select supervisory practices and procedures.

Clinical supervision (see section 3.7.5), for example, is a model that promotes dialogue in establishing an instructional supervision contract. Clinical supervision is a long-term field based process that has been called "supervision - up - close" (Reavis 1976:98) because it brings clarity to the classroom and seeks to upgrade the quality of instruction. The use of clinical supervision encourages supervisors (principals) and teachers to study and practice the craft of teaching. If clinical supervision is to operate effectively, a collegial, collaborative relationship between supervisors and teachers is an essential pre-requisite. Clinical supervision links the growth phase of professional development with everyday classroom events and providers supervisors (principals) and teachers with the philosophical and methodological framework to improve student performance. Clinical supervision may be characterised as a partnership in leadership squarely targeted on discovering and refining ways to enhance learning (Gold'sberry 1984:14). If by inspection gives way to supervision as problem solving.

Another model that principals are encouraged to use is the developmental model (see section 3.7.4). This model integrates the salient attributes of adult cognitive development with supervisory styles. Development model recognises teachers as individuals who are at various stages of growth and development. According to Glickman (1984:110; see section 3.7.4) supervisors (principals) must foster thinking skills in teachers to help them diagnose classroom instruction and become aware of the many options for change. Although effective instruction demands autonomous and flexible thinking teachers, evidence in chapter five of this research (see sections 5.3 and 5.4) reveal that in Zimbabwean primary schools. Most principals in fact do not foster autonomy or provide ways to improve teachers' thinking. As Glickman

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(1984:113; see section 3.7.4) observes, "[f]or simplify and deaden the classroom environment y disregarding student differences and establishing and maintaining routines that result in a sterility of sameness."

In such a bleak environment, teachers strive just to get through the day. Studies (Beach and Reinharz 1989: 166; Gordon's 1987:64; see section 3.7.4) suggest that in a supportive and stimulating environment, teachers can think at higher abstract levels. According to Glickman (1985:57)

> *[a]bstract thought is the ability to determine relationships, to make comparisons and contracts between information and experience to be used to generate multiple possibilities in formulating a decision.*

Teachers, like other learners, can be taught to think in more abstract terms. Developmental supervision is based on the platform that human development is the aim of instructional supervision.

Another model suggested to Zimbabwean principals by this research is self - evaluation (see section 3.7.6). During self - assessment, teachers are called upon to evaluate their own performance so that they will become more aware of strengths and weakness associated with their classroom instruction. As defined by Bailey (1981:9):

> *Self-assessment is the process of self -examination in which the teacher utilises a series of sequential feedback strategies for the purposes of instructional*

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improvement ... the purposes of teacher self-assessment
are to enable the teacher to become aware of
personal classroom instructional behaviours [and to]
become self-directed in improvement activities.

Self - diagnosis and self awareness are the keys to this model. As they reflect on their performances, teachers can use carefully developed inventories that are based on behaviours associated with effective instruction. The inventories should be specific enough to encourage teachers to make critical decisions regarding their instructional efficacy. As Green blatt (1984:75) suggest, as they work together, supervisors or develop similar assessment tools that more closely parallel the objectives of their own school.

In addition to inventories, video taping or audio taping can be useful tools for the teacher in building a teaching profile.

These techniques according to Manatt (1981:66), provide a more objective data base for analysing teacher performance and give teachers the opportunity to see how they look and/or sound. Teachers can view or listen to these tapes in private which is less threatening.

With the high level of academic and professional education of principals and teachers in the three provinces of Zimbabwe under study which is reflected in chapter five of this research (see section 5.3), the implementation of the suggested models of instructional supervision seems to be very possible. It is therefore up to principals to

attempt applying these models to their instructional supervision.

6.3.2 Creating a staff development program that promoted effective instructional supervision.

It is recommended that when planning and implementing staff development activities, principals should be aware of the fact that in service / staff development is for all teachers, not just for those with instructional problems. Such goals as improved skills and professional commitment are possible to accomplish if instructional supervisors (principals) attend to what literature say about staff development and view teachers as learners.

Principals should also be committed to a long term process of staff development. The principal should consider the purposes of staff development, the principles of adult learning and development, and their own strengths and weakness to plan meaningfully as regards in-service/staff development programs for all teachers. The concerns being raised by this research about the present state of in-service/staff development programmes in Zimbabwean primary schools points out the need to define accurately and state the purposes of such activities. There is also a need to develop a process for restructuring the delivery and implementation of professional development programs so that their potential can be more fully realised.

For staff development to be considered a success, sessions should be designed with teachers in mind. Teachers need to perceive the worthwhileness of staff development,

cognitively accommodate the information, and have opportunities for active involvement. Principals need to know their teachers in full in order to provide them with meaningful professional growth.

Principals are also encouraged to use a collaborative approach to staff development. Where a collaborative approach is implemented, teachers learn to view each other as resources for professional growth and work together with instructional supervisors (principals) toward common instruction goals (Smith 1987:53). Collaboration, then, requires teachers to make an investment of their time and skills as they work in small cooperative teams. As teachers invest their time and energy to ensure that the best academic climate is provided for their students, so teachers must also "make a similar investment in their own personal and professional growth" (Paquette 1987:37).

The role of principals in collaborative settings is one of halting the spread of isolationism and of assisting teachers in establishing new ways of cooperating with co-workers (Jones 1982:115). According to Smith (1989:76), "a collaborative school requires a higher calibre of leadership than does a bureaucratic school".

