

**THE CURRENT PRACTICES OF INSTRUCTIONAL
LEADERSHIP IN ENHANCING THE QUALITY OF
EDUCATION IN GOVERNMENT PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF
ADDIS ABABA**

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BA	Bachelor of Arts
B SC	Bachelor of Science
DF	Degree of Freedom
MOE	Ministry of Education
SPSS	Statistical Packages for Social Sciences
TTI	Teachers Training Institute

Abstract

This study was aimed at describing the current practices of instructional leadership in primary schools of Addis Ababa city administration and its potentials to enhance the quality of education. To achieve the objective of the study, basic research questions were asked in relation to the strength of schools –based supervision of instruction; current practice of school vision setting; the status of school-based professional development for teachers; suitability of school climate and culture, and the assessment of in-school impediments to instructional leadership effectiveness.

Survey research method was used in study. Random and availability sampling techniques were employed to select 277 subjects. Questionnaires were distributed to 86 school leaders, 191 teachers of which 222 (80.14%) of usable copies of questionnaire were returned. The data obtained were then analyzed using appropriate statistical tools such as percentages, mean, weighted mean and on-way ANOVA for comparison of means.

The study revealed that school- based supervisory practices were more focused on controlling teachers than supporting teachers and were more administrative-oriented than academic matters. Similarly, school vision setting and realization was constrained by shortage of resources and by inadequacy in analysis of constraining factors. The study also showed that school -based professional development for teachers was not tailored to individual needs and the contents were more deficit- oriented than growth-oriented . It was also discovered that teachers find difficult to understand their leaders and principals tended to be more directive than supportive to teachers. However, teachers showed openness in their interaction but they failed to accept faults of their colleagues. The study further revealed that the school community did not value differences in personality and teaching styles. Lastly, it was discovered that lack of work incentive, pressure of other jobs, and unwillingness of leaders to take risk were found to be the majoring in-school barriers to instructional leadership effectiveness.

In sum, school leaders lack sufficient knowledge about learning theory and effective instruction and lack commitment. They are not good at delegation. They experienced role confusion; and do not lead by modeling good behaviors. Further more, school vision did not win the acceptance of principal stakeholders of schools and school- based professional programs are not need based and contents are more of mass based than need based . Finally, the school does not support individual difference and teacher empowerment.

Thus, it is recommended that MoE redefine the responsibility of schools leaders by including further instructional duties ; leadership-training institutions revise their curricula by including school improvement themes in their training. School leaders give due emphasis on supporting teachers by modeling best instructional techniques than controlling. They also need to emphasize participation of stakeholders in setting school vision and align the available resources to practices that lead to vision realization; make school-based professional development programs need based. Furthermore, they also need lead by modeling supportive cultures and by valuing differences in personality, learning needs and teaching styles. Finally, it is recommended that increase commitment of school leaders by introducing motivation schemes, leadership career structure, and by re –examining the selection and appointment of school leaders.

CHAPTER ONE

THE PROBLEM AND ITS APPROACH

This chapter deals with the problem and its approach. It begins with a brief background of the study and states the problem. It also contains basic questions of the study, its significance, and delimitation. Research methods and procedures, definition of terms and organization of the study were also included in this section of the thesis.

1.1 Background of the Study

Schools are places where macro level educational goals are materialized. They are places of determining the future fate of the nation as well as that of its attendants. However, schools committed to such social ends are not easily found owing to the complexity of situations today. Devolution of responsibility for local management of schools, increased global and intensive competition, increased knowledge revolution and a growing sense of consumerism are only few of the factors that are at work for increased leadership skills and commitment to be in place. Harris (2005: 3) has noted that there has been a renewed emphasis upon leadership capacity and capability in the drive towards higher standards. "Improving the micro-efficiency of the school has been viewed as a means of addressing some the macro- problems of the state and society" (Macbeth cited in Harris, 2005: 9).

In the current context, the role of the leaders is primarily characterized as coping with change and coping with complexity. Performance and results orientation, increased independence in the management of schools , new forms of accountability that are intended to enhance effectiveness are some of the reform challenges in which leaders perform(Day et al. cited in Harris, 2005:9).

Research on school effectiveness has concluded that strong leadership is a characteristic of instructionally effective schools. In schools, leadership is a concept both multidimensional and multifaceted where " the values ,goals , beliefs , and decision-making skills of the principal give purpose and meaning to the policies and procedures which he/she is duty- bound to implement"(Goddard, 2003: 13).

Leadership is a generic concept that requires specific areas of application tailored to the central objective of the organization to be managed. In schools, this demands aligning the leadership around the core activities of schools. This, in turn, makes it imperative for school leaders to be mindful that the learning of students has a prominent place, and crucially attended. However, this conception of what schools should do to people is insufficiently understood in view of today's change in the paradigm of schooling and its leadership. Elmore (as cited in Harris, 2005:21) has stated that "the skills and knowledge that matter in leadership are those that can be connected, or lead directly to the improvement of instruction and performance."

Learning being the core activity of schooling, it can be argued that the prime function of leadership for authentic school improvement is to enhance the quality teaching and learning. Hence, instructional leadership is about creating opportunity for both students and teachers. In relation to the impact of instructional leadership for school success, Ubbens and Hughes (1997 :19) have asserted that " demonstrating high energy , setting standards of excellence , establishing goals , being a positive example , creating a motivating work environment ,all within the context of collaboration so that a high-performance learning community exists – these are the manifests in instructional leadership above all else." The focus on instructional leadership is, however, not exclusive of a range of other leadership models. This is not to imply that other leadership acts are unimportant, but rather to emphasize the centrality of instruction to the main business of the schools –student growth and development (Ubbens and Hughes,1997:19).

According to Hopkins (2005: 59), instructional leadership is actively and visibly involved in the planning and implementation of change .It emphasizes the quality of teaching and learning with high expectation for all staff and all pupils, whilst recognizing that support and encouragement are needed for everyone to give their best.

The idea that heads and other school leaders make a difference is now widely accepted by researchers, policy makers and practitioners alike. For instance, it is argued that the most important single factor in the success of schools is the quality of leadership of the head (DES cited in Hopkins, 2005: 55). In support of this generalization, Hallinger and Heck(cited in Southworth, 2004:98) have summarized the effect of principal influence on learning as “ direct effects where the principal’s actions influence school outcome; mediated effects principal actions affect outcomes indirectly through other variables. Sergiovanni (2001:99) on his part has stated, “principals are important! Indeed, no other school position has greater potential for maintaining and improving quality schools”.

These effects are not easily come by. Their proper materialization however, requires prerequisites like knowledge base, interpersonal skills and technical skills on the part of the leader (Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, 2004:11).Hence , the actions of leaders that lead to higher student achievement are under the influence of technical force, human force ,educational force ,symbolic force and cultural force (Sergiovanni, 2001:100).

Following the 2001 Ethiopian Civil Service Reform, there has been a huge expectation to make schools accountable for the learning of students and the community at large in the metropolitan as well as in the regions. Accountability, result –oriented performance management are among the legacies of the reform for schools leadership. The public has vested and an explicit interest in what school leadership is doing for physical and psychological wellbeing its learners.

Currently considerable measures are being taken by all schools to increase students’ learning time by avoiding shift system in the organization of learning. Many additional classrooms have been and/or are being built to avoid shortage of classrooms and consequently to resize the class size. This is being done on the assumption that increased students’ time on task and smaller class size allow to enhance quality of learning. Definitely, a daylong schooling has some promise for enhanced quality of learning though it cannot be a panacea. Good internal

management and leadership of schools with special focus on instructional wing of school management should complement these changes in the hardware of schooling. This research then focused on such aspect of managing school for better quality of learning. The conceptual framework of this study underlines that school leaders can and do make a difference both to students and to teachers through their skills- based practices as instructional leaders.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

It can be argued that, if the primary purpose of schooling is learning, thus ensuring that instructional goals have been reached is of paramount importance for effective leaders. Studies reveal that the role of school leaders and the process of leadership are significant contributing factors in the achievement of successful school improvement (Telford, 1996:1). The importance of the principal's role as an educational leader and the direct relationship on changing instructional practices to improve student performance has been documented extensively. For example, Leithwood (cited in Quinn, 2006:1) has described that instructional leadership as a series of behaviors that is designed to affect classroom instruction.

Research evidences indicate that successful instructional leaders promote culture of collegiality, collaboration, support and trust in their schools. Effective instructional leaders must be knowledgeable about learning theory, effective instruction and curriculum; must be able to communicate and represent to students, teachers and parents what is of important and value in the school. They must also be skillful in the construction of culture that specifically defines "what a given school is all about" (McEwan, 2003: 6).

Although research clearly shows that instructional leadership practices make difference, there is a wide gap between the ideal and actual behaviors of instructional leaders owing to barriers to principals actually exercising instructional leadership. Based on her study, McEwan(2003:11-14) has concluded that lack of skills and training, teacher cooperation , vision and good will and shortage of time, are common impediments to principals instructional effectiveness.

Similarly, there are conceptual as well as practical problems in our education system too. From the researcher's personal experience as school principal and observation, school leaders have not been appreciated for their contribution to curriculum implementation. This situation could be traced to the flaws in the available guidelines of MoE for school leaders. Although it is argued that the new guideline, customarily called "Blue Book" said to provide for a clear direction for the management and leadership schools for maximum students' learning achievement under decentralized education system, its flaws can be seen clearly in its section that presents the roles of school principal. A critical review of this section shows that out of its 30 points, majority of them emphasize the non-instructional responsibilities of school principal despite the dual roles as leader in the instructional and non-instructional areas. With the exception of a single role description about the support of peer coaching and school-based supervision, all of them deal with managerial processes that have far-fetched contribution to improvement of instruction.

In today's context it would be difficult to assume that the traditional view of rationality of bureaucratic management apply for the effectiveness of teaching activity while it does for non-instructional areas of school leadership. This study therefore, attempted to describe the current practices of instructional leadership in government primary schools of Addis Ababa and its potentials for better development of community of learning as well as the barriers that constrain instructional leadership effectiveness. The study is first of its kind since the implementation the new Civil Service Reform of 2001 in the Metropolitan. The focus of this study was to assess the strength of school leadership as it applies to improving learning. The issue was investigated with framework the new paradigm shift in that the school is a community of learning where students, teachers and leaders learn continuously.

The objectives to the study were:

- To assess the strength and contribution of school-based instructional supervision for quality of learning.

- To identify school leaders' strengths and weaknesses to develop, articulate and implement a shared vision that is supported by the principal stakeholders and the school community.
- To assess the practice of school-based teachers' professional development
- To make an evaluation of the suitability of school culture to enhance the quality of learning.
- To identify factors that constrain instructional leadership effectiveness of school leaders.

With this purpose in mind, the research was guided by the following basic questions to achieve the objectives stated:

1. To what extent do school leaders provide for supervision of instruction?
2. Do most school leaders provide for setting and communication of school vision?
3. What is the status of school –based teachers professional development?
4. To what extent do leaders build conducive school culture and climate?
5. What are the in-school impediments to instructional leadership effectiveness?

1.3 Significance of the Study

The central purpose of this study was to assess the practices of instructional leadership and its potentials to contribute to the national endeavors of increasing the quality of learning with particular reference to Government primary schools in Addis Ababa. Although instructional leadership should be shared between school principals and teachers, this study focused on the effectiveness of the school principals as instructional leaders. In general, the research will give insight to both practitioners and theorists about major issues like developing leaders and leadership capacities as an important aspect of the country's capacity building program. Specifically, however the findings of the research are applicable in the following areas:

1. It may serve as good input for policy makers to set strategy on school improvement,
2. It may serve as stepping-stone for those who want to carry out research on school improvement.
3. It can have some promise for institutions that intended to develop school leadership capacities
4. It can be good asset for practicing school leaders
5. It may add to the existing body of knowledge on school improvement.

1.4. Delimitation of the Study

Improved instructional leadership practices seem to be a national agenda these days. All regions are attempting to improve school leadership capacities and practices as part of national capacity building strategy and thereby making efforts to increase students' learning achievement. However, a study at a national scale could have produced better findings than the ones confined to a region alone.

The scope of this study was delimited to government primary schools in Addis Ababa city administration. The study took government primary schools as its subject for two reasons. Firstly, instruction in secondary schools is standardized due to Plasma instruction and there would be little difference that instruction focused leadership can bring in learning achievement. Therefore, it would be more effective to study the instructional leadership effectiveness in primary schools than that of secondary schools. Secondly, there are more government primary schools than private ones and many learners attend the government run schools. Hence, it would be worthwhile to focus on government schools when seen from the priority point of view.

Conceptually, the study focused on some of elements or aspects of instructional leadership that were deemed manageable for the student researcher. The conceptual framework for this study included instructional leadership domains such as school-based professional development of teachers, defining the vision and mission of schools, building and nurturing school culture and climate for change and leaders

behavior in assisting classroom instruction- all with the purpose of improving students' learning achievement.

1.5 Limitation of the Study

The student researcher's effort to undertake the study as planned was constrained by factors, which were beyond his reach. One such was lack of cooperation of respondents in filling out the questionnaire as per the schedules of the researcher. Some teachers and school leaders refused to return the questionnaire while some filled the questionnaire improperly and carelessly. Besides, shortage of time on the part of student researcher, as he has some teaching duties as well, has posed some challenge. Despite these challenge, the student researcher has managed to minimize the undesirable effects of the incidents by increasing the number of respondents and by working on weekends as well.

1.6 Research Design and Procedures

1.6.1 Research Methodology

A survey method was used because it was found convenient to portray the existing situations of instructional leadership practices in the wider area under study. This method is particularly appropriate to define the nature of a practice so as to find out strengths and weaknesses and open up a venue for other in depth studies based on the findings of this descriptive study. This method is believed to generate relevant data pertaining to the effectiveness of instructional leadership if backed by appropriate research procedures.

1.6.2 Sources of Data

The study used of primary data generated from implementers and beneficiaries. Since this study was based on describing the behavior of educational leaders at school levels, as indicated by judgment of school members, primary data were found to be more important than secondary ones. Hence, the sources of data for the study included teachers, principals, vice principals, and department heads.

1.6.3 Sampling Procedures

It would be impractical and unmanageable to include all population in study but it will be advisable to come up with the representative samples and generalize the findings to the population. Accordingly, multistage, random, and availability sampling techniques were used to come up with representative and manageable sample for the study. There are 10 sub cities, where we find 4982 teachers working in 74 primary government schools in Addis Ababa city administration. A multistage sampling technique was employed to select subjects at school levels. The stages in this context refer to the approach of narrowing down the population from city administration level down to individual employees.

Out of the ten sub cities, five of them were randomly selected and included in the study. Random sampling seems to come up with representative sample, as there are no significant geographic variations among schools across sub cities in Addis Ababa. The five sub cities selected and included in the study were Arada, Gullelie, Kirkos, Addis Ketema and Kolfe Keraniyo. Following this, there are 37 schools in the selected sub cities. From among 37 schools of the Five sub cities, two schools from each sub city were selected randomly that added up to 10 schools(27.78%).

Consequently, there were 912 teachers, and 90 school leaders (principals, vice principals, and department heads) in the sampled schools. Out of these, 160 (17.5%) of the teachers were selected through simple random sampling. Accordingly, 62 school leaders (principals, vice principals, and department heads) were included in the study on availability basis. Availability sampling technique was used for selecting school leaders, as there were only few leaders in schools than teachers.

1.6.4 Procedures, Instruments for Data Collection and pilot test

1.6.4.1 Procedures

The following procedures were carried out to describe the status of instructional leadership in government primary schools of Addis Ababa city Administration. Firstly, to develop a thorough understanding and to gain insight on the research topic,

relevant literature was reviewed and reported. Secondly, appropriate data collecting instruments were developed and pilot tested. Thirdly, after the standardization of the instruments, the tools were administered, the collected data were presented, analyzed and interpreted and finally, a report on the research study was prepared.

1.6. 4 .2 Data Gathering Instruments

To test the hypotheses of the research, appropriate and relevant data were collected by designing appropriate and relevant data collection instruments. Accordingly, quantitative data collection tools were used to collect data from concerned subjects: school teachers and school leaders. Different sets of questionnaire were set and distributed to teachers and school leaders to collect broad based data on the practice of instructional leadership.

The Questionnaires

Questionnaire, which is convenient, reliable, to secure adequate information from a large number of respondents within a short span of time, was used in this study. Two sets of questionnaire were prepared originally in English, which was later translated into Amharic to prevent misunderstandings and misinterpretations on the part of the respondents. It consisted of closed-ended questions so as to exhaust all the possible indicators of the practices of instructional leadership. In sum, the questionnaire consisted of six parts designed for school teachers and school leaders (See appendix I and II).

Section one is comprised of questions on the personal background of the respondents whereas section two was about respondents' perception of school - based supervisory practices. The third section was meant to gather data on school vision setting while the fourth section focused on school- based professional development of teachers. The fifth section, on the other hand, was designed to collect data on the suitability of school culture and school climate. Finally, the sixth section dealt with issues of in- school factors that hinder the effectiveness of instructional leadership in primary schools.

1.6.4.3 Pilot Testing

In order to increase the validity and reliability of the instruments, 12 copies of the draft questionnaire were dispatched to both teachers and school leaders at one primary school in Yeka sub city. After the questionnaire had been filled and returned, each of the items in the questionnaire was thoroughly examined. Ambiguous and unclear statements were corrected and the final questionnaire was redistributed to the study samples. Special care was made when administering the instruments by selecting the most convenient time, places and spaces for the study subjects.

1.6.5 Methods of Data Analysis

After collection of the questionnaires and getting back the adequate number of respondents, the collected questionnaires were checked for their completeness in which some incomplete cases were rejected and the complete ones were coded, registered and ratings were analyzed by using different statistical tools with aid of computer assisted MS SPSS-12 program.

Appropriate statistical procedures were identified in line with the nature of the data collected for the study. Accordingly, the following statistical tools have been used in analyzing and interpreting the data collected.

- Percentages and frequency counts were employed to analyze characteristics of the sample. This statistical tools help to determine the relative of characteristics such as: age, sex, educational qualification and work experiences.
- Measures of Central Tendency like mean, weighted mean were computed to find out average values against each item score by including all the number of observations in the categorized items (Groups).
- One- way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was employed for the data. This statistical tool was used to quantify, explore and describe

the differences and similarities between the responses of different groups of respondents.

1.7 Operational Definition of Key Terms

Instructional leadership: Is leadership that is directly related to and focuses on academic matters of a school.

School Leader: is a person –principal or, vice principal -who is in a position to influence teachers towards school goal attainment.

School Culture: A system of belief about a school, shared by its members that distinguishes it from other schools.

Professional Development of Teacher: is an act of gaining professional experience from any planned endeavor meant to add new knowledge about the subject taught and its methodology at school levels.

School Climate: is the atmosphere of school created by the interaction between school leaders and teachers as well among teachers.

School Vision: is an explicit statement of desirable future aspiration one makes for the present and future students.

Supervision of Instruction: is support to teachers by observing teaching and providing helpful comments, helping teachers to reflect on their practice to learn more about what they need to do to improve practice.

1.8 Organization of the Study

This research report is organized into four chapters. The first chapter is concerned with the problem and its approach while the second chapter contains the review of related literature in the area. The third chapter deals with analysis and interpretation of data whereas the fourth chapter contains summary of the findings, conclusions and recommendation of the study. Finally, list of reference materials and samples of instruments for data collection were annexed in the appendices.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Related Literature

This chapter primarily focuses on treating the theoretical aspects of instructional leadership within the framework of improving the quality of education. It particularly examines some aspects of instructional leadership based on the purpose of the study. The chapter begins by treating the concept of instructional leadership as the major role area of school leaders. The chapter breakdown is also based on the elements that constitute the theory and practice of instructional leadership.

Accordingly, the chapter contains five sections. The first section deals with the definition and domains of instructional leadership whereas the second discusses the school vision as one major domain area of instructional leadership. Section three of the chapter presents school based professional development for teachers. Likewise the fourth section focuses on school based supervisory practices. Finally, the importance of change school culture and creating conducive work climate has been dealt with as precursor to manage a planned change.

2.1 Conceptual Framework for Instructional Leadership

To define leadership in general and instructional leadership in particular has caught the imagination of both practitioners and academics over the years. Leadership, as interpersonal influence process directed towards the attainment of certain goals, could have different forms and models. Furthermore, leadership is contextual and situational in its application and all these conditions contribute for its conceptual diversity. This variation in context has resulted in the creation of one model for leading schools-instructional leadership.

Instructional leadership is "leadership that is directly related to the process of instruction where teachers, learners, and the curriculum interact" (McEwan, 2003: 6).

Instructional leadership, narrowly defined, focuses on leadership functions directly related to learning (Murphy cited in Marks & Printy, 2003:373). In a broader view, however, it can be defined, as leader functions that contribute to student learning and this encompasses everything the principal does during the day to support the achievement of students and the ability of teachers to teach (Sebring & Bryk cited in Marks & Printy, 2003:373). Similarly, Harries et al.(2005:21) have defined instructional leadership as a model of leadership that “places an emphasis on the development of the school through the development others”.

In attempt to make clear the distinction between instructional leadership and other forms of leadership McEwan (2003:6) has stated that instructional leadership is the creation of a climate where the principal, faculty, students, parents and school board are able to work together to accomplish the task of education. This requires the instructional leader to have a sense of purpose and a broad knowledge of the educational process and learning theories.

Finally, it seems clear that a definition of leadership in terms of instruction tends to be much more focused and specific than many other conceptions of leadership in education. Elmore (cited in Harris et al., 2005:21) has argued that ‘the skills and knowledge that matter in school leadership are those that can be connected to or lead directly to the improvement of instruction and student performance’ .Instructional leadership is also understood as learning-centered leadership that concentrates on the improvement of learning and teaching. It seeks to enhance the quality of learning.

2.1.2 Domains of Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership is a multifaceted practice as it applies to schools. Maseko (2002:3) has looked into these domains as aspects of instructional leadership that include setting objectives, curriculum coordination and team building practices. Similarly, Marks and Printy (2003:373) have added to these domains the development of schools mission and goals, creating climate for learning, coordinating and monitoring instruction. Still others have proposed a model of instructional

leadership that consists of specific functions with three broad categories “defining the school mission, managing instructional program, and promoting school climate” (Hopkins, 2005:58).

From its very definition, instructional leadership is associated with roles or tasks of the principal which include such things as assuming an important role in framing and communicating school goals, establishing expectations and standards, supervising and evaluating instruction, promoting students opportunities to learn and enhancing professional development for staff (Lahui-Ako, 2001:234). Hallinger (cited in Lahui-Ako, 2001:237) has echoed the domains as functional areas of instructional leaders that include “defining and communicating school goals, managing curriculum and instruction, promoting positive learning climate, observing and giving feedback to teachers and assessing instructional program....”

The common elements in all these authorities’ assertions and findings, as they apply to Ethiopian situation, have been considered in this review. Sets of task areas that constitute effective instructional leadership include defining and communicating the school mission and vision, promoting a positive learning climate, building the capacity of teachers and supervision of instruction (observing and providing feedback). Hence, the remaining part of this chapter presents the review on these points with the framework of improving schools and schooling through strong instructional leadership.

2.2. Defining and Communicating School Vision

The very definition of leadership implies that there is a better future that leaders forge and influence followers to head towards it. Leadership is about vision and being visionary. McEwan (2003:6) has argued, “an instructional leader has a passion for great teaching and a vision for what schools should be doing for children. In this regard, Holmes (1993: 15) has attempted to relate school success to vision by stating that all successful schools are built around a clear sense of vision and purpose. Conversely, all successful school leaders have a firm grasp of educational vision and

purpose and can relate that vision to the regular tasks and challenges of school leadership. Similarly, Sergiovanni (2001:103) has argued strongly that vision is an important aspect of leading reasoning that without it the very point of leadership is defeated.

2.2.1 Vision Defined

The concept of vision could apply to every walks of life as long as people have some dreams of better future. For the school leader, however, vision is the mental image of the kind of school he/she is trying to build for the future. It includes the aspirations for the present and future pupils in the school, the quality of teaching and learning that is attainable and values, which should influence everything which happen in the school (Holmes, 1993: 15-16). Similarly, Clayton (1994:34) has defined vision as a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organization...as vague as a dream or as precise as a goal or mission statement ...a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future of the organization, a condition that is better in some important ways than what now exists.

The above paragraph makes it clear that by looking a head it is possible to foresee an attractive and better school. It also implies that visionary leaders and visioning for change are important conditions for school improvement. The emphasis in school vision setting is on the positive change to enable a school, "to see the excellence which it is capable of achieving and to strive to reach that desired state" (Clayton, 1994:34).

2.2.2 Vision Makes a Difference

Instructional leaders cannot think of materializing change without an effective vision. The literature on instructional leadership for school improvement increasingly documents that vision is seen as a core leadership task that must be attended by all leaders. Schools need vision .Holmes (1993:22) has argued that of all organizations,

those dealing with the intellectual formation, skilling and nurturing the young people need vision.

As the quality of children's learning is at the heart of everything the school does, putting learning at heart of school leadership requires action and involvement. This will not come without a strong sense of future aspirations. In support of this statement, West Burnham (cited in Clayton 1994:35) has stated that the purpose of vision is to "help the school move from the known to the unknown, to set out the hopes and aspirations of the school for children, community and staff." In the context of total quality management, the prime function of leaders is to create a better future. Instructional leaders must build realistic and attractive goals as a means to better future.

Blase and Blase (1997:93) have seen vision setting as to emanate from the school leaders' role as instructional leaders. It is argued that school principals are facilitators and developers rather than bosses. They are responsible for helping to create a common vision of the school, to model behaviors consistent with that vision and allocate resources and distribute information that help the total community move toward that vision .

Dimmock (2003:13), on his part, has asserted that a vision provides the leader with' a sense of purpose, aim and direction that can be shared with others and used as a basis for prioritizing and decision-making. Similarly, Levine and Lezoffe (cited in Dimmock, 2003:13) have stated that learning-centered schools make a major shift in the mindset of leaders away from administrative matters to the centrality of students and learning. School leaders become goal-oriented in respect of improving students' learning outcome and "interpreting their work roles and judging their performance in terms of the contribution they make to enhance learning".

School vision contains the basic purpose and value to which the school aspires and it sets the context for the management of school improvement. It is "necessary in order to establish the purpose of the school to communicate the value which will underpin

decisions making..., which will take the school forward” (Clayton, 1994:35). However, it is not sufficient for the school to have a well-written vision; it should win the appreciation and commitment of all followers, most importantly, teachers. “The staff must see that the head teacher is an effective practitioner. For example, Coulson (cited in Clayton, 1994:38) has stated that:

Successful heads have a vision of how they would like to see their schools and thus they give their schools a sense of direction but importantly they also are capable of operationalizing their goals and values both through a long terms strategy and at the level of day-to-day actions.

This quotation makes it clear that school vision should be contextualized if it is to serve its purposes. For instance, “this vision needs to incorporate, encapsulate and illuminate all aspects of school’s life” (Clayton, 1994:35). Such a systematic approach requires an effective syntheses of the beliefs and ideals, of values and functions, of past achievements and future aspirations of choices and constraints .Above all ,the vision should be shared and owned by all concerned with the school and should provide the inspirations and challenges.

2.2.3 Whose Vision? : The Dilemma of Participation

The leader’s role will not be completed by simply dreaming up a school vision and letting others know it. In line with this, Clayton (1994:35) has stated that the only “effective vision is the one which places staff at the center is truly shared and owned by all “. This clearly indicates that it is important that the leader believes that the staff can work together to achieve the vision.

To make school vision realistic, need-based and workable it is important to raise questions such as is it the vision of an individual, say the principal? Is it the joint vision of all concerned? In response to such fundamental questions, Holmes (1994:24) has stated that an effective vision is the “product of long consultations with other interested audiences such as parents, community, teachers and, perhaps pupils”.

Effective vision is the one that is shared and owned by all stakeholders. Such vision is developed “through professional dialogue and debate, through common experiences, through the development of participative management process, through whole-school professional development and above all through quality professional and personal relationship based on trust” (Clayton, 1994:35). This done on the ground that leadership occurs in group situation and this group must be able to see the currency of such future aspired reality. Hence, participation based on the culture of trust and collegiality is an asset to vision building process.

Blase and Blase(1997:96-102) have asserted that vision building should involve putting a vision in writing; using it as the criteria of success. Furthermore, it should be ongoing and responsive to the changing environment. They also remind us that a school vision should be about instruction and must elicit collaboration that stems from true commitment. The goal of reaching agreement on the vision of the school is, ideally, to seek consensus as nearly as it can be practically achieved.

In line with this, Owens(1998:213) has argued that the discussion of the school vision is a crucial dialogue “which the leader and the followers mutually engage in the processes of forging the destiny that unites them in common cause”. By participating in the long process of creating, maintaining and evolving a vision of the future of the school, teachers are themselves involved in the process of self-development and growth.

2.3. School- Based Professional Development of Teachers

In section 2.2, it was reported that setting vision is moving from the known and present situation to some future and better situation for the school opting for quality of learning. Among the task areas for instructional leadership for quality student learning is building the capacity of teachers so that they can be able to help realize the school vision. Capacity building is concerned with providing opportunities for people to work together in a new way.

There is mounting evidence that there exists strong correlation between professional knowledge of teachers and students' learning achievement. For instance, Harris and Lambert (2003:116) have argued, "schools that improve and continue to improve, invest in the life of the school life as a learning community where members are constantly striving to seek new ways of improving their practice". These assertions capitalize on the importance of building the capacity of teachers as professionals in an attempt to improve quality of student learning.

The centrality of teachers' professional development for quality of student learning and as major component of instructional leadership is evidenced in the statement of Blase and Blase (1999:351) when they have defined instructional leadership as a "blend of tasks such as supervision of classroom instruction, staff development, and.... In addition to this, Harris (2005:21) has defined instructional leadership as a model of leadership that attempts to bring about school development through the development of teachers. According to him, teachers can be regarded as true agent change when they are provided with development opportunities depending on their development needs and school context.

2.3.1. Definition of Professional Development

The concept of professional development is often ill defined; in many cases confused with related concepts of in-service training and on- the -job learning. Harris and Muijs (2005:57) have drawn the distinction between professional development and in-service and on-the-job learning as latter are more "limited than professional development as professional development encompasses a wide variety of approaches and teaching and learning strategies". They have also added that it is distinguishable from lifelong learning which is a broader concept in that it can include all sorts of learning whereas professional development is seen to be related to people's professional identities and roles and the goals of the organization in which they are working.

Traditionally, professional development of teachers is understood as the different forms of in-service training. However, it includes varieties of development

opportunities at school level for teachers. For example, Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon(2004,370-371) have defined professional development of teachers as “virtually any experience that enlarges a teacher’s knowledge, appreciation, skills and understandings of his/her work falls under the domain of professional development”.

Professional development emphasizes providing teachers with the opportunities and the resources they need to reflect on their practice and need to share their practice with others. According to Wood (1997:72), professional development is “a process by which professional educators identify what they believe ought to be improved in their schools and then plan and implement learning experiences for teachers and administrators to make change a reality”.

2.3.2. The Need for Professional Development of Teachers

Studies made by Blase and Blase (cited in Southworth, 2004:106) underline that ‘promoting teachers professional development was the most influential instructional leadership practice at school levels’. Research evidences indicate that for school to be effectively responsive to new demand to teach all students at a high level, teacher development must become a top priority. In support of these assertions, Darling-Hammond (cited in Sergiovanni, 2001:263) has stated:

A growing body of research finds that teacher expertise in one of the more important school factors influencing student achievement....That is teachers who know much about teaching and learning and who work in environments that allow them to know students well are critical elements of successful learning.

Similarly, it is argued that schools that exhibit a high level of success with students are those that create work environment conducive to teacher learning. In such environment, teachers’ learning results from close involvement with students, shared responsibility for student progress, access to the expertise of colleagues, feedback from classroom practice.

Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004:370), on their part, have asserted that “the essence of successful instruction and good school comes from the thought and

action of the professionals in the schools. So, if one is to look for a place to improve the quality of education, in a school a sensible place to look is the continuous education of educators that is professional development”.

In an attempt to relate professional development to school improvement, Harris and Lambert (2003:116), have argued that school that improve and continue to improve invest in the life of the school as a learning community “where members are constantly striving to seek new ways of improving their practice. An optimal school learning environment provides teachers with opportunities to work and learn together”.

2.3.3. Features of Effective Professional Development

Effective school- based professional development presupposes the following principles to be observed. Accordingly, Wood (1997:71-72) has identified the following principles for the effective implementation of such programs:

The school is the primary focus of improved practice and staff development. Significant changes in educational practices take considerable time and are the results of staff development that is planned and conducted during several years. A school culture supportive of improvement of practice and professional growth is essential to successful staff development. The principal is key in any staff development effort to improve professional practice ;staff development should enable school personnel to improve professional practices in ways that increase student learning, and staff development should support instructional and program improvement and should be closely linked to instructional supervision.

Professional development seems more in tune with the view of teaching as a profession and implies providing teachers with the opportunities to grow professionally. Though there is no ready-made template for such opportunities, Thelen (cited in Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2002:206) has suggested that the most useful professional development programs are characterized by “intensity of personal involvement, immediate consequences of classroom practice...and initiating by teacher rather than outsider”.

Studies across education systems of different countries show that effective school-based professional development programs are characterized by the:

Involvement of participants in planning, implementing and evaluating programs that are based on school wide goals but that integrate individual and group goals with school goals; incorporate research and best practice on school improvement and instructional improvement. They also presuppose the presence of administrative support, including provision of time and other resource, adherence to the principles of adult learn, follow-up and support for transfer of learning to the school or classroom. In addition, they require on-going assessment and feedback. And continuous --- that become part of the school culture (Glickman ,Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004: 373).

Similarly, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002:207) have echoed these features by adding their observations. They have argued that professional development should provide for meaningful intellectual, social and emotional engagement with ideas; account for the context of teaching and experiences of teachers. Furthermore, it should place classroom practice in larger context of purposes of the school and provide teachers with the opportunity of relating students' experience, classroom practice, with the wider school cultures.

To sum up school based professional development programs need to be initiated by school level professionals. They are not prescriptive and expert centered unlike many other traditional in-service training opportunities. In terms of substance, Sergiovanni (2001:103) has argued, they should focus on the teacher's sense of purpose, perception of students, knowledge of subject matter, and mastery of techniques of teaching.

2.3.4. Models or Formats of School-Based Professional Development

Research indicates that different options are available for planning and implementing teachers' professional development. School principals as instructional leaders must chose staff development programs that help teachers acquire and expand instructional experiences and instructionally flexibility respectively. Such programs should be planned based on prior recognition of professional development needs. Villegas-Reimers (2003:69) has presented the models in two categories. The first model requires organizational or institutional arrangement whereas the second model

incorporates different options that are highly site-based, and those that can be implemented at a school level. It is also called small group technique that includes supervision in classroom, observation of excellent practices, reflection models, and action research, which will be treated in that order.

Unlike the traditional purpose of employing classroom observation for faultfinding, today, most professional development programs involve supervision in classroom as an important element school based professional development program. In this new perception, "supervision is considered as a means of offering helpful feedback and suggestion on ways to improve a particular aspects of one's teaching" (Villegas-Reimers, 2004 :88) . Segiovanni and Starratt (2002:221)also have tried to show such shifts in the perception of classroom by arguing that "when supervision is direct, centered in the classroom, focused on teachers' issues, aimed primarily to helping teaches and improve their teaching and collaborative, the terms clinical supervision is often used" . Wanzare and Da Costa (cited in Villegas-Reimers,2003 :89) have also asserted that clinical supervision in perceived as an effective model of professional growth and development.

Observation of excellent practices is the second option for school-based teachers' professional development. It involves arranging for teachers the opportunity to observe colleagues who have been recognized for their expertise and excellence in teaching. In this a way teachers will have the opportunity to learn and reflect on the knowledge, skills, and attitudes that excellent teachers implement in the classroom (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:99). Although on many occasions, these observations constitute part of a larger professional development effort in many situations, they represent the core of the professional development opportunity.