6.3.3 Building a school climate conducive to effective instructional supervision.

It is recommended that principals musts ultimately reshape the work environment of teachers into one that is conducive to reflective and collective dialogue among staff members. Principals, as they work with teachers, should keep in mind the climate of the school, the need for collective dialogue among teachers, and the teachers' involvement

in determining the goals and type of instructional supervision they would like to receive.

In fact, according to (Glickman 1987:121), quality instruction may depend on the principal's ability to translate knowledge of school research into supervisory practices used that shape the school organisation into a productive unit. It is therefore the principal's job to link the needs of the teachers with the collective goals of the school and determine a plan of action for individual teachers. For the principal to be an effective link he/she needs an open climate in which he/she works with the two groups. Principals can actually choose to create a conducive open climate for the teachers to work in. A healthy supervisory climate assumes that the supervisor (principal) enters into a relationship with teachers on an equal footing and assumes an active role along with teachers. In this relationship, the teachers' capacities, needs and interest are paramount.

A healthy climate is one that exhibits reasonably clear and acceptable instructional supervision goals and develops communication which is relatively distortion - free. It has to be stated that the social atmosphere of a school cannot be changed overnight or by half - hearted attempts by the principals. It requires sincere concern and effort, being receptive to information, being critical and complimentary and persistent at making an effort to improve conditions for instructional supervision, in spite of obstacles.

6.3.4 Reducing interference to the principals' instructional supervision programs.

Evidence in chapters 2, 3 and 5 (see section 2.5; 3.6; 5.3; and 5.4) reveal unequivocally that the pressures that principals experience as supervision activities, are both external and internal to the school set-up. It is recommended that principals should prioritize their operations so that the bulk of their time is taken up by instructional supervision related activities. The core-business of the school is to provide learning to pupils, and instruction/teaching which is at the centre of learning must be closely monitored. Principals are therefore encouraged to plan their days and inform all the stakeholders of the school about their time - table so that there is minimum interference with the instructional supervision process. The government through the *Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture* in Zimbabwe is encouraged to come up with policies that will discourage traditional, religious and political leaders from interfering with school activities as evidenced in this research (see section 5.3 and 5.4). These leaders usually interfere with the principal's instructional supervision activities. This researcher does not suggest a total blackout on the interactions between the principal, parents and the local leadership as this would be unsustainable. Rather the suggestion is that frequent and improductive visits and meetings should be curtailed at all costs.

Principals are also encouraged to share their workload with other teachers, particularly concerning those aspects that are peripheral to the teaching/learning process so that they can concentrate on instructional supervision related activities. Issues relating to meeting parents and other visitors to the school or completing certain data forms, for

example, can be delegated to senior members of staff.

6.3.5 Principal capacity building for effective instructional supervision.

As a way of both copying with the circumstances and improving the instructional supervision in Zimbabwean primary schools, this study strongly urges that school principals should be trained for their jobs before they occupy their posts. The assumption that if a teacher is good in the classroom, he/she will necessarily make an effective instructional supervisor (principal) is essentially premised on whims rather than on empirical evidence. In this regard, it is important that principals of primary schools are trained to create democratic schools before they adopt autocratic styles which make effective instructional supervision very unlikely.

In this regard, principals need to acquire core skills on instructional supervision, and this can only be done through training. Clearly, because of the complex nature of the process of instructional supervision within the contextual realities described in chapters one and two (see section 1.2; and 2.5), the practice of simply moving teachers from the classroom into the post of principal is no longer a sensible and sustainable option. To this end, it may be necessary to make a number of changes in the regulations governing the requirements to become a principal.

In terms of instructional supervision improvement, being a principal therefore ought to require more than minimum academic qualifications. In addition it might be necessary for those who are already in post to receive in-service training. The government should

come up with special institutions that should be used for intensively training school principals, for example during the long school vacation periods, to specifically equip them with skills for carrying out effective instructional supervision.

6.4   CONCLUDING REMARK

The emphasis throughout this study has been to highlight the role played by effective instructional supervision in promoting effective teaching and ultimately high student achievement. It has also been argued that many instructional problems encountered by teachers can be resolved if the teachers are guided by an instructional supervision regime that utilizes models that promote teacher professional growth and development.

The data in this study, particularly in chapter five, seem to strongly suggest that principals in Zimbabwean schools are using undemocratic and retrogressive models of instructional supervision and that as a result of these models, teachers resent the process of instructional supervision. The findings also confirmed conditions of overload and fragmentation in the principal's role.

To this end, moving towards effective instructional supervision in Zimbabwean schools, therefore does not suggest a revolution in the transformation of the status -quo. Rather it refers to an evolutionary movement towards the establishment of relationships between principals and teachers that are based on cooperation, mutual respect and reliance upon each other as a source of help in working together toward effective instructional supervision.

It is, therefore the conclusion of this thesis that to effective in their instructional supervision roles, principals should begin to utilize various models of supervision with teachers. The currently employed practice of a principal making one or two visits per term and calling this instructional supervision is totally unacceptable and ineffective. Second, the current approach in which a principal observes a class, completes an evaluation, and discusses the evaluation should be modified.

The hope for the future as far as this thesis is concerned, is that principal should become committed to a long term process of initiating and sustain instructional growth and change for teachers. Principals should help teachers reach their highest potential as classroom practitioners by implementing the most appropriate supervision models.

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