Reflective model, on the other hand, is based on such observation of model teaching performances. Observation of excellent teaching performance is of no value in itself unless it is reflected on and followed by some sort of discussion and dialogue. According to Southworth(2004:105), professional dialogue and discussion are

important for teachers' growth because they allow the sharing of knowledge, skills, common meanings and understandings about classroom practice. Opportunities to talk about learning and teaching provide a forum for reflection, insight sharing and inquires that contribute to professional growth of both listeners and presenters.

Teachers' commitment to serve the interest of learners by reflecting on their well-being and on which aspects are more beneficial to them is the underling assumption of this technique. As a practice, it involves review of one's practice in order to improve the quality of one's teaching. The implication of teacher as researcher and as reflective practitioner poses the question of what "what teachers should reflect on?"

Potter and Badiali (Cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003: 102-103) have suggested that three forms of reflection should be encouraged. These include "technical reflection which refers to considering the curriculum and adjusting teaching according to the situation presented at a particular time; practical reflection, where teachers think and deliberate about the means and the purpose of particular actions; and critical reflection where teachers raise issues related to moral and ethical situations faced in the professional act". Finally Glazer et al. (cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003, 103) have stated that reflective practitioners require collection of classroom information, discussion concerning this information, designing action plans, supported by readings to modify the practice.

Action research, as an option for teacher development, is a process of investigation, reflection and action, which deliberately aims to improve or make an impact on the quality of the real situation that forms the focus of the investigation. It is a form of inquiry, which involves self-evaluation, critical awareness and contributes to the existing knowledge of the educational community' (O' Hanlon cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:106). Action research in education is a study conducted by practitioners in school setting to improve instruction. Although an individual teacher can conduct action research, in most cases," it is best done as a cooperative

endeavor by faculty attempting to improve on a common instructional concern” (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004:428).

Action research implies that teachers are the researchers. It contributes to teachers’ professional development because “it is inquiry based, and allows teachers to investigate their own worlds; it is aimed at the improvement of teaching and learning in schools, and it leads to deliberate and planned action to improve conditions for teaching and learning “(O’ Hanlon cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:106).

Since teachers in action research make their own decision from problem identification to application of results, they must be assisted by their leaders. Instructional leaders can provide direct assistance to help teachers with low expertise and commitment to engage in action research. The leader can engage in collaborative action research with teachers of moderate or mixed levels of development, expertise, and commitment (Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, 2004:428). In fact, most initiatives that have promoted action research have used at least one of the following collaborative formats: whole-school projects, small group, action research projects, and individual reflection with small group support (Day cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:108).

However, such collaborative effort, to turn schools into centers of inquiry, does have some practical problems challenging many instructional leaders and their staff. Hancock(cited in Villegas-Reimers, 2003:111-112) has summarized the areas of difficulty that prevent teachers from getting involved in action research projects as:

Lack of expectations that teachers should research and write about their professional practice; the demanding nature of teaching which leaves little time and energy for research; the current lack of professional confidence and the mismatch between many available research methodological and teachers’ professional ways of working in classrooms.

To sum up , given the number of models reported in the literature and the multiple possible combination , those leaders interested in implementing professional development of teachers have a large variety of options and opportunities. It is of

paramount importance, however, to pay attention to the school context in which these models will be implemented as well as other factors that may affect these efforts.

2.4. Supervision of Instruction

Like any other areas of science, the concept of supervision has been changed over years. Conventional supervision with which leaders attempted to control teachers' instructional behaviors has left place for developmental one whereby the leaders and followers will have common vision to realize through mutual support and collegiality.

This change in the concept of supervision is evidenced in the statements by Gordon (cited in Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, 2004: 324) when he has characterized developmental supervision as a collegial rather than a hierarchical relationship between teachers and formally designated supervisors. It is also the province of teachers as well as formally designated supervisor; and a focus on teacher growth rather than teacher compliance .He has also added that this approach requires facilitation of teachers collaborating with each other in instructional improvement areas and their involvement in opening reflective inquiry. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004:8), on their part, have conceptualized supervision as the term that "devotes a common vision of what teaching can and should be, developed collaboratively by formally designated supervisors, teachers and other members of the school community".

In the above definition, one can see the changes not only in the naming but also in the functions of supervision for instructional improvement in schools. In support of this idea, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002:6) have asserted that the "purpose of supervision of instruction is to help increase the opportunity and capacity of schools to contribute more effectively to students' academic success". They have also added that when school instructional capacity (teachers' knowledge of the subject they teach, skill in teaching and classroom management, dispositions that promote high achievement) improves and teachers help one another, improvements in instructional quality follows.

2.4.1. Direct Assistance to Classroom Teachers

Describing developmental supervision as a support and growth opportunity would not offer its fuller understanding of the practical applications in schools. What tasks are there for supervisors to assist teachers improve instruction seems a fundamental question. The tasks of supervision that can bring about improved instruction can be materialized in a variety of ways but in this review, the researcher will focus on direct assistance to classroom teachers through inbuilt, clinical supervision and its other forms, peer coaching and other options are shortly highlighted hereunder.

Instructional leaders can follow different approaches to influence students' learning depending on the culture of the schools. However, Sergiovanni and Starratt(2002:221) have argued that when "supervision is direct, centered in the classroom ,focused on teachers' issues, aimed primarily to helping teachers understand and improve their teaching and collaborative the term clinical supervision is often used" . They have also added that clinical supervision... has potential to accelerate the rates of learning for teachers and to improve teaching and learning significantly. It refers face-to-face contact with the intent of improving instruction and professional growth.

Though general and clinical supervision are interdependent, Goldhammer, Anderson, and krajewski(cited in Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon, 2004: 324)have identified some features of clinical supervision as a concept. They have asserted that:

Clinical supervision is a technology for improving instruction; it is a deliberate intervention into the instructional process; goal-oriented, combining school needs with the personal growth needs of those who work within the school. It assumes a professional working relationship between teacher(s) and supervisor(s); and that the supervisor knows a great deal about the analysis of instruction and learning and about productive human interaction. Furthermore, it requires high degree of mutual trust as reflected in understanding, support, and commitment to growth. It is

systematic, although it requires a flexible and continuously changing methodology.

One powerful approach for instructional leaders to help teachers learn and improve their practice is to engage in clinical supervision. Clinical supervision is a partnership in inquiry where the focus of supervision is on teacher strengths (Sergiovanni, 2001:225). It can take different formats but always involves an in-depth examination and careful study of selected teaching issues, the collection of data that help the teacher understand these issues and the development of improved practice.

Whatever formats are followed; clinical supervision is based on certain assumptions for its effectiveness. These include "supervision is a process for which both supervisors and teachers are responsible, teachers are willing and able to improve; teachers have large reservoirs of talent unused, and the focus of supervision is on teacher strengths" (Sergiovanni 2001:268). As a systematic approach to improving instruction, clinical supervision can be simplified into sequential steps: pre conference, observation, analysis and interpretation, post conference and the critique of the previous steps (Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon, 2004, 324; Sergiovanni, 2001:268). Cogan (cited in Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2002:227) however, has referred to the steps "cycle of clinical supervision" and extended them to eight phases by splitting the steps.

Pre- observation conference is an important step in clinical supervision because it builds the necessary teachers-supervisor relationships based on mutual trust and support (Cogan Cited in Sergiovanni and Staarrt 2002:227). Similarly, Sergeiovanni(2001:269 has argued that this step makes it possible to develop the framework for observation whereby an agreement is reached between the supervisor and the teacher . Further more, Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon(2004:324-325) have noted that during the pre observation conference, the supervisor sits with the teacher and determines " the reason and purpose for observation , the focus of the observation , the method and form of observation to be used , the time of observation , and the time for post conference" .

The effectiveness of observation of teaching depends on how well the supervisory relationship has been established. It is a step that follows and is based on the understanding gained during the preference. "It is the actual and systematic observation of teaching"(Sergiovanni, 2001:270). The observer may use any one of the following observation methods. The observation options include "categorical frequencies, performance indicators, detached open-ended narrative participant observation"(Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, 2004:325). It is important that such observation and data collection activity should focus on what the teacher actually says or does, how students react, and what actually occurs during a specific teaching episode (Sergiovanni, 2001:270). During observation, the clinical supervisor may take many descriptive notes free from inferences. The data should be collected in a descriptive form. However, the observer should pay attention to "attention spans of children, time on task, or cooperative relationships among students", in addition to what the teacher does or says (Segriovanni, 2001: 270).

For effective supervisory support, classroom observation must be followed by analysis and interpreting of observation. The supervisor leaves the classroom with his/her observation seeks solitude in an office and studies the information gathered during observation. Such attention period is required by the clinical supervisor to convert the raw data or information collected from observation into a manageable, meaningful and sensible form (Sergiovanni, 2001:271). The specific tasks could be "counting up frequencies, looking for recurring patterns, isolating a major occurrence, or discovering which performance indicators were present and which were not" (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004:325). The purpose of such analysis is to identify significant teaching patterns and critical incidents to be used in the supervisory conference. This stage is finalized by pinpointing a strategy for working with teachers in the future.

Following this, the supervisor attends the post observation conference with completed observation form, completed analysis, and interpretation form, and with chosen interpersonal approach (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004:326) .The

conference is the platform for teacher and supervisor to exchange information about what was intended in the lesson and what actually happened. The success of such conference is based on the extent to which it is viewed as venue for teacher development and improvement of instruction (Cogan cited in Sergiovanni and Starrtt, 2001: 328). In this approach, the important task is to let the teacher reflect on incidents of the observed classroom to be followed by supervision's reflection. The responsibility for future planning may reside with the supervisor, be equally shared or belong to the teacher (Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, 2004:327).

Post conference analysis planning marks the final stage of the clinical supervision. A common outcome of the first four stages of clinical supervision is agreement on the kinds of change sought in the teacher's classroom behavior (Cogan cited in Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2002:228). This is "a natural springboard for staff development for both teacher and supervisor"(Sergiovanni, 2001:272). The teacher and supervisor begin planning the next lesson and the new target, approaches, and techniques to be attempted. This final stage shows classroom supervision in the form clinical supervision will contribute to improvement of instruction through the improvement of teacher behavior in the classroom.

2.4.2. Peer Coaching

Instructional leaders that have many teachers will find it difficult to support all teachers single-handedly. In addition, clinical supervision is not for every one. That is to say, not all teachers will need such an intensive look of their teaching. For example, Sergiovanni has stated that "the rationale for a differentiated approach to supervision is simple: Teachers are different" (2001:267). What is more, a supervisor cannot provide direct assistance in the form of clinical supervision to all teachers without ignoring other non-supervisory responsibilities.

Peer coaching or collegial supervision is an approach of teachers helping teachers. Since teachers naturally turn to each other for help, more often than to a supervisor, and supervision is concerned primarily with improving instruction,

teachers helping teachers have become a well-received way of assuring direct assistance to every staff member in many school systems (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004:330).

Glatthorn (cited in Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2002:247) has described this approach as a “moderately formalized process by which two or more teachers agree to work together for their own professional growth usually by observing each other’s classroom, giving each other feedback about observation and discussing professional concerns”. To be effective, peer coaching needs components addressing such as purpose, preparation, scheduling, and troubleshooting.

Like any other supervisory practices, peer-coaching program should have clear goals and purposes. The objectives should contribute to the larger school goal of improving instruction. Peer-coaching program without clearly defined purpose and goal will not provide for good preparation. What is more peer-coaching programs lacking clear direction will make well-intentioned teachers to have a vague sense of having done something pleasant .Therefore” the first step is to meet with teachers to discuss how a proposed peer-coaching program would fit into a school’s instructional goals and then to discuss on specific purposes of the program”(Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004:332).

Before implementation of peer-coaching program, sufficient preparations with the teachers have to be made. Such preparation would include training on understanding the purpose and procedures for peer-coaching conducting; a pre conference for determining the focus of the observation; conducting and analyzing an observation to distinguish between observing and interpreting classroom events, and conducting post conferences for developing an action plan (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004:332).

In addition to providing training on practical matters, peer-coaching program requires proper scheduling, as it demands considerable teachers’ time. “Greater participation of teachers is likely if the supervisor can schedule time for peer coaching during the

school day”(Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004:333). The final component of establishing a peer-coaching program is the close monitoring of peer progress and that the supervisor should be available to peer teams as a resource person under such arrangement, the supervisor the needs of peer teams and provide help.

In summary, although clinical supervision and peer coaching are the most popular forms of direct assistance in schools, other options can be used by the instructional leaders in their attempt to improve teaching practice of teachers. These include demonstration teaching, co-teaching, problem solving and assistance with resources.

A demonstration teaching method requires that the supervisor or expert peer assumes the role of a guest teacher demonstrating new teaching model for the classroom teacher and alternatively to teacher seek support will have an opportunity of visiting peer’s classroom. This method also includes pre conference and post conferences to preview the lesson and to discuss on the experience gained respectively. Co-teaching, however, involves that the supervisor or exert peer and teacher together can plan, teach, and evaluate lesson. This establishes trust and rapport and fosters the collegiality, dialogue, and mutual reflection that foster teacher growth (Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon, 2004:335).

2.5. School Culture and Climate

Planned change is difficult to introduce on the old fabric of the culture. In support of this assertion, Sergiovanni and Starrat(2002:311) have stated that improving schools requires change at two levels-structural and normative. Structural change involves altered arrangements whereas normative refers to altered beliefs.

To effect such changes in the social fabrics of schools, McEwan (2003:6) has stated that instructional leaders “must be skilled in the actual construction of a culture that specifically defines what a given school is all about”. The importance of supportive culture building is implied in description of the instructional leadership itself. For

create and manage culture". Sue and Glover(2003:13), on their part echoed this when they have asserted that highly successful leaders are characterized by their ability of ...fostering a culture of trust, developing an openness to learning ,encouraging and stimulating staff learning and communicating organizational vision with clarity". This implies that the concept of organizational culture and its proper nurturing is important as schools are highly people centered and highly dependent on the nature and effectiveness of interpersonal relationships.

Finally, Dimmock(2003:15) has asserted that effective school leaders recognize the multiple and mutually reinforcing strategies available to build them in building supportive learning and collegial cultures . Although there is no hard and fast rule for building supportive school culture, it is usually advised that school leaders give attention to the informal subtle and symbolic aspects of school life. This ranges from explicit verbal communication to modeling and demonstrating such supportive cultural manifestations. This is so because "teachers, parents, and students need answers to questions such as these: why do we function the way we do? How are we unique? How do I fit in the scheme of things"? (Sergiovanni , 2001:112). He has further added that leadership activities associated with cultural aspect of school include "articulating school purposes, and mission, socializing new members to the school... maintaining or reinforcing traditions and beliefs explaining the way things operate around" with the intent of bonding students, teachers, and others together and to bind them to the work of the school (Sergiovanni, 2001: 105).

Studies show that culture building for school improvement involves building and nurturing normative elements such as collegiality, experimentation, high expectation for every school member, trust and confidence, tangible support, appreciation and recognition, honest and open communication based on the school context(Saphier & King cited in Peterson, 2007:107).

2.5.2 School Climate

The other option of conceptualizing schools as working place is to look into its climate. School climate is likened to and based on the school culture. Both concepts are attempts to identify significant properties of organizations including schools. "Climate is a general concept used to capture the basic and enduring quality of organizational life "(Sweetland, & Hoy" 2000: 705). School climate, on the other hand, refers to the enduring quality of the school environment that is experienced by participants-teachers and leaders-that affects their behavior and based on their collective perceptions of their work environment (Hoy & Tarter, 1997; Sweetland, & Hoy, 2000). A useful distinction between school culture and school climate is that culture consists of shared assumptions, values, norms and ideologies whereas climate is defined by shared perceptions of behavior (Ashforth cited in Hoy & Tarter, 1997: 6).

There is a strong research base on the importance of climate to school quality. For instance, Hoy and Tarter (1997: 10) have stated that openness and health are critical aspects school climate for improved learning as they predict an atmosphere of trust, commitment, effectiveness, and student achievement. School climate can be conceptualized within a continuum from open and healthy to closed and unhealthy. It can also be conceived from different vantage points. This study, however, attempts to pay attention to the principal's behavior and teacher's behavior from open to closed.

The best way to understand school climate is to think of it as personality of the school, that is to say personality is to individual as climate is to organization. Such climate is derived from students, teachers and leaders working together. However, the approach used by Halpin and Croft (Cited in Tarter & Hoy, 1997:8) and their standard measurement focuses on principal's behavior and teacher's behavior as the basic dimension of school climate.

The distinctive characteristics of the open climate are cooperation, respect and trust that exist within teaching staff as well as between the teaching staff and principal. In such climate the "principal listens and is receptive to teacher ideas, gives genuine

and frequent praise and respects the competence of faculty. Principals also give the teachers independence to perform without close scrutiny and provide facilitating leadership devoid of bureaucratic trivia" (Hoy & Tarter, 1997: 17). Likewise, teachers work together, support frank and professional behavior, know each other well, cooperate and are committed to teaching and their job (Hoy & Tarter, 1997; Hoy & Miskel, 1996).

As the school climate continuum ranges from open to closed ones, it seems logical to shed some light on the two extremes-open and closed. Determined by the interaction between principals and their teachers, closed climate is just the antithesis of the open. In a closed school climate, trust and team esprit are low whereas disengagement is high. The principal and teachers simply appear to go through the motions, with the principal stressing routine trivia and unnecessary busy work and the teachers responding minimally and exhibiting little satisfaction (Hoy and Miskel, 1996; and Hoy and Tarter, 1997).

Hoy and Tarter (1997:11) have added that the principal's leadership is seen as controlling and rigid as well as unsystematic and unresponsive that result in teacher frustration, apathy and suspicion .That is, the behavior of both principal and teachers in the closed climate is least genuine; in fact in authenticity pervades the atmosphere of the school (Hoy & Miskel, 1996:16). In sum, closed climates have principals who are non-supportive, inflexible, hindering, and controlling and a staff that is divided, apathetic, intolerant, and disingenuous, and uncommitted (Tarter & Hoy, 1997; Hoy & Miskel, 1996).

CHAPTER THREE

Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of Data

This chapter has two sections. The first reports on the characteristics of the respondents focusing on their personal and professional characteristics. The second deals with the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of data on the current practices of instructional leadership in government primary schools of Addis Ababa in five subsections.

3.1 Characteristics of Respondents

The data for the study were gathered from school leaders- principals, vice principals, department heads- , and teachers. A total of 277 copies of questionnaire were distributed to the study sample, of which 86 were distributed to school leaders, 191 to primary schools teachers in Addis Ababa city Administration.

However, for various reasons, not all the questionnaires were returned to the researcher and the total rate of return was 80.14 percent. The rate of return for questionnaires distributed to school leaders and primary school teachers were 72.10 percent and 83.76 percent respectively.

Table 1: Distribution of Respondents by Responsibility and Sex

Responsibility	Sex				Total	
	Male		Female			
	N	%	N	%	N	%
School Leaders	47	21.17	15	6.76	62	27.93
Teachers	78	35.13	82	36.94	160	72.07
Total	125	56.30	97	43.70	222	100

Table 1 illustrates the distribution of respondents by responsibility and sex. As can be seen from the table, 21.17% of school leaders were males whereas female leaders make 6.76% of the incumbents. This is a clear indication that school leadership positions are male dominated. However, the sex matrix of the teaching force indicates

a different story as the majority (36.94) percent of teachers was female and the male teachers make up 35.13 percent of the sampled teachers.

Table 2: Distribution of Respondents by Age, Work Experience and Educational Level

N O	Variables		Respondents			
			School Leaders		Teachers	
			No	%	No	%
1	Age	<20 yrs	2	3.18	5	3.18
		20-29	10	15.87	59	37.59
		30-39	10	15.87	21	13.37
		40-49	18	28.58	37	23.57
		50 and above	23	36.50	35	22.29
		Total	63	100.00	157	100
2	Service in years	< 5 years	8	12.70	46	29.12
		5-9	4	6.35	22	13.92
		10-14	3	4.76	11	6.96
		15-19	9	14.29	9	5.70
		20 and above	39	61.90	70	44.30
		Total	63	100	158	100
3	Educational level	12 +TTI	13	20.97	69	43.40
		12+2	34	54.84	67	42.14
		BA/ BSC	3	4.84	0	0.00
		Others	12	19.35	23	14.46
		Total	62	100	159	100

Table 2, summarizes the distribution of respondents by age , work experience and education level .As can be seen from the table, the majority (54.83 percent) of school leaders were college diploma holders whereas the proportion of teachers holding certificate in teaching and college diploma seems proportional. This was so because primary schools contain two cycles -1st and 2nd where both certificate and diploma holders should be employed for their respective levels.

As indicated in Table 2, the age distribution of respondents reveals that the majority of educational leaders (36.5 percent) fall within age category of 50 and above. It is also important to note that a good proportion (28.58 percent) of them fall within the age range of 40-49. In sum, 65.08 percent of school leaders were within the age range of 40 and above. Out of the 157 teacher respondents, 64(, 40. 77 percent) were less than 30 years of age, 58 (36.94 percent) were between 30-49 and 35 (22. 29 percent) were 50 and above years of age.

With regard to the service years, the majority of educational leaders 39(61.90 percent) have served for 20 and above years, and the remaining 9(14.29 percent) and 8 (12.70 percent) have served between 15-19 years and less than 5 years respectively. However, few school leaders, 4 (6.35 percent) and 3(4.70 percent) have served between 5- 9 years and 10-14 years respectively.

Table 2 indicates the service of years of teachers too. The majority of teachers 70(44.30 percent) have served for 20 and above years. It is also important to notice that 46 (29.12 percent) of teachers have served for less then 5 years whereas a good number of them 22(13.92 percent) and 11(6.96 percent) have served between 5-9 years and 10-14 years respectively. However, only 9 (5.7 percent) of the teachers have reported to be within the service years ranging from 15-19 years. From the data, it is possible to observe that majority of the school leader were well experienced as compared to teachers in these schools.

3.2 Presentation, Analysis and Interpretation of Data on the Current Practices of Instructional Leadership in Primary schools.

This part of the chapter focuses on the presentations, analyses and interpretations of data obtained through questionnaire. The analysis focuses on responses obtained on the practices of school -based supervisory support, issues related to school vision setting and communication ,school- based professional development opportunities for teachers, school climate and culture as indicators of school work environment as perceived by teachers and school leaders. Finally, in -school factors that hindered the

effectiveness of instructional leadership in primary schools of Addis Ababa City Administration will be treated.

3.2.1 Analysis of School- Based Supervisory Practices

School leaders as instructional leaders should play a great role in strengthening professional support to teachers in their schools. Supervision in its developmental perspective is growth -oriented, need- based and joint venture whereby the supervisor and teacher take a joint action for change. An assessment of supervisory practices to improve the quality of teachers' teaching was assessed along four dimensions. These included supervisory support in the form of direct personal support, direct group support, individual assistance, and school wide assistance.

Different indicators of the supervisory practices were identified and presented to the respondents to be rated on a five point Likert Scale: Very high=5, High =4, moderate =3, low =2 and very low =1. For purpose of analysis, the mean values were interpreted as >3.50 strong support, 2.50-3.50 moderate support and < 2.50 low level of support. Four areas of support with their sample of behaviors were assessed. A one -way ANOVA was used to check for the existence of statistically significant difference in the mean values of the respondents by position –leaders and followers.

3.2.1.1 Assessment of Direct Personal Supervisory Support

To assess the instructional leaders' performance in the dimension of providing direct personal support to teachers, seven major indicators of such behaviors were identified in the study .Accordingly, the responses by school leaders and school teachers are presented below and are followed by analysis of the information.

As can be seen from the Table 3 , instructional leaders' behavior in supporting teachers personally on planning, observing classes and providing opportunity for teachers to observe the teaching of their colleagues were rated strong with mean values of 3.52,3.95 and 3.71 respectively by both teachers and leaders. Similarly, the concern leaders show for teachers and the stimulation they provide to teachers on personal basis to be mindful of their teaching skills were rated strong with mean values of 3.79 and 3.47 respectively.

Table 3: Ratings on Supervisor's Strength of Direct Personal support

N o.	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W.M	F Ratio	Sig.	Ra nk
		SL* (N=6 2)	St. Dev	T** (N=1 62)	Std. Dev				
1	identifying and obtaining resource for instruction	3.37	1.18	3.35	1.13	3.35	.011	.915	6
2	Demonstration of teaching techniques in class room	3.23	1.01	3.13	1.29	3.16	.292	.589	7
3	conference to schedule and plan observation	3.69	1.20	3.45	1.25	3.52	1.606	.206	4
4	observation of classes for assistance	4.12	.88	3.89	1.02	3.95	2.400	.123	1
5	Providing opportunity to observe and discuss classes taught by other teachers	3.85	1.09	3.65	1.20	3.71	1.218	.271	3
6	genuine concern for teachers	4.08	1.08	3.68	1.27	3.79	4.775*	.030	2
7	stimulation to think consciously about teaching skill	3.93	.89	3.29	1.29	3.47	12.37*	.001	5
Average Mean		3.75		3.49					

NB: * SL=School Leaders, **T=Teachers for all tables to follow.

W.M= Weighted Mean

Level of Support :(< 2.50= 'Weak Support'; 2.50-3.50=Moderate Support ; > 3.50= Strong Support).

However, the practices of providing teachers with instructional resources and demonstration of teaching techniques for teachers in need of support were rated moderate as indicated in mean values of 3.35 and 3.16 respectively. This clearly indicates that school leaders do not set good models by demonstrating effective teaching techniques to teachers that demand this. In line with this, Southworth(2004:104) has argued that leading by example is one of the tactics for school leaders to influence classroom practices. By so doing, he has argued, leaders can gain their credibility to assist teachers and can redirect teachers' attention to what counts most in the school.

A one-way ANOVA test was used to check if there is a statistically significant difference between the perception of teachers and school leaders on the assessment of direct personal support in their schools. Although there seems to be agreement on the first five items, there is a statistically significant difference in their judgments as shown in items 6 and 7. The obtained F values of 4.775 and 12.37 are far greater than the tabulated F value (F critical = 3.84) respectively. This shows that school leaders reported that they have provided strong support whereas teachers have rated the support as to be a bit above moderate.

3.2.1.2 Assessment of Direct Group Supervisory Support

Direct group support is another possibility for instructional leaders to provide supervisory support to teachers. To assess the extent to which teachers get supervisory support as a group, some items considered indicators of such behavior were identified to collect data on the practice. Respondents were asked to rate the strength of such supervisory support using a five-point Likert Type Scale: Very high =5, High =4, Moderate= 3, Low =2 and Very Low =1. For ease of analysis, the mean values were interpreted as : > 3.5 =Strong Support, 2.5-3.5=Moderate Support, and < 2.5 Weak Support. Accordingly, ratings of both teachers and school leaders are presented in Table 4 –below.

As can be seen from the table, the overall assessment of the practice of direct group supervisory support, as one option for providing school-based supervisory support, was rated strong and moderate by school leaders and teachers with the mean ratings of 3.56 and 3.41 respectively. Specifically, however, school leaders have witnessed that they provide strong group support in clarifying classroom rules and procedures for students as indicated by a mean rating of 4.10. This, however, indicates that school leaders paid more attention to administrative activities than academic ones. This was so because setting rules and regulations and helping their enforcement is an activity within the domain of managerial leadership.

Table 4: Ratings on Direct Group Supervisory Support

No.	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values					F	Sig	Rank
		SL (N=62)	Std. Dev	T (N=160)	Std. Dev	W.M			
1	planning appropriate learning objective	3.97	1.06	3.72	1.21	3.79	2.005	.158	2
2	designing appropriate instructional activities	3.37	.99	3.16	1.17	3.22	1.408	.237	9
3	Developing strategies for student team or group learning	3.41	.97	3.13	1.19	3.21	2.627	.107	10
4	Developing learning activities for students who finish early	3.12	.92	3.06	1.14	3.07	.126	.723	13
5	Organizing and arranging space and materials for instruction	3.44	1.16	3.42	1.20	3.43	.010	.919	8
6	Developing remedial and enrichment activities	3.28	.96	3.07	1.12	3.13	1.709	.193	11
7	Developing activities for daily review and diagnosis	3.22	1.03	3.06	1.17	3.10	.857	.356	12
8	Increasing and maintaining student academic engagement time	3.51	1.12	3.49	1.27	3.50	.006	.937	7
9	Managing student behavior	3.66	1.14	3.68	1.24	3.67	.020	.888	4
10	Clarifying classroom rules and procedure for students	4.10	1.03	3.74	1.24	3.84	4.078*	.045	1
11	Using questioning techniques with students	3.72	1.06	3.67	1.14	3.68	.086	.769	3
12	Evaluating student progress	3.70	1.04	3.61	1.02	3.64	.367	.545	6
13	Providing students with corrective feed back and practice	3.85	1.06	3.59	1.22	3.66	2.173	.142	5
Average Mean		3.56		3.41					

NB:*Strength of Support: >3.5 =Strong Support, 2.5-3.5=Moderate Support, and < 2.5 Weak Support.

Contrary to this, the data indicated that they provide less than satisfactory support in area of helping teachers to develop learning activities for students who finish early as

indicated by mean rating of 3.07. However, the purpose of supervisory support is to assist teachers adjust their teaching to the learning needs of students. Students do have different backgrounds and potentials. Improved instruction means the improvement of all students academically. It follows that the supervisory support must be designed in such a way that it will enable teachers satisfy the learning needs of all learners.

Teachers' perception of the support they get from school leaders is generally reported to be moderate as indicated in the average mean of teachers' rating (3.40). Specifically, they have indicated that they get relatively better supervisory support in functions like clarification of classroom rules and procedures, planning appropriate learning objectives, as indicated by mean values 3.74 and 3.72 respectively. However, the teachers reported that they do not get strong support in the areas of developing activities for remedial and enrichment, daily reviews, and for students who finish early as indicated by mean values of 3.07, 3.06, and 3.06 respectively. This is a clear indication that school leaders' support to teachers primarily focuses more on managerial functions than academic activities that could contribute to the students' learning achievement. Shortly put, the supervisory support was less tuned to classroom learning as indicated in items 6, 4, 3 and 4 of Table 4.

With the exception of item 10, there is no statistically significant difference in views of teachers and school leaders on the strength of school-based supervisory practices related to group support of teachers. A one-way ANOVA was used to check if there is a statistically significant difference between school leaders and schoolteachers. Accordingly, the obtained value of $F(1,220) = 4.028 > 3.84$ for item 10 only. The deviation is stemmed from school leaders' exaggerated judgment of the extent to which they supported teachers on classroom rules and procedures. The data obtained reveal that supervisory support in the form of group support is less than perfect.

3.1.1.3. Assessment of Individual Assistance

The other mode of school –based supervisory support assessed was the leaders' role in providing individualized assistance. Some 10 items have been identified as sample indicators and data were obtained from school leaders and teachers. Respondents were asked to rate the strength of school-based supervisory support in addressing individual teacher's development needs from very low (1) to very high (5). For the purpose of analysis, the mean values were interpreted >3.5 =Strong Support, 2.5-3.5=Moderate Support, and < 2.5 Weak Support. Accordingly, the summary of both teachers and school leaders' responses are presented in Table 5 below.

As indicated in Table 5, the overall practice related to providing individualized assistance to teachers was rated strong and moderate by school leaders and teachers as indicated by average means of 3.58 and 3.35 respectively. In item 4 of Table 5, It is also important to note that teachers received relatively weaker support in the area of modeling good teaching by their supervisors as indicated by their means value of 3.05. This was also confirmed by school leaders with mean rating of 3.12. This indicates that school leaders lack the knowledge and practice of good teaching. School leaders must have good teaching skills to let teachers follow that effective teaching practice. In support of this idea, McEwan(2003:6) has argued that instructional leaders have passion for great teaching .

Similarly, in item 5 respondents were asked to rate the performance of school leaders on sharing innovative teaching strategies. The data, however, showed relatively less than satisfactory performance as indicated by to weighted mean value of 3.18. This finding coincides with what was found in item of Table 4 whereby school leaders failed to demonstrate effective teaching in supporting teachers personally. Two important points stand out as reality. Firstly, school leaders are not bale to show model behaviors concerning good teaching practice. Secondly, they might lack the necessary knowledge of effective teaching strategies and skill of leading by modeling good behaviors. Hence, these indicate that they lack technical skill as well as knowledge of what should done technical levels of school leadership.

Table 5: Ratings on Supervisors Rendering Individual Assistance

No	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W.M	F	Sig	Ra nk
		SL (N=6 2)	Std	T (N=1 60)	Std. Dev				
1	observes teaching and provides helpful feedback	3.95	1.12	3.74	1.14	3.80	1.524	.218	1
2	provides useful instructional resource	3.51	.93	3.28	1.10	3.35	2.058	.153	6
3	fosters teacher reflection	3.68	.82	3.55	1.13	3.59	.742	.390	2
4	demonstrates effective teaching	3.31	1.06	3.05	1.21	3.12	2.122	.147	10
5	shares innovative instructional strategies	3.38	1.07	3.10	1.22	3.18	2.528	.113	9
6	assists beginning teachers	3.61	1.25	3.25	1.30	3.35	3.503	.063	6
7	assists teachers with instructional problem they are experiencing	3.48	1.16	3.09	1.21	3.20	4.857	.029*	8
8	assists teachers to plan for instruction	3.81	1.16	3.50	1.19	3.59	3.163	.077	2
9	assists teachers to assess student learning	3.61	1.10	3.53	1.12	3.55	.228	.633	4
10	assists teachers to individualize instruction	3.47	1.07	3.42	1.17	3.43	.086	.770	5
Average Mean		3.58		3.35					

Strength of Support: >3.5 =Strong Support, 2.5-3.5=Moderate Support, and < 2.5 Weak Support.

Further more, a one -way ANOVA was employed to test for statistically significant difference between the perception of school leaders and schoolteachers. Accordingly, only item 7 is rated differently as the obtained F value (1,220= 4.857) is greater than the F Critical (3.84) at $\alpha =0.05$ level of significance. It is clear that school leaders primarily focused on observing classroom teaching as indicated by weighted mean of 3.80 and less attentive to molding effective teaching, sharing innovative instructional strategies to individual teachers.

3.2.1.4 Assessment of School wide Assistance

The final part of this subsection reports on the assessment of school- based supervisory practices on school wide assistance. To this effect, seven points have been identified as indicators of school wide assistance possibilities and responses were obtained from school leader as well as teachers and presented as follows. Respondents were asked to rate the strength of supervisory supports in the form of school wide assistance from very low (1) to very high (5). For the ease of analysis, the mean values were interpreted as > 3.50 =Strong Support, $2.50-3.50$ =Moderate Support, and < 2.50 =Weak Support.

Table 6 illustrates that the practice of providing school wide assistance for teachers is moderate as indicated by the mean ratings of school leaders and teachers (3.70) and (3.46) respectively. In Item 6 of the table respondents were asked to rate the extent which teachers have been empowered as professionals. Accordingly, it was reported that school leaders have performed less than satisfactory as confirmed by mean value of 3.32. Teacher empowerment is very important for improved instruction. Empowering teachers, however, does not mean letting them do whatever pleases them. Rather, it is giving them professional autonomy, of course with accountability, to initiate and practice innovative practices to bring about change in classroom practices. The absence of such empowerment affects their creativity for improved instruction.

Similarly, in item 5 of the table, respondents were asked to the strength of school wide supervisory support in encouraging teachers to individualize their teaching. However, the data showed moderate performance as indicated in the mean rating of 3.36. This finding coincides with the issue of teacher empowerment in same table. The causal relationship is in schools where teachers do not enjoy better professional, it would be difficult for them to encourage individualizing their instruction. Shortly out, this clearly indicates that there was no strong teacher of empowerment and positive culture, which supports this. This resulted in the absence of teachers' effort to individualize instruction to the needs to of the learners.

Table 6: Ratings on Supervisors Rendering School wide Assistance

No	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W. M	F Ratio	Sig	R a n k
		SL (N=6 2)	Std. Dev	T (N=1 60)	Std. Dev				
1	Facilitating instructional dialogue among teachers	3.90	.95	3.51	1.12	3.62	5.677*	.018*	2
2	Fostering a positive school culture	3.56	.92	3.35	1.13	3.41	1.777	.184	5
3	Facilitating collective vision building	3.70	1.01	3.46	1.16	3.53	2.070	.152	4
4	Facilitating teacher collaboration for school wide instructional improvement	3.71	.98	3.58	1.14	3.61	.664	.416	3
5	Assisting teachers to individualize instruction	3.40	.93	3.35	.99	3.36	.151	.698	6
6	Fostering teacher empowerment.	3.62	1.25	3.20	1.30	3.32	4.690*	.031	7
7	Facilitating teachers' professional development	4.00	.88	3.77	1.22	3.84	1.842	.176	1
Average Mean		3.70		3.46					

NB: Strength of Support: >3.5 =Strong Support, 2.5-3.5=Moderate Support, and < 2.5 Weak Support.

However, the table shows that school leaders, provide school wide assistance in the form enhancing professional development of teachers and instructional dialogue among teachers to some extent as indicated by weighted means of 3.84 and 3.62 respectively. A One-way ANOVA was employed to see whether there was statistically significant difference between the views of school leaders and teachers on the strength of school wide assistance practice. Accordingly, the obtained F values (1,220=5.677; 4.690) for items 1 and 6 are greater than the Tabled value (3.84). The difference is in favor of school leaders assessing their own activity over the judgment of teachers.

3.2.2 Analysis of School Vision Setting and Communication Practices

Vision is an integral part of the essence of educational leadership in general and effective instructional leadership in particular. The concept of leadership stands out as

the process of creating vision and influencing followers towards that future and better situation. The practice of creating school vision and leading the school community towards that vision has been assessed in two sections: the first explores on the practice of vision setting whereas the second deals with the issue of communication of school vision to the prime implementers.

3.2.2.1 Assessment of the practice of school vision setting

This part of the analysis deals with the assessment of the practices related to the ways in which school vision setting was approached, and what priorities have been reflected in it. To this effect, some seven items have been identified and responses were obtained and summarized as follows. Table 7 presents respondents' view on the practice of school vision formulation. They were requested to rate the extent to which the sampled indicators reflect the realities in their schools from very low (1) to very high (5). For the ease of analysis, mean values were interpreted as :> 3.5= Strong Performance, 2.5-3.5=Moderate Performance, <2.5 Weak Performance.

As can be seen from the table, the overall practice of school vision formulation was rated more than moderate performance by school leaders and teachers as indicated by their average ratings of 3.84 and 3.55 respectively. From the weighted means of the two groups, one can see that the school vision centers on students' learning and communicates high standard of learning as indicated by weighted means of 3.94 and 3.92 although there is slight differences in views of the two groups on the first item of table.

However, it is important note that item 4 of the table which reports on the extent which potential barriers have been addressed during school vision setting. The data indicate there was moderate performance the situation analysis as indicated in the mean rating of 3.07. This clearly indicates that there was considerable weakness in identifying, clarifying and addressing the potential dangers to school vision effectiveness. Hence, it seems reasonable to assume school vision implementation would be difficult because of this weak preparation practices.

Table 7: Ratings on Practice of School Vision Setting

N o	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W.M	F Ratio	Sig	Ra nk
		SL	Std. Dev	T	Std. Dev				
1	the school vision communicates high standard of learning	4.21	.832	3.81	1.167	3.92	5.996	.015	2
2	the vision reflects the vision of school members	4.06	.765	3.68	1.106	3.79	6.181	.014	3
3	assessment data related to student learning are used to develop the school vision	3.62	1.003	3.28	1.115	3.38	4.328	.039	9
4	Barriers to achieve the vision are identified, and addressed	3.25	.932	3.01	1.041	3.07	2.515	.114	11
5	existing resources are used in support of the school vision	3.50	1.097	3.26	1.152	3.33	1.903	.169	10
6	work with teacher and other stakeholders to identify needs	3.79	.897	3.53	1.095	3.60	2.688	.103	7
7	facilitates the development a shared vision	3.90	.882	3.71	1.178	3.77	1.333	.249	6
8	the vision is developed with and among stakeholders	3.72	.933	3.56	1.067	3.60	1.103	.295	7
9	facilitates the implementation of a shared vision	4.03	.894	3.69	1.143	3.79	4.411	.037*	3
10	The vision places student learning at its center	4.16	.891	3.85	1.143	3.94	3.738	.054	1
11	The vision places teacher learning at its center	4.02	.983	3.70	1.132	3.79	3.741	.054	3
Average Mean		3.84		3.55					

NB:*Levels performance: ≥ 3.5 = Strong performance, 2.5-3.5=Moderate performance, <2.5 Weak performance.

Furthermore, item 5 of the table that was ranked tenth reports on the extent to which available resources haven used in support of the school vision implementation. Accordingly, respondents indicated there was less than satisfactory performance as indicated in the mean rating of 3.33. In a similar line of argument, it would be difficult to realize the school vision when even the available resources were not channeled to support its implementation. From resources point view, implementing school vision requires even additional resources found and used in support of it. There also seems agreement between the groups on these issues as confirmed by one- way ANOVA test.

With regard to contents of the school vision, it is found that the learning of teachers as well as students was rated high by school leaders as indicated in the mean values of 4.02 and 4.16 respectively. The teachers too shared this claim, as there is no statistically significant difference between them as indicated by one-way ANOVA.

Similarly, school leaders witnessed that the school vision communicates high standard of learning, the vision of school members, and the process facilitated the implementation of shared visions, as indicated with the mean values of 4.21, 4.06 and 4.03 to a higher extent respectively. However, this was not shared by teachers as confirmed by test of variance. A One-way ANOVA revealed that the obtained F values (1,220) = 5.996; 6.181 and 4.411 are far greater than the tabled F value of (3.84).

3.2.2.2. An Assessment of the Practice of School Vision Communication

It is not sufficient for school leaders to have a well designed and promising school vision unless it is understood and shared by the stakeholders. To this effect, 8 items considered sample indicators of the extent to which school leaders as instructional leaders were able to communicate their schools' vision have identified for this study. Respondents were asked to rate to what extent their school provides for communication of School vision from very low (1) to very high (5) based on their judgments. Accordingly, the data obtained from school leaders, who are supposed to play a great role in communicating the school vision and school teachers whose should share the vision of their respective school are presented in Table 8. For the ease of analysis, mean values were interpreted as > 3.5 = Strong performance, $2.5-3.5$ = Moderate performance, < 2.5 = Weak performance.

Table 8: Ratings on Practice of School vision communication

No	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W.M	F Ratio	Sig	Rank
		SL (N=62)	Std. Dev	T (N=160)	Std. Dev				
1	the vision of the school is communicated to stakeholders	3.73	1.006	3.63	1.106	3.66	.408	.524	3
2	needed resource are sought and obtained to support the implementation of the vision	3.25	1.114	3.33	1.076	3.31	.242	.623	7
3	two way communication channel between the principal and staff regarding the vision of the school	3.77	.902	3.52	1.113	3.59	2.551	.112	4
4	Activities that communicate the value and meaning of learning to students exit.	3.72	.865	3.43	1.053	3.51	3.446	.065	6
5	Principal articulates and reinforce the visions in written and spoken communication	4.07	1.047	3.80	1.131	3.88	2.454	.119	1
6	developing a community of learners centered on student learning	3.73	.962	3.44	1.041	3.52	3.538	.061	5
7	The school principal articulates the school vision and priorities to the community	3.98	1.057	3.72	1.088	3.79	2.596	.109	2
	Average Mean	3.78		3.58					

NB: Levels performance: ≥ 3.5 = Strong Performance, 2.5-3.5=Moderate Performance, <2.5 Weak Performance

As can be seen from the table, school vision communication practical are less than satisfactory as indicated in the average means of school leaders and teachers (3.78 and 3.58) respectively. What is more, there seems agreement between the judgments of school leaders and schoolteachers on the extent to which school leaders support communication of school vision. Both leaders and teachers reported that the practice of finding and availing resource in support of the implementation of the school vision was rated less than satisfactory as indicated by mean value of 3.31 relative terms. This finding goes with the data in Table 7 whereby the available resources were not sufficiently utilized for the implementation school vision. The implication in both cases will be school leaders were not able to communicate school vision to the principal stakeholders. As result of which it was difficult to obtain resource support from potential supports of school vision.

Similarly, in item 6 of Table 8, respondents were asked to rate the extent to activities that communicate the value and meaning of learning to students exist. Accordingly, it was reported that activities that communicate the value learning were performed insufficiently as indicated the weighted mean ratings of both school leaders and teachers (3.51). This clearly indicates that students were not sufficiently communicated with the value schooling. As a result, they may not be ready to put in more to the realization of school vision. Generally speaking, an over all assessment of the practice of school vision communication is rated as moderate by both groups with no statistically significant difference in their judgments. All the obtained F values are less the F critical (3.84).

3.2.3 Analysis of the Statues of School –Based Professional Development of Teachers

3.2.3.1 Assessment of the Practice of Planning and Implementing School-Based Professional Development for Teachers

Improving student learning requires the creation of school vision that centers on enhancement of students' learning achievement .Furthermore, being visionary requires instructional leaders moving from the unknown, and unfamiliar situation to some more demanding and unknown school situation. Aspiring for such fundamental changes in the way schools operate requires developing teachers' capacity to realize the vision. Providing schools -based for professional development opportunities for teachers remains the main task area of the instructional leaders.

School heads' roles in this regard have been assessed and results are reported in three parts. The fist part deals with the assessment of the design of school- based Professional development of teaches relating to the methodology of planning and implementing the learning experience whereas the second part reports on the extent of teacher involvement in the planning and implementation of such programs. Finally, third part of this subsection focuses on the assessment of content of such learning opportunities. Table 9 depicts the assessment of the practice in relation to some eight

items. Respondents were asked to rate the design employed in planning and implementing the learning experience from very low (1) to very high (5) on a five-point Likert Scale. For the purposes of analysis, mean values were interpreted as > 4.00 = Strong performance, $3.00-4.00$ =Moderate performance, <3.00 Weak performance.

Table 9: Ratings on the Design of Learning Experience of for School -Based Professional Development

No	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W.M	F Ratio	Sig	Rank
		SL (N=62)	Std Dev.	T (N=160)	Std. Dev				
1	The learning experience is sufficient in terms of duration	3.31	1.04	3.11	1.09	3.17	1.558	.213	8
2	The learning experience is based in classroom in actual school	3.61	.90	3.46	.97	3.50	1.055	.306	5
3	The learning experience requires reflection on one's practice over an extended period of time	3.84	1.12	3.75	1.07	3.78	.295	.588	1
4	The learning experience is designed as mentoring relationship	3.55	1.10	3.34	1.00	3.40	1.795	.182	7
5	The learning experience is designed as action research	3.43	1.12	3.51	1.10	3.49	.270	.604	6
6	The learning experience is designed as peer inquiry	3.52	1.04	3.51	1.04	3.51	.004	.951	4
7	The learning experience is designed as observation of excellent practices	3.77	.97	3.64	1.10	3.68	.694	.406	2
8	The learning experience is designed as reflective model	3.82	1.00	3.62	1.04	3.68	1.651	.200	2
Average Mean		3.61		3.49					

Levels performance: > 4.00 = Strong performance, $3.00-4.00$ =Moderate performance, <3.00 Weak performance

As can be seen from the data in Table 9, school leaders showed average performance in designing learning for teachers at their respective schools. This was indicated by the average mean ratings both school leaders and teachers without statistically significant difference their judgments. Item 1 of the table reports on the sufficiency of time devoted to professional development practices. Accordingly, respondents witnessed

that there was no sufficient time allotment in designing and implementing professional development for teachers as indicated by the mean rating of 3.17 indicating weak performance in this regard. This is a clear indication that learning experiences meant for professional development of teachers were sporadic and lacked continuity. This would not result in improved teacher practices. In support of this, Wood (1997,72) has argued that significant changes in educational practices take considerable time and are the result of staff development that is planned and conducted during several years.

Item 4 on the other hand reports on the extent to which learning experiences were designed as mentoring relationships among educators at school level. The rating however, shows that school leaders have shown moderate performance as indicated in the mean value (3.40). Professional development is a continuous process. As school leaders are always busy with other school leadership affairs, designing the learning experience as mentoring relationships will maximize efficiency of school leadership. Based on strong and open culture, senior staff may used to coach junior ones based on their developmental needs. This will lead to team sprit that is essential in the teaching profession. However, in the sampled schools this was not practiced as indicated in ratings. Lack of delegation of activities, including those contributing to the professional practice was evidenced in these schools.

Relatively speaking, good practices, however, have been observed in matters pertaining to designing the learning experience that involved reflective thinking, action research, and observation of excellent practices as indicated in the mean values of 3.78, 3.68 and 3.68 respectively. These approaches must be further developed by school leaders as they can build team sprit among the staff and relive school leaders from the burden of working on teachers' professional development. A one-way ANOVA was employed to test the variables for the two groups if there was a significant difference. The test however, showed no statistically significant difference between their judgments.

Table 10: Ratings on the Extent of Teacher Involvement in School- Based Professional Development Programs

No	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W.M	F Ratio	Sig	Rank
		SL (N=62)	Std Dev.	T (N=160)	Std. Dev				
1	Teachers choose goals and activities for themselves	3.62	.99	3.59	1.09	3.60	.034	.855	4
2	Ongoing assistance and support available on request	3.23	1.24	3.25	1.19	3.24	.004	.949	5
3	The involvement in development programs are voluntary	3.90	1.02	3.77	1.19	3.81	.594	.442	2
4	Teachers have the opportunity to plan and work together	3.84	1.03	3.72	1.13	3.75	.533	.466	3
5	Teachers have the opportunities to be actively involved in the analysis of teaching and learning	3.92	1.07	3.79	1.12	3.83	.634	.427	1
Average Mean		3.70		3.62					

Levels performance: ≥ 4.00 = Strong performance, $3.00-4.00$ =Moderate performance, <3.00 Weak performance.

Table 10 depicts the data on the status of teacher involvement in the planning and implementation school- based professional development for teachers. Five items were identified as sample indicators of the participation of teachers. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which teachers have been involved from very low (1) to very high (5). For the purposes of analysis, mean values were interpreted as ≥ 4.00 =Strong Performance, $3.00-4.00$ = Moderate Performance, <3.00 = Weak Performance.

As can be seen from Table 10, the overall performance of school leaders with regard to involving teachers in the planning and implementation of school –based professional development is less than satisfactory as indicated by the average mean ratings of both school leaders and teachers (3.70 and 3.62 respectively). As indicated

in item 2 on Table 10, the respondents were asked to express their views on the strength of ongoing assistance and support when needs arise. Accordingly, they witnessed that there had been only moderate performance as indicated by the mean rating of 3.24. The presence of strong ongoing support to teachers when deemed necessary is vital activity. Such follow-ups help teachers transfer their training to materializing students' learning needs. From school management's point of view, teachers' professional development is not an end in itself but a means to other ends—improving teachers' teaching practices and ultimately the realization of school vision. Hence, school leaders' effort in developing teachers would be of no value unless one makes sure that the learning has contributed to classroom practices. This fact has been supported by Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004:373) when they have argued that effective professional development is characterized by follow up and support for transfer of learning to classroom.

Similarly, in item 1 of Table 10 respondents were asked to rate the extent of teachers' participation in choosing learning goals and activities that would help the realization of such objectives. The data, however, showed that there had been only moderate participation of teachers in choosing learning activities as indicated by a mean value of 3.60. It is argued that participation enables teachers to see the connection between learning experience and classroom practices, and school wide efforts when the goal of professional development is improving instruction. Furthermore, learning is an active process whereby the motivation of learners occupies an important place. Then, it follows that if teachers are to learn with zeal and enthusiasm, they must be involved in selection of why they learn and how they learn. In support of this argument, Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004:373) have argued that effective professional development is characterized by involvement of participants in planning, implementing and evaluating programs.

Item 5 of Table 10 has been ranked first with the mean value of 3.83. This ranking is relative, however. It does not show good performance as its mean value is within the

moderate range. This might be because teachers had the opportunity to visit the teachings of their colleagues and might had the opportunity to discuss on matters they experienced. In sum, teachers' participation in the planning and implementation of school –based professional development is less than average. This might be due to school principals' inability to make development opportunities need- based and teacher -centered.

A one-way ANOVA was used test if there are differences in ratings of the two groups with regards items indicating the practice of involving teachers in planning and implementing school based professional development programs. However, all the obtained F values (1,220) are far less than F Critical (3.84). This shows that there is no statistically significant difference between the judgments of school leaders and schoolteachers on the strength of practice of involving teachers in school-based professional development. In fact, the corresponding F values of these items show that teachers also share these judgments of school leaders.

3.2.3.2 An Assessment the contents of School –Based Professional Development of Teachers

To be effective, professional development programs must be tailored to the developmental needs of teachers as well as to the school wide goals of improving the quality of student learning. This implies that the substantive aspects of professional development for teachers should vary in accordance with the varying teachers' learning experiences and development needs. To assess the substantive aspects of school-based professional development of the primary schools in the metropolitan, seven items have been identified as sample indicators, and the obtained data are presented in Table 11 below. Respondents were asked to rate the extent to which the contents of learning experience in their schools reflect diversified themes from very low (1) to very high (5). For the purposes of analysis, mean values were interpreted as :> 4.00= Strong Performance, 3.00-4.00=Moderate Performance, <3.00 Weak Performance.

As can be seen from the table, the overall assessment of content focus of school-based teachers professional programs, as judged by school leaders and teachers is rated moderate as indicated in the average mean values of 3.57 and 3.64 respectively. Specifically, respondents have indicated that the contents of professional development programs were less focused on addressing individual teacher's development needs as indicated in the weighted mean rating of 2.96. This indicates that either school leaders do not make thorough need analysis for designing the contents of the programs or they have assumed that all teachers have the same developmental needs. It seems logical to assume that school leaders have committed the fallacy of denying individual differences as indicated by the data in Table 15 on school culture. The data in Table 15 showed that the school community did not value individual differences among teachers. Effective professional development programs however, are characterized by their ability to address individual development needs. In the same line of argument, Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004:372) have argued that different training experiences should be designed for different teachers.

Table 11: Ratings on the Contents of Professional Development

No	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W.M	F Ratio	Sig	Rank
		SL (N=62)	Std Dev.	T (N=16)	Std. Dev				
1	growth –rather than deficit oriented	3.68	.87	3.53	1.12	3.57	.878	.350	6
2	tailored to department needs	3.75	.94	3.56	1.01	3.61	1.511	.220	5
3	Focus on teacher's sense of purpose	3.85	.92	3.77	1.11	3.79	.261	.610	4
4	Focus on teacher's perception of students	4.12	.76	3.86	1.05	3.93	3.003	.085	2
5	Focus on teacher's knowledge of subject matter	3.98	.94	3.83	1.09	3.87	.929	.336	3
6	Focus on teacher's mastery of teaching techniques	4.05	.81	3.95	1.01	3.98	.484	.487	1
7	tailored to individual needs	2.84	.91	3.00	1.12	2.96	.895	.345	7
Average Mean		3.75		3.64					

NB: Levels performance: > 4.00= Strong performance, 3.00-4.00=Moderate performance, <3.00 Weak performance

Similarly, the data showed that the contents of school based development programs were more deficit -oriented than growth- oriented as indicated by the mean rating of 3.57. This gives the impression that only people with some deficiency need professional development and it develops bad feeling in schools when only few are to be involved in such programs. In reality, however, in ever changing circumstances in both methodology of teaching and subject matter content, everybody needs development opportunities though the needs vary. The data clearly indicated that the concept of professional development was not well understood. Further more, the learning experience for teachers did not consider the department needs (3.61) .This is a clear indication that the contents of professional development programs were less need based. This implies that the school leaders were not able to make the content more responsive to the level of school development needs.

What is more, there seems agreement between school leaders and teachers on these issues as confirmed by the test of variance. All the obtained F values (1,220) are less than the F critical (3.84) implying that there are no statistically significant differences in judgment between the two groups.

3.2.4 Analysis of primary schools' Organizational culture and climate

This part of the analysis attempts to describe the nature of teacher's work place. The degree of openness, communication and support that is shared by teachers determines their effective teaching to a considerable extent. The learning environment that is open, friendly and culturally caring and inviting have positive impact on instructional improvement. To this end, the analysis of the schools' work environment was made by describing the school climate and culture in that order.

3.2.4.1 School Climate Description

Instructional leaders must be able to create favorable school organizational climate as it influences the behavior of its members. School organizational climate is measured and described in terms of teacher –teacher and teacher- principal interactions in schools. In this analysis, data were collected and presented below along three dimensions. These include supportive principal behavior description, directive principal

behavior description and teachers' collegial behaviors. In addition, the discussion followed the presentation in that order.

3.2.4.1.1 Supportive Principal Behavior Description

In the principal -teacher interactions dimension of school climate description, the extent to which principals interact with teachers was supportive has been assessed by requesting respondents to rate the frequency of principal's behavior along some sample items. They were asked to rate the principal behavior occurrence from rarely (1) to very frequently (5) on a five point Likert scale : Very Frequently Occurs = 5, Frequently Occurs =4, Often Occurs=3 , Sometimes Occurs=2 Rarely Occurs=1. In addition, responses are presented in Table 12 -below. For the purposes of analysis, mean values were interpreted as :> 4= More Supportive, 3-4= Moderately Supportive, and <3 Less Supportive.

The overall assessment of frequency of school principals' supportive behavior by school leaders and teachers show that it is less than satisfactory as indicated by average means of 3.80 and 3.61 respectively. Most importantly, one can see that respondents perceived school principals as persons difficult to understand in their interactions as indicated in the weighted mean value of 2.03. This indicates that principals were not open to teachers consequently teachers will not have good opportunity to express their ideas and make the necessary suggestions. As a result, teachers might face frustrations and suspicions. In such interaction, it would be difficult to win the good will and commitment of teachers towards school vision realization.

Similarly, item 8 of Table 12 indicates that the school community members perceived their schools principals as persons that do not show appreciation to teachers as indicated in the mean value of 3.62. Supportive and open school climate is characterized by school principals frequently showing appreciation to encourage teachers' desirable behaviors. It is only when school principals give genuine and

frequent praise that teachers can give what they have for students. Shortly put, praise and appreciation are the major symbolic rewards at the disposal of school principals. Absence of such practice, however, would lead to teachers' low moral and less productivity. Hence, students' learning achievement would be at risk when teachers are doing their jobs with low moral.

Table 12: Description of Principal's Supportive Behavior

N o	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W. M	F Ratio	Sig	Ra nk
		SL (N=6 2)	Std. Dev	T (N=1 60)	Std. Dev				
1	Helping teachers	4.00	.974	3.85	1.143	3.89	.771	.381	5
2	using constructive criticism	4.15	.872	3.89	1.136	3.96	2.516	.114	2
3	Explaining reasons for criticism to teachers	3.98	.991	3.75	1.118	3.82	1.964	.163	6
4	Listening to teachers' suggestions	4.00	1.105	3.87	1.171	3.91	.524	.470	4
5	Looking out for the personal well fare of teachers	3.70	1.038	3.59	1.187	3.62	.422	.516	8
6	Treating teachers as equals	4.11	1.082	3.87	1.162	3.94	1.990	.160	3
7	Respecting teachers	4.30	1.046	3.97	1.257	4.06	3.181	.076	1
8	Showing appreciation to teacher	4.00	.991	3.67	1.280	3.76	3.190	.076	7
9	Approachable and easy to understand	2.00	.871	2.03	.937	2.02	.050	.823	9
Average mean		3.80		3.61					

NB: Frequency of supportive behavior occurrences: (<3.00= rarely occurs, 3-4= sometimes occurs
-> 4= frequently occurs).

As can be seen from Table 12, item 5 that states the behaviors of principals in looking after the personal welfare teachers, it was reported that the practice is less than satisfactory as indicated in the mean value of 3.62. This means that principals show little concern for teachers. This again might result in poor teaching and create difficult work environment to enhance the quality of student learning at large. This is a clear indication that school principals lack the necessary human skill required for school leadership.

Furthermore, the one –way ANOVA test of variance did not point out any statistically significant differences between the perception of school leaders and schoolteachers on principals' supportive behaviors description. All obtained F values, for instance, are less than F critical (1,212) =3.84. The analysis makes it clear that principal's supportive behavior is below average. As a result, teachers may lack the motivation to put in more effort and lack the courage to discuss with their leaders on matters that would affect their performance immediately and students' learning achievement ultimately.

3.2.4.1.2 Directive Principal Behavior Description

The extent to which principals maintain close and constant control over all teachers and school activities will determine the openness of the principal- teacher interactions to a significant extent. Some 6 items that describe the directive behavior of principals have been identified to assess the extent to which school principals tended to be directive in their interactions with teachers. Respondents were asked to rate the occurrences of the behaviors from rarely (1) to very frequently on a five point Likert scale type of questions. For the purposes of analysis, mean values were interpreted as :> 3.00= More Directive, 2.00-3.00= Moderately Directive, and <2.00 Less Directive.

The table illustrates the frequency of occurrence of directive behaviors of principals as perceived by school leaders and teachers. As can be seen from the table, principal interaction with teachers was found to be less directive than supportive as indicated in the average mean ratings of school leaders and school teachers (1.83 and 1.89 respectively).

However, it is important to note that principals were more directive in closely checking teachers' classroom activities, in correcting teachers' mistakes and in controlling teachers' performance as indicated with weighted mean ratings of 2.03, 1.96 and 2.00 respectively. This type of scrutiny of teachers' activities might result in teacher's frustration and hesitation. However, schools are staffed by professionals who require

autonomy in planning and implementing their work. The deprivation of such autonomy in the name of control might affect their motivation to perform. It follows that collegial leadership would be more effective in such organizational setup than bureaucratic one.

Table 13: Description of Principal's Directive Behavior *

No	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W.M	F Ratio	Sig	Rank
		SL (N=62)	Std. Dev	T (N=160)	Std. Dev				
1	Ruling with an iron fist	1.88	.873	2.05	1.01	2.00	1.290	.257	2
2	Checking the sign- in sheet every morning	1.78	.691	1.77	.869	1.77	.010	.920	5
3	scheduling the work for the teachers	1.68	.792	1.70	.826	1.70	.024	.877	6
4	Correcting teachers' mistake	1.87	.812	1.99	.938	1.96	.857	.355	3
5	checking classroom activities closely (teacher)	2.02	.965	2.03	.968	2.03	.010	.921	1
6	Checking the lesson plan	1.78	.789	1.82	.895	1.81	.077	.781	4
Average Mean		1.83		1.89					

* Scores are reversed

NB: Degree of directive behavior :> 3.00= more directive, 2.00-3.00= moderately directive, and <2.00 less directive

Nevertheless, the data also showed that the principals were less directive than supportive in scheduling teachers work and checking their sign in sheet as indicated by the weighted mean ratings of 1.70 and 1.77 respectively. Finally, a one-way ANOVA was used to test if there is statistically significant difference between the perception of school leaders and teachers about the principals' directive behaviors. Accordingly, the one-way analysis of variance conducted revealed that there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups in judgment as all the obtained F values (1,221)are far less than F critical (3.84).

In sum, the data in Tables 12 and 13 showed the behavior of principals in their interaction with teachers. As can be seen from the ratings, principals were more

supportive than directive in interaction in relative terms. However, it is important to note that even schools' supportive climates were not as strong as the frequency these behaviors occurred sometimes only as indicated in the average mean rating of both school leaders and teachers (3.80 and 3.61 respectively). This clearly indicates that school principals need to be more open to teachers than they did if they are to increase the work commitment of teachers.

3.2.4.1.3 Teachers' Collegial Behavior Description

The other determinant of school's workplace climate is the interactions among teachers themselves. This description of collegial behavior focuses on identifying and describing the extent to which open and professional interactions prevailed among teachers. To this effect, data were collected on the frequency of occurrences of sample teacher behaviors in the schools. Respondents were asked to evaluate the frequency of such behaviors from rarely (1) to very frequently (5) on a five-point Likert scale. For the purposes of analysis, the obtained means were interpreted as : <3.00 Less Openness, 3.00-4.00=Moderated Openness; and >4.00= High Openness . Moreover, to further test if there was a statistically significant difference in perception of school leaders and teachers on collegiality among teachers in their interaction, a one-way ANOVA was employed. Accordingly, Table 14 portrays the summary of the results observed in the findings.

As can be seen from the table, the overall ratings of teacher- teacher interactions are less than satisfactory as indicated in the average ratings of school leaders (3.89) and schoolteachers (3.63). Item 3, for instance, reports on the inclination of teachers to be open in accepting the faults of their colleagues .As indicated by the mean ratings of both school leaders and teachers, it is found that accepting faults of colleagues occurred rarely (3.30). This shows that teachers show low level of openness in their interactions. However, teaching is team activity whereby teachers know and support each other. Open school climate is characterized by cooperation and openness to each other's mistakes so that every school community member would learn from such incidences. In an open school climate, teachers will not be afraid to take risks and

make mistakes because they would know they could count on their principal and colleagues for support.

Table 14: Ratings Regarding Teachers' Collegial Behavior

No	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W .M	F Ratio	Sig	Rank
		SL (N=6 2)	Std. Dev	T (N=1 60)	Std. Dev				
1	Teachers accomplish their work with pleasure and vigor	3.98	.85	3.69	1.29	3.77	2.721	.100	4
2	Teachers do not leave school immediately after school is over	3.62	1.27	3.33	1.29	3.41	2.261	.134	6
3	Teachers accept the faults of their colleagues	3.62	1.00	3.30	1.20	3.39	3.526	.062	7
4	Teachers help and support each other	4.08	.82	3.91	1.11	3.96	1.180	.278	1
5	Teachers are proud of their school	3.67	.97	3.38	1.24	3.46	2.590	.109	5
6	Teachers accept new teachers readily	4.13	.88	3.89	1.22	3.96	1.931	.166	1
7	Teachers respect the profession competence of their colleagues	4.11	.88	3.90	1.15	3.96	1.764	.185	1
Average Mean		3.89		3.63					

**NB: Degree of Openness : <3.00 less openness, 3.00-4.00=moderated openness;
and >4.00= high openness**

Items 2 and 5 of Table 14 were meant to assess the way teachers perceive their schools as work place. As indicated in mean ratings of both groups, they tended to leave the school immediately after school is over and were not proud of their schools as indicated in the mean scores of 3.41 and 3.46 respectively. This indicates that teachers do not perceive their work places –schools, an enjoyable environment. Furthermore, they were not open and tolerant of each other's weaknesses although they showed respect to professional competence of their colleagues. This perception of teachers reflected in their disengaged behavior as they are simply putting in their time and critical of their colleagues and the school. These might result in avoidance of responsibility. Under such climate, however, it would be difficult to realize the school

vision of increasing students' learning achievement. However, it is important to note that teachers were tended to help and support each other, accept new teachers readily and respect the professional competence of their colleges to some extent as indicated by the weighted mean ratings of 3.96, 3.96, and 3.96 respectively.

A one-way ANOVA was used to check if there is statistically significant difference between perception of school leaders and school teachers on the occurrences of collegial behaviors in teacher - teacher interactions. However, all the obtained values of F (1,221) are less than the tabled value of F (3.84). Hence, there is agreement of perception on teacher collegial behavior judgments between the two groups.

3.2.3 School Culture Inventory

Describing the characteristics of schools as work environment may not be exhaustive without paying attention to identifying the guiding beliefs held by its members. The organizational culture of schools is reflected in its shared values, habits, norms, expectations, and patterns of behavior, all that will determine success of schooling. Hence, school leaders as instructional leaders should play great role in building culture of trust, openness to learning, and stimulating organizational learning whereby every body will be learning continuously.

Some indicators of school guiding beliefs have been identified for the study and respondents were asked to rate the occurrence of these guiding beliefs, as the school members experienced them, rarely (1) to very frequently (5). For the purposes analysis, the mean values were interpreted as >4.00=Highly Conducive, 3.00-4.00= Moderately Conducive, <3.00 Less Conducive.

As can be seen from the table, item 9 is ranked twelfth as indicated in the mean rating of 3.46 .This means that differences in individual philosophies and personality, and differences in teaching styles were not welcomed by the school community members as indicated the mean values of 3.46 and 3.73 in relative terms. However,

school community is more diverse than any other organizations. It is miniature of the larger communities. It comprises of people with different backgrounds, learning needs, talents, culture and philosophies. A school culture that does not support such differences is less likely to support good instructional practices. Put another way, teachers must recognize individual differences in the learning needs of their students; leaders need to be cognizant of differences among the staff. This finding goes with what is found in the analysis in the content of school-based professional development of teachers whereby the selection of learning contents were not tailored to teachers' individual needs.

In item 12, respondents were asked to the frequency of the occurrences of the school community belief in the capacity of teachers to make sound decisions for the wellbeing of the school. Accordingly, the data showed that teachers reported that they were not trusted frequently (3.46) but school leaders believed they have trust in the capacity of teachers (4.06). This clearly indicates that school leaders do not have trust in the capacity of teachers.

Nevertheless, such belief patterns are unfavorable to enable teachers release their talents to maximum possible. Trust between school leaders and a teacher is a major determinant to school effectiveness. In support of this, Hoy and Tarter(1997:11) have argued that trust is directly linked to school effectiveness and successful leadership. Furthermore, teachers in schools where relationship is genuine tend to be more effective and students in such schools are satisfied by being at school. Hence, their learning achievement will be enhanced. This is the indirect effect of school leadership in students' learning achievement.

Table 15: School Culture Inventory

N o	Items	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W. M	F Ratio	Sig	Ra nk
		SL (N=62)	Std . dev	T (N=16 0)	Std. dev				
1	Valuing the importance of teachers understanding of purposes of the school	4.08	.82	4.03	1.04	4.04	.142	.707	2
2	Valuing a 'we' spirit and feeling of ownership in the school	4.03	.90	3.84	1.08	3.90	1.505	.221	5
3	Demonstrating commitment to helping and developing school members	3.95	.95	3.78	1.15	3.83	1.043	.308	7
4	Believing that teachers will want to do what is best for the school	4.29	.84	4.34	.93	4.32	.111	.739	1
5	valuing high standards and expectations for teachers and students	4.15	.83	3.95	1.13	4.00	1.534	.217	3
6	Believing in a "can do" attitude in teachers and students	3.90	.85	3.79	1.07	3.82	.508	.477	9
7	Valuing the well- being and personal concern of school members	4.16	.77	3.87	1.04	3.95	4.069*	.045	4
8	Valuing honesty in words and actions	4.00	.77	3.76	1.17	3.83	2.224	.137	7
9	valuing difference in individual philosophies and personality	3.69	.99	3.37	1.09	3.46	3.854	.051	12
10	valuing differences in teaching styles	3.90	.72	3.67	1.03	3.73	2.596	.109	11
11	valuing flexibility in teaching and learning approach	4.15	.65	3.72	1.09	3.84	8.426*	.004	6
12	confidence in the ability of teachers to make wise decisions	4.06	.77	3.64	1.13	3.76	7.335*	.007	10
	Average Mean	4.01		3.80					

NB: Degrees of Conduciveness: >4.00=highly conducive, 3.00-4.00= conducive,

<3.00 less conducive

However, items 4 and 1 are ranked first and second with the mean ratings of 4.32 and 4.04 respectively. This indicates that the school community members had trust in their teachers' understandings of school purposes is fundamental for school success. Furthermore, the school community members value high standard and expectations for teachers and students. This shows that hard work and achievement is given credit in this culture. Hence, there is a good ground to assume that academic excellence through teachers' understanding of school purpose have good cultural support to come by in the these schools.

3.2.5. In -School Factors Affecting the Effectiveness of Instructional Leadership

Although instructional leadership behaviors make a difference, there would be a difference in how practicing leaders behave in the real school settings. Without being exhaustive, some in-school factors that affect the effectiveness of instructional leadership have been identified and respondents were asked to rate the seriousness of these factors or the extent to which the factors are affecting instructional leadership behavior from very low (1) to very high (5) on five point Likert scale. For the purpose of analysis, the mean values were interpreted as >3.00 =Major factor, $2.00-3.00$ = Moderate factor, <2.00 = Minor factor.

As can be seen from the table, item 14 was ranked first with the mean rating of 3.51. This is followed by items 18 and 3 with the mean ratings of 3.38 and 3.34. Instructional leaders, like any other education personnel, need some sort of incentives for the service they provide. The absence of such incentives, however, affects their commitment to support the instructional process in school. The data in the table showed that lack of incentives was the major obstacles to effective instructional leadership as indicated in the mean rating of 3.51.

Further more, a one-way ANOVA was conducted and the result showed no statistically significant difference between the opinions of the two groups ($F(1,220)=2.655<3.84$). Hence, both school leaders and teachers believed that lack of incentive was the major factor affecting the effectiveness of instructional leadership in their schools.

Table 16: Ratings on In –School Hindering Factors

No	Indicators	Respondents' Response							
		Mean values				W .M	F Ratio	Sig	Ran k
		SL (N=62)	Std .Dev	T (N=160)	Std. dev				
1	lack of vision	2.93	1.17	3.12	1.37	3.06	.832	.363	14
2	lack of knowledge base	2.71	1.18	2.78	1.38	2.76	.117	.733	18
3	unwillingness to take risk	3.24	1.13	3.38	1.24	3.34	.622	.431	3
4	unwillingness to accept constructive feedback	2.95	1.28	3.32	1.37	3.22	3.411	.066	5
5	resistance to change	2.87	1.22	2.94	1.31	2.92	.127	.722	17
6	Unable to delegate	2.79	1.08	3.01	1.20	2.94	1.550	.215	16
7	lack of trust in others	2.75	.97	3.20	1.25	3.07	6.715*	.010	13
8	unwilling to set priorities	3.00	1.28	3.12	1.30	3.08	.363	.548	12
9	unwillingness to say no to non-instructional commitments	2.94	1.33	3.25	1.31	3.16	2.515	.114	7
10	Lack of staff cohesion	2.70	1.24	3.11	1.34	2.99	4.439*	.036	15
11	Unwillingness to support and praise	2.90	1.30	3.19	1.32	3.11	2.085	.150	10
12	Lack of interpersonal openness	2.90	1.27	3.25	1.30	3.16	3.276	.072	7
13	Weak sense of community	2.89	1.28	3.24	1.36	3.14	3.121	.079	9
14	Lack of incentives	3.29	1.30	3.60	1.25	3.51	2.655	.105	1
15	Lack of commitment	3.00	1.23	3.28	1.31	3.20	2.052	.153	6
16	Lack of human relation skills	2.90	1.41	3.39	1.32	3.25	5.932*	.016	4
17	Lack of acceptance by others	2.77	1.18	3.23	1.24	3.10	6.234*	.013	11
18	The pressure of other jobs	3.06	1.32	3.51	1.22	3.38	5.753	.017	2
	Average mean	2.92		3.22					

NB: Level of Cause: (>3.00=Major factor, 2.00-3.00= Moderate factor, <2.00= Minor factor).

The data further showed that instructional leaders failed to discharge their responsibility owing to the pressure of other jobs as indicated in weighted mean value of 3.38 that ranked the second major cause. This might result from the leaders' inability to set priority, to focus on instructional activities as indicated in the mean ratings of 3.08 and 3.16 respectively. This is a clear indication that school leaders pay more

attention to other jobs than to instructional matters. Instructional leaders must be able to delegate and share responsibilities in order to maximize their efficiency. In the same line of argument, McEwan (2003:12) has argued that strong instructional leaders focus on learning and delegate, facilitate and collaborate to maximize the amount of time they have available to focus on instructional issues.

In items 3 of Table 15, respondents reported that leaders' unwillingness to take risk was the other major cause for weak instructional leadership practices in the sampled schools. Furthermore, there seems no difference in the rating of both groups as indicated by the ANOVA test. School leaders must be courageous enough to try out innovative practices if they are to manage in the changing school environment. However, such risk aversion behaviors is strongly linked with lack of work motivation, which is clearly indicated by data in the same table. Leading to realize school vision is one of moving from known to unknown, from familiar to unfamiliar situations. This can not be realized by leaders that lack the necessary commitment. In support of this opinion, Hopkins(2005:59) has argued, "effective leadership is infused by a commitment to clearly values and beliefs" . Setting good school vision will be of no values unless leaders show the necessary commitment to its realization even by taking risky measures. This finding coincides with finding in section 3.2.2 whereby the realization of school vision suffered from lack of the necessary resources though it was reported to be well designed.

As can be seen from the table, lack of human relations skill and unwillingness to accept constructive feedback were also reported to affect the leadership effectiveness in schools under study as indicated in the mean ratings of 3.25 and 3.22 respectively. Concerning human relation skills of school leaders, there is statistically significant difference between the judgment of teachers and school leaders as school leaders reported lack of human skills had moderate impact whereas teachers witnessed that it was a major cause for instructional leadership ineffectiveness. This difference in opinion

might result from school leaders' unwillingness to accept constructive feedback as it was reported to be major obstructing factor by both groups of respondents. As leadership is an influence process, leaders should possess good human relation skills and need to be open in accepting feedback from their followers. Openness to ideas of others is a culture that should be built deliberately in the school community if one is to lead effectively. Culture is a constructed reality and leaders can build culture of openness to criticism by showing such behaviors by themselves.

A one-way ANOVA was used to test for any statistically significant difference between the perception of school leader and teacher as factor that affect the institutional leadership effectiveness of principles. Accordingly, the test revealed that the obtained F values for items 7, 10, 17, and 18 are 6.715, 4.439, 6.234 and 5.753, which are greater than the F Critical (3.84) indicating there was statistically significant, difference between the two groups rates. The difference might be resulted from school leaders' lack of appropriate information on the weaknesses of their own performance as they rated relatively higher scores for the items teachers witnessed more a major cause for instructional leadership ineffectiveness.

CHAPTER FOUR

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

This chapter is concerned with the summary of the major findings, the conclusions drawn from the findings and recommendations that the researcher proposes and assumed operational in improving the status of instructional leadership practices in government primary schools of Addis Ababa.

4.1 Summary of Major Findings

The main purpose of the study was to describe the current practices of instructional leadership in government primary schools of Addis Ababa and its potentials to improve students' learning achievement. To this effect, an attempt has been made to assess the status of school-based professional development for teachers; the suitability of school culture and climate to improve learning; the practice of school vision setting; the strength of school-based supervisory support and school-based impediments to effective instructional leadership. Finally, the study makes an effort to come up with suggestions and forward recommendations.

In order to attain the objective of the study, the following basic questions were stated and answered.

1. To what extent do school leaders provide for supervision of instruction?
2. Do most school leaders provide for setting and communication of school vision?
3. What is the status of school-based teachers' professional development?
4. To what extent do leaders build conducive school culture and climate?
5. What are the in-school impediments to instructional leadership effectiveness?

A survey study with quantitative research approach was employed in this study. And the related literature was reviewed and documented. To ensure fair representation of all government primary schools in Addis Ababa, five out of ten sub cities (50%) were selected through simple random sampling technique so as to give an equal chance of selection. Furthermore, two schools from each sub city were selected for the study by

simple random selection technique. The first groups of subjects-school leaders-were selected on availability basis while teachers in these schools were included in the study through simple random selection method. Consequently, 62 school leaders (school principal, vice principals, department heads) and 160 teachers were included in the study.

Two sets of questionnaire were used for data collection in the study. Out of 227 copies of questionnaire, 222(80.14%) were filled and returned (62 school leader, and 160 teachers). Finally, the data were carefully collected, coded, tallied and presented for analysis.

In the study, different data analysis tools that the student researcher thought relevant to the data collected for the study were used. The statistical tools used include percent, mean, standard deviation, weighted mean and one-way ANOVA for comparison of means .Hence, the analysis made then justifies the following major findings.

4.1.1 School –Based Supervisory Practices

Concerning overall assessment of the practice of school- based supervisory support; the data showed that school leaders have provided moderate support to teachers in the form of direct personal support, direct group support, individual assistance, and school wide assistances.

4.1.1.1 Direct Personal Support

From the data obtained from the respondents, teachers were given moderate personal supervisory support in the areas of class observation, showing concern for teachers, and in providing teachers with the opportunity to observe the teachings of their colleagues as indicated in the mean ratings of 3.95, 3.79 and 3.71 respectively. However, the study also revealed that teachers were poorly supported personally through demonstrating teaching techniques (3.16) and in identifying and obtaining resources for instruction (3.35).

4.1.1.2. Direct Group support

In the study, it was discovered that school leaders provide moderate support to teachers as a group as rated by school leaders (3.56) and teachers (3.41). Specifically, it was found that school leaders provide strong supervisory support to teachers in the areas of planning appropriate learning objective (3.97), in using questioning techniques with students (3.68) and managing student behavior (3.67). Furthermore, school leaders witnessed to have provided strong group support in the areas of clarifying classroom rules and procedures for students (4.10) whereas teachers reported moderate support (3.74) in this regard.

On the contrary, it was revealed that both groups of respondent rated moderate group support in the area of developing learning activities for students who finish early,(3.07) for daily reviews and diagnosis (3.10), and remedial and enrichment activities (3.13).

4.1.1.3 Individual Assistance

From the responses obtained, it was learnt that school leaders provided strong individual assistance to teachers in areas of observing teaching (3.80), assisting teachers to plan for instruction (3.59), and fostering teacher reflection (3.59). However, teachers were provided weak support in the areas of demonstrating effective teaching (3.12) and sharing innovation instructional strategies (3.18).

4.1.1.4 School wide Assistance

Concerning the school wide assistance, school leaders provided strong support in the areas of facilitating teachers' professional development (3.84) and dialogue among teachers (3.32) whereas weak support have been reported in the area of fostering teacher empowerment (3.32).

4.1.2 The Practice of School Vision Setting and Communication

4.1.2.1 School Vision Setting Practice

With regard to the practice of school vision setting, the data revealed that school leaders have shown strong performance in formulating school vision that

communicates high standard of learning (3.92) and that focuses on students' learning(3.94). However, the data also showed that school leaders were not strong in identifying and addressing potential barriers to implementing school vision (3.07) and in channeling the existing resource in support of the school vision (3.33).

4.1.2.2 The practice of school vision communication

Concerning the school vision communication, the data revealed strong performance in principals' ability in articulating and reinforcing the school vision in written as well as spoken communication (3.88), in articulating the vision and priorities to the school community (3.79). However, weak practice were reported in availing the needed resources to support the implementation of the school vision (3.31).

4.1.3 The Practice of School-Based Professional Development for Teachers

4.1.3.1 The Design of Learning Experience for School -Based Professional Development of Teachers

As to the design of learning experience, the data showed that most learning experiences were designed as reflection on one's practice (3.78) and as a reflective model (3.68). However, it was also found that the time allocated for such learning experiences was insufficient (3.17) and it did not encourage a mentoring relationship (3.40).

4.1.3.2 Assessment Teacher Involvement in the School-Based Professional Development

As to the participation of teachers in planning and implementation of school- based professional development programs, the data showed that teachers have been involved in analysis of teaching and learning process only fairly (3.83) and such involvements were on voluntary basis (3.81). However, weak performance in providing teachers with follow up support (3.24) has been reported.

4.1.3.3 The Contents of Professional Development Programs of Teachers

Concerning the contents of professional development programs of teachers at schools, the data showed that the contents focused on mastery of teaching techniques (3.96) but less attention was given to tailoring the contents to individual needs (2.96). It

was also found that the contents were more deficit -oriented than growth-oriented (3.57).

4.1.4 School organization culture and climate Description

4.1.4.1 Supportive Principals' behavior Description

It was discovered that school principals rarely easily understood by the school community (2.02) and looked out for the personal welfare of teachers (3.62). However, they frequently respected teachers (4.06).

4.1.4.2 Directive Principal Behavior Description

Concerning the directive behavior of principals, the data showed that principals were moderately directive in closely checking teacher activities (2.03). However, they were less directive in scheduling the work for teachers (1.70)

4.1.4.3 Teachers' Collegial Behavior Description

Concerning the openness of teacher-teacher interactions, the data revealed that teachers tended to show moderate openness in respecting the professional competence of their colleagues (3.96), helping and supporting each other (3.96) and in accepting new teachers as colleagues (3.96) .However, they tended to show less openness in accepting the faults of their colleagues (3.39).

4.1.4.4 School Culture Inventory

With regard to the shared values, beliefs and norms of the school, it was discovered that the school community members believed that teachers will want to help the school (4.32) and valued the importance of teachers' understanding of the purposes of the school (4.04) to greater extent. However, the data showed that they did not believe in individual differences in personality (3.46) and difference in teaching styles (3.73).

4.1.5 In- School Hindering Factors to Instructional Leadership Effectiveness

Lastly, the data revealed that lack of incentives (3.51), the pressure of other jobs (3.38) and leaders' unwillingness to take risk (3.34) were found to be the major factors that affected the effectiveness of instructional leadership in the schools understudy.

4.2. Conclusion

Instructional leadership is a complex activity. Nevertheless, the question of what the school leaders should be doing in order to make a difference to the quality of schooling needs to be answered. It is clear from the literature on school effectiveness that no one single factor brings quality schooling. There appears to be a critical mass of positive factor which, when put together would make a difference. These factors include a sense of mission, safe and ordered school climate, culture of help among the staff, emphasis on educational aspects of the school, developing supportive school climate, supervising and improving instruction just to mention the major ones. This study focused on the performance of principals on major functions of instructional leadership. In general, these functions were performed to a lesser degree than was deemed desirable and expected by the principals and teachers surveyed.

Schools are mission centers where macro level goals are realized and teachers are the ones that are supposed to implement these aspirations. Hence, these teachers need support so as to teach their level best. Improving schools by helping teachers to learn more about what they do, to share what they know with others and strive to improve their practices should be at the heart of what school leaders as instructional leaders expected to do. However, the study showed that primary school leaders in Addis Ababa do not set good models in demonstrating better teaching techniques to the teachers. Furthermore, teachers do not find sufficient instructional resources. This shows that school leaders lack knowledge about learning theory and effective instruction.

Group support primarily focuses on administrative duties than instructional activities as school leaders paid little attention to enabling teachers in helping them respond to different students learning needs, and preparing different activities for students learning achievement. Hence, school leaders have not clearly understood their responsibilities as leaders of educational institution that has additional demand

compared to other public institution. Therefore, school leaders have role confusion as instruction leaders. Furthermore, school leaders do not demonstrate effective teaching and do not share innovative instructional strategies. In sum, the school –based supervisory support in its different forms focused on teacher control rather than providing professional support. Therefore, this shows that school leaders do not lead by modeling good practices.

Instructional leaders need to be purposeful, visionary and develop value that focus on learning and act with the necessary commitment to realize the vision. This vision however, should reflect the hopes, needs and interests of everybody who have stake in the school. The study showed that the school vision was not formulated by identifying and addressing potential barriers to its effective realization. As a result of this, sufficient resources were not sourced from potential supporters of schooling. Therefore, the current practice shows that the vision did not command the ownership of its potential stakeholders and it will be difficult for the schools to implement and sustain the vision.

Professional development for teachers should be based on the data obtained through school-based supervisory services to teachers. To this effect many options for developing teachers professionally can be sought based on the development needs of teachers as identified in the supervision of their instructional activities. It is also important to foster deep collaboration among teachers to build collective capacity for improved teacher performance. However, the study showed that there was less than satisfactory performance in tailoring the learning experience to individuals needs and the contents were more deficit-oriented than growth-oriented. Hence, it can be concluded that the schools leaders do not make thorough need analysis for planning and implementing professional development for teachers.

As schools are highly people-centered and dependent on the interpersonal relationships, building and maintaining conducive school climate and culture seems imperative. Furthermore, changes are impossible under ordinary situations and school leaders must then build the right conditions-open climate and supportive culture, if they commit themselves to enhancing the quality of learning. However, the study showed that school leaders have performed unsatisfactorily in presenting themselves to teachers openly, tended to be directive in scheduling their work. Hence, the school leaders exercised collegial authority to lesser degree. Furthermore, teachers are less open in accepting the faults of their colleagues and hence the school climate does not allow them collective learning.

Although it is widely believed that principals, as instructional leaders, would make a difference to students' learning achievements, practically many factors would mitigate this hypothesis. Accordingly, the study showed that, school leader' instructional leadership effectiveness was affected by the pressure of other jobs, lack of incentives and unwillingness to take risk. Hence, it is clear that school leaders lack the commitment due to lack commensurate rewarded to their services. Furthermore, they are not good at delegating responsibilities. ✓

4.3 Recommendations

To improve the practice of instructional leadership in primary school of Addis Ababa, the following recommendations are suggested in view of the findings and conclusions drawn.

4.3.1 Organizational and policy Interventions by MOE

Currently, in the city of Addis Ababa attempts are being made to increase the quality of education by increasing students' time on task by avoiding shift systems in school organization. However, more remains to strengthen the internal management of schools.

The study showed that the problems of instructional leadership effectiveness stem from the guidelines on school management particularly that focus on school leaders' responsibility. This can be justified by critically reviewing the lists of responsibilities meant for school leaders. The guidelines do not give due consideration to role of

school leaders as supporters of the instructional wing of school management. A careful review at document's provision for role definition of school principal shows that, except for few statements, all statements communicate the school leader's role as manager of non-instructional responsibilities of the school leadership while the prime purpose of school leadership remains supporting instruction with intention of enhancing students learning achievement. Hence, it is recommended that:

a) The MoE redefine the role of school leaders by including responsibilities in such areas as providing support to teachers, building supportive culture and open climate, exercising collegial authority and providing meaningful and need-based, growth-oriented school-based professional development opportunities for teachers.

b) The structure of primary schools be revisited. This might include assigning administrative assistants that would support the school leadership by handling administrative routines so that school leaders will have spare time to focus on instructional matters of the school to the extent of modeling best instructional practices.

4.3.2 To Leadership Training Colleges, Universities and Institutes

The current experience of preparing leaders for the education system seems divorced from the realities of our schools. This is clearly evidenced in the pioneer departments' curriculum and course descriptions for training school leaders for the past decades.

A critical review of the program of the departments clearly shows that there is less than satisfactory effort in tailoring the training to what it needs to be to improve instruction in Ethiopian schools. Hence, it is suggested that leadership training departments and institutions need to revise their curricular with aim of including courses in areas like instructional leadership, and capacity building for school improvement just to mention few ones.

4.3.3 To Practicing School Leaders

As this study was focused on school level leaders, the loin's share of the recommendations is addressed to this level of leaders.

a) The role of principals as instructional leaders shouldn't be limited to controlling which is unlikely to result in better performance , which at best may develop teacher compliance. This has been found in the study as school leaders provide their support in controlling whether teachers have prepared and used lesson plans, have managed students' discipline in their classes.

However, weak supports has been reported in the areas of empowering teachers, demonstrating effective teaching and instructional strategies and in assisting teachers develop activities for students who have special educational needs. Hence, the practicing school leaders should shift their mode of leadership from control to support so that teachers can release their potentials and develop new capacities. Specifically, teachers need to be supported and empowered by modeling good teaching and innovative instructional strategies that enrich classroom teaching and learning.

b) The study showed that school leaders do set and communicate their schools' visions that center on students' learning with high standards. However, it was discovered these well-intentioned future aspirations are less likely to be realized owing to shortage of resources and presence of other organizational barriers, which could have been identified and addressed prior to plan implementation.

Therefore, school principal are need to develop their schools' vision through involving the staff, students, parents , local community by arranging meetings, surveys and workshops so that they can get not only the consent of prime stakeholder but also the resources required to realize the vision. Even when resources are available to realize the school vision, school leaders need to set

priorities and align these available resources to the realization the school vision focusing on improved students' learning.

c) The study showed that school- based professional development for teachers was not need based, was deficit – oriented than development oriented. Hence, for effective school- based professional development to be in place, school leaders are recommended to make it need -based and more growth- oriented. This is to say that learning experience should be planned and implemented in accordance with the individual learning needs of teachers. Shortly put, different learning experiences for different teachers should be so that teachers would have the opportunities to choose the learning activities, its duration, and goals for themselves and/ or in consultation with their leaders. Furthermore, it is suggested that the contents and objectives of school-based professional development should focus on enhancing the capacity of all teachers – including the competent and experienced ones.

d) The study showed that principals in Addis Ababa primary schools do not lead by modeling. That is to say, they do not use the power of example in demonstrating effective teaching, in sharing innovative instructional with teachers. Because of such weakness, teachers lacked the necessary openness in entertaining of faults of their colleagues and in fostering collective learning from mistakes committed. Hence, it suggested that principals lead teachers by modeling good behaviors because teachers are normally interested in looking for signals of best practices. And they would like to follow the footsteps of their leaders.

e) The study showed that the school community did not value individual differences in personalities, philosophies, learning and development needs as the guiding beliefs of the school community. As change would be difficult in the existing cultural profile of schools, the school principals should build and nurture supportive culture by orchestrating new values like officially acknowledging differences in personality, philosophy, and teaching styles and learning needs among the teachers. If these beliefs are valued by the leaders, the teachers would value them too.

4.3.4 To City Administration Education Bureau

The study revealed that lack of incentive, the pressure of other jobs and unwillingness to take risk were the major barriers perceived to obstruct the effectiveness of instructional leadership in the primary schools of the metropolitan. Hence, it is recommended that the bureau make an effort to increase the commitment of school leaders by working with leadership training institutions to re-examine the selection, promotion and appointment procedures of principals in primary schools. This might include introducing leadership career structure and clear promotion and appointment policy that is based on merit, interest, and experience for aspiring leaders.

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Annex A

**Addis Ababa University
School Of graduate studies**

Dear respondent,

This is an MA research project. It is aimed at describing the current practices of instructional leadership in government primary school in Addis Ababa City Administration. The information provided will be treated confidentially and used academic purposes only. Hence, your genuine and professional contribution will be essential for the success this academic endeavor.

I would like to express my deepest appreciation for your cooperation in filling out this questionnaire, in advance.

I thank you!

A questionnaire to be filled out by principals, vice principals, and department heads.

Please Note that:

- Each section has instruction as to how to reply to each question items
- No need of writing your name

Section 1: General Information

1. Name of the school -----Sub city-----Kebele----
2. Sex : Male () , Female ()
3. Age: Below 20 years () , 20 yrs-29 yrs () ,30 yrs-39 yrs () ,40 yrs- 49 yrs () ,50 yrs and over ()
4. Qualifications: Certificate () , Diploma () , Bachelors Degree () Others ()
5. Work Experience: Below 5 yrs () , 5 yrs- 9 yrs () , 10 yrs-14 yrs () , 15 yrs – 19 yrs () , 20 yrs and over ()
6. Administrative Position: Principal () Vice principal () Department Head ()

Section 2: School based Supervisory Practices

Direction: The following are statements about supervisory practices at your school. Please rate from very low to very high the practices indicating the degree to which each item describes the current supervisory practices in your school. The numbers indicate:

1= very low, 2= Low, 3=Moderate, 4= High .5=Very high

2. 1 direct personal Support

	In the area of direct personal support in my school, supervisors provide	1	2	3	4	5
1	assistance with identifying and obtaining resource for instruction					
2	Demonstration of teaching techniques in class room					
3	conference to schedule and plan observation					
4	observation of classes for assistance in improving instruction					
5	opportunity to observe and discuss classes taught by other teachers					
6	genuine concern for teacher and students					
7	stimulation to think consciously about teaching skills					

2.2 Direct group Support

	In my school supervisory personnel assist teacher with:	1	2	3	4	5

8	planning appropriate learning objective					
9	designing appropriate instructional activities					
10	Developing remedial and enrichment activities					
11	Developing activities for daily review and diagnosis					
12	Developing strategies for student team or group learning					
13	Developing learning activities for students who finish early					
14	Evaluating student progress					
15	Organizing and arranging the space and materials for instruction					
16	Increasing and maintaining student academic engagement time					
17	Managing student behavior					
18	Clarifying class rooms rules and procedure for students					
19	Using questioning techniques with students					
20	Providing students with corrective feed back and practice					

2. 3: Individual assistance

	The supervisor(principal or vice principal or department Head),	1	2	3	4	5
21	observes teaching and provides helpful feedback					
22	provides useful instructional resource					
23	fosters teacher reflection					
24	demonstrates effective teaching					
25	shares innovative instructional strategies					
26	assists beginning teachers					
27	assists teachers with instructional problem they are experiencing					
28	assists teachers to plan for instruction					
29	assists teachers to assess student learning					
30	assists teachers to individualize instruction					

2. 4: Practices related to school wide assistance

	In my school The supervisor (principal or vice principal or department Head),	1	2	3	4	5
31	facilitates instructional dialogue among teachers					
32	fosters a positive school culture					
33	facilitates collective vision building					
34	facilitates teacher collaboration for school wide instructional improvement					
35	assists teachers to individualize instruction					
36	Fosters teacher empowerment.					
37	facilitates teachers' professional development					

Section 3: School vision

Following are items describing the current of practices of school vision setting and communication in your school. Please indicate your opinion by putting a tick mark (✓) in one of

the boxes against each statement. The numbers indicate: 5=very high, 4= high 3= moderate 2= Low 1= Very Low.

Practices related to school vision setting		1	2	3	4	5
1	the school vision communicates high standard of learning					
2	the vision reflects the vision of school members					
3	assessment data related to student learning are used to develop the school vision					
4	Barrier to achieve the vision are identified, clarified and addressed					
5	existing resources are used in support of the school vision and goals					
6	work with teacher and other stakeholders to identify needs					
7	facilitates the development a shared vision					
8	the vision is developed with and among stakeholders					
9	facilitates the implementation of a shared vision					
10	The vision places student learning at its center					
11	The vision places teacher learning at its center					

Practices related to communication of school vision		1	2	3	4	5
12	the vision of the school is communicated to staff ,parent, students, community members,					
13	needed resource are sought and obtained to support the implementation of the school mission and vision					
14	there is a two way communication channel between the principal and staff regarding the vision of the school					
15	Activities that communicate the value and meaning of learning to students exit.					
16	Principal articulates and reinforce the visions in written and spoken communication					
17	can develop a community of learners centered on student learning					
18	The school principal articulates the school vision and priorities to the community					

Section 4: School –Based Teacher Professional Development Practices.

Following are items describing the current of practices of School -Based Professional Development teachers in your school. Please indicate performance of your school by putting a tick mark (√) in one of the boxes against each statement. The numbers indicate: 5=Very High 4= High 3= Moderate 2= Low 1= Very Low.

4.1 Methodology of school-based professional development practices

In your school,		1	2	3	4	5
1	Teachers choose goals and activities for themselves					
2	Ongoing assistance and support available on request					
3	Teachers have the opportunities to be actively involved in the analysis of teaching and learning					
4	The learning experience is sufficient in terms of duration					
5	The learning experience is based in classroom in actual school					

6	The involvement in development programs are voluntary						
7	The learning experience requires reflection on one's practice over an extended period of time						
8	Teachers the opportunity to plan and work together						
9	The learning experience is designed as mentoring relationship						
10	The learning experience is designed as action research						
11	The learning experience is designed as peer inquiry						
12	The learning experience is designed as observation of excellent practices						
13	The learning experience is designed as reflective model						

4.2 Substantive aspects of school-based professional development practices

14	The content of teacher professional development programs:	1	2	3	4	5
15	Being growth –rather than deficit oriented					
16	Professional development tailored to department needs					
18	Focus on teacher's sense of purpose					
19	Focus teacher's perception of students					
20	Focus teacher's knowledge of subject matter					
21	Focus teacher's mastery of teaching techniques					
22	Professional development tailored to individual needs					

Section 5: School Climate and school Culture

Direction: The following are statements about your school. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school by putting a tick mark(√) in one of the boxes against each item. The numbers indicate: 5 =Very Frequently occurs 4= often occurs 3= sometimes occurs 2= Rarely occurs 1= Very rarely occurs .

5.1 School Climate Description

5.1.1a Principal's behavior: Supportive behavior items

	The Principal	1	2	3	4	5
1	goes out of his/her way to help teachers					
2	uses constructive criticism					
3	explains his/ her reasons for criticism to teachers					
4	listens to teachers' suggestions					
5	looks out for the personal well fare of teachers					
6	treats teachers as equals					
7	respects teachers					
8	shows appreciation to teacher					
9	is easy to understand					

5.1.1b. Principal's behavior: Directive Behavior items

	The Principal	1	2	3	4	5
10	rules with an iron fist					
11	checks the sign- in sheet every morning					
12	schedules the work for the teachers					
13	corrects teachers' mistake					
14	closely checks classroom (teacher) activities					
15	checks the lesson plan					

5.1.2 Teachers' behavior: collegial behavior items

	Teachers	1	2	3	4	5
1	accomplish their work with pleasure and vigor					
2	Do not leave school immediately after school is over					
3	most of the teachers accept the faults of their colleagues					
4	help and support each other					
5	are proud of their school					
6	new teachers are readily accepted by colleagues					
7	respect the professional competence of their colleagues					

5.2 School culture inventory: Identifying guiding beliefs:

Following items are description of the organizational culture of your school. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school by putting a tick mark (√) in one of the boxes against each item. The numbers indicate: Very Frequently occurs 4= often occurs 3= sometimes occurs 2= Rarely occurs 1= Very rarely occurs .

	School Community Members	1	2	3	4	5
1	value the importance of teachers understanding the purposes					
2	value a 'we' spirit and feeling of ownership in the school					
3	Demonstrate commitment to helping and developing school members					
4	Believe that given the opportunity teachers will want to do what is best for the school					
5	value high standards and expectations for teachers and students					
6	believe in a "can do" attitude in teachers and students					
7	Value the well- being and personal concern of school members.					
8	value honesty in words and actions					
9	value consistency					
10	value difference in individual philosophies and personality					
11	value differences in teaching styles					
12	value flexibility in teaching and learning approach In response to student differences					

13	have confidence in the ability of teachers to make wise decisions					
14	communicate a set of purposes					

Section 6: In-school Hindering Factors

The following in-school factors that may impede the practice of instructional leadership in schools. Please rate to what extent the following in-school factor have affected instructional leadership practices in your school. The numbers indicate: 1= very low, 2= Low, 3=Moderate, 4= High, 5=Very high

	Hindering factors	1	2	3	4	5
1	lack of vision					
2	lack of knowledge base					
3	unwillingness to take risk					
4	unwillingness to accept constructive feedback					
5	resistance to change					
6	unable to delegate					
7	lack of trust in others					
8	unwilling to set priorities					
9	unwilling to say no to non counteraction instructional					
10	Lack of staff cohesion					
11	Unwillingness to support and praise					
12	Lack of interpersonal openness					
13	Weak sense of community					
14	Lack of incentives					
15	Lack of commitment					
16	Lack of human relation skills					
17	Lack of acceptance by others					
18	The pressure of other jobs					

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I would like to express my deepest appreciation for your cooperation in filling out this questionnaire, in advance.

I thank you!

A questionnaire to be filled out by Teachers .

Please Note that:

- Each section has instruction as to how to reply to each question items
- No need of writing your name

Section 1: General Information

1. Name of the school -----Sub city-----Kebele----
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Section 2: School based Supervisory Practices

Direction: The following are statements about supervisory practices at your school. Please rate from very low to very high the practices indicating the degree to which each item describes the current supervisory practices in your school. The numbers indicate:

1= very low, 2= Low, 3=Moderate, 4= High .5=Very high

2. 1 direct personal Support

	In the area of direct personal support in my school, supervisors provide	1	2	3	4	5
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2.2 Direct group Support

	In my school supervisory personnel assist teacher with:	1	2	3	4	5
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2. 3: Individual assistance

	The supervisor(principal or vice principal or department Head),	1	2	3	4	5
21	observes teaching and provides helpful feedback					
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2. 4: Practices related to school wide assistance

	In my school The supervisor (principal or vice principal or department Head),	1	2	3	4	5
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	Practices related to school vision setting	1	2	3	4	5
1	the school vision communicates high standard of learning					
2	the vision reflects the vision of school members					
3	assessment data related to student learning are used to develop the school vision					

4	Barrier to achieve the vision are identified, clarified and addressed					
5	existing resources are used in support of the school vision and goals					
6	work with teacher and other stakeholders to identify needs					
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Practices related to communication of school vision		1	2	3	4	5
12	the vision of the school is communicated to staff ,parent, students, community members,					
13	needed resource are sought and obtained to support the implementation of the school mission and vision					
14	there is a two way communication channel between the principal and staff regarding the vision of the school					
15	Activities that communicate the value and meaning of learning to students exist.					
16	Principal articulates and reinforce the visions in written and spoken communication					
17	can develop a community of learners centered on student learning					
18	The school principal articulates the school vision and priorities to the community					

Section 4: School –Based Teacher Professional Development Practices.

Following are items describing the current of practices of School -Based Professional Development teachers in your school. Please indicate performance of your school by putting a tick mark (√) in one of the boxes against each statement. The numbers indicate: 5=Very High 4= High 3= Moderate 2= Low 1= Very Low.

4.1 Methodology of school-based professional development practices

In your school,		1	2	3	4	5
1	Programs are conducted in school settings					
2	Teachers choose goals and activities for themselves					
3	Ongoing assistance and support available on request					
4	The learning activity focuses on deepening teacher’s content knowledge in the subject they teach					
5	Teachers have the opportunities to be actively involved in the analysis of teaching and learning					
6	The learning experience is sufficient in terms of duration					
7	The learning experience is based in classroom in actual school					
8	The involvement in development programs are voluntary					
9	Programs are linked to school-wide efforts					
10	The learning experience requires reflection on one’s practice over an extended period of time					
11	Programs are supporting collaborative efforts among educators					
12	adult learning strategies are applied to professional development					
13	Teachers the opportunity to plan and work together					

14	The learning experience is designed as mentoring relationship					
15	The learning experience is designed as action research					
16	The learning experience is designed as peer inquiry					
17	The learning experience is designed as observation of excellent practices					
18	The learning experience is designed as reflective model					

4.2 Substantive aspects of school-based professional development practices

	The content of teacher professional development programs:	1	2	3	4	5
22	Being growth –rather than deficit oriented					
23	Professional development tailored to department needs					
24	Focus on teacher’s sense of purpose					
25	Focus teacher’s perception of students					
26	Focus teacher’s knowledge of subject matter					
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Section 5: School Climate and school Culture

Direction: The following are statements about your school. Please indicate the extent to which each statement characterizes your school by putting a tick mark(√) in one of the boxes against each item. The numbers indicate: 5 =Very Frequently occurs 4= often occurs 3= sometimes occurs 2= Rarely occurs 1= Very rarely occurs .

5.1 School Climate Description

5.1.1a Principal’s behavior: Supportive behavior items

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7	respects teachers					
8	shows appreciation to teacher					
9	is easy to understand					

5.1.1b. Principal’s behavior: Directive Behavior items

	The Principal	1	2	3	4	5
10	rules with an iron fist					
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13	have confidence in the ability of teachers to make wise decisions					
14	communicate a set of purposes					

Section 6: In-school Hindering Factors

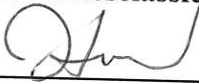
The following in- school factors that may impede the practice of instructional leadership in schools. Please rate to what extent the following in school factor have affected instructional leadership practices in your school. The numbers indicate: 1= very low, 2= Low, 3=Moderate, 4= High .5=Very high

Hindering factors		1	2	3	4	5
1	lack of vision					
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16	Lack of human relation skills						
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18	The pressure of other jobs						

This thesis has been submitted for Examination with my approval as university advisor.

Name : Ato Haileselassie Woldegerima

Signature:  _____

Date : July 23, 2007

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work, has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Name : Demoze Degefa Alemu

Signature: *Demoze*

Date: July 23, 2007

