

**INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ITS EFFECT ON THE TEACHING AND
LEARNING PROCESS: THE CASE OF BASIC SCHOOL HEAD TEACHERS IN
CENTRAL PROVINCE - ZAMBIA**

By

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DECLARATION

I, Rachel Monde Mabuku Kabeta, do hereby declare that this piece of work is my own, and that all the work of other people has been duly acknowledged, and that this work has not been previously presented at this university and indeed any other university for similar purposes.

Signed.....

Date.....

APPROVAL

This thesis of Rachel Monde Mabuku Kabeta is approved as fulfilling part of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Administration by the University of Zambia.

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ABSTRACT

The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MOESVTEE) in Zambia's National Policy Document on education "Educating our Future" of 1996 identifies the vital role that the school head must play in pursuit of excellence and quality in schools. The policy identifies instructional leadership by head teachers as a priority in enhancing the quality of teaching and learning in schools. However, while the policy document acknowledges that instructional leadership is critical in the realization of quality education, there have been little efforts if any, to establish whether head teachers are instructional leaders.

This study was an attempt to assess whether head teachers in the basic schools in Central Province practiced instructional leadership and the extent to which they were doing so and also to establish the effect of instructional leadership on the teaching and learning process in the basic schools and furthermore to find out whether these head teachers received training that prepared them for this role.

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. The quantitative data was obtained through the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS-Principal and Teacher forms), while qualitative data was collected through face to face interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis. The sample comprised 32 head teachers and 160 teachers who were selected using purposive sampling. The study was guided by Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) conceptual framework.

The results obtained from the quantitative data showed that the head teachers who participated in this study perceived themselves to be instructional leaders more than their teachers did, on the contrary, results obtained from the qualitative data overwhelmingly revealed that the head teachers were not practising much instructional leadership and that the majority of them were not even familiar with the concept of instructional leadership.

The findings also revealed that the perceptions of the participants in this study were that head teachers' instructional leadership practices would affect the teaching and learning process positively. The findings further revealed that the majority of head teachers who participated in this study did not receive training that prepared them for this role.

The study recommends that the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should review the National Policy on Education of 1996 to see whether its policy objectives on instructional leadership are being implemented. The study also recommends that the ministry should review pre-service teacher training programmes in order to incorporate training in education administration and leadership and that in-service training programmes should be strengthened and expanded by establishing more institutions that would offer training in leadership and management. The study further recommends that head teachers and teachers should be familiarise themselves with the policy document and to utilize it and also that the Ministry of Education should sensitize the head teachers and teachers about the role of instructional leadership in the improvement of teaching and learning. The study recommends too that the Ministry of Education should make relevant training in Education Management and Leadership a pre- requisite for the appointment of head teachers.

Recommendations for future research suggest that a similar study could be done with a larger sample in order to enhance the generalizability, validity and reliability of the results and also that a simplified and shorter version of the PIMRS could be utilized. Further research could also take into account variables such as gender, work experience of head teacher, the size of the school and geographical location of the school.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late father Mr. Christopher Mabuku Silishebo who was very passionate about my education and my mother Mrs.Mombotwa Mabuku who continues to inspire me.

To the memory too of my late elder brother Silishebo Mabuku whose humility and intelligence set the pace for me.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	-	Analysis of Variance
ADB	-	African Development Bank
CPD	-	Continuous Professional Development
CC	-	Coordinating Curriculum
CSG	-	Communicating School Goals
DEBS	-	District Education Board Secretary
DESO	-	District Education Standards Officer
EMT	-	Educational Management Course
FSG	-	Framing School Goals
ICExCELS	-	Instructional and Curricular Excellence in School Principalship for Southeast Asia
ICT	-	Information and Communications Technology
JICA	-	Japan International Cooperation Agency
KCSE	-	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
MHV	-	Maintaining High Visibility
MANOVA	-	Multivariate analysis of Variance
MOESVTEE	-	Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education
MOE	-	Ministry of Education
MSP	-	Monitoring Student Progress
NISTCOL	-	National In-service Teachers' College

PIMRS	-	Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale
PPD	-	Promoting Professional Development
PIT	-	Protecting Instructional Time
PIL	-	Providing Incentives for Learners
PIT	-	Providing Incentives for Teachers
QILEP	-	Questionnaire on Instructional Leadership Employed by Principals
SEAMEO INNOTECH - Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology		
SMASTE	-	Strengthening Mathematics, Science & Technology Education
SPSS	-	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STEPS	-	Strengthening Teachers' Performance and Skills
SEI	-	Supervising and Evaluating Instruction
USA	-	United States of America

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

Chapter one provides the introductory information to the study. In order to provide the context for the study, the chapter begins by providing the background to the study and continues with statement of the problem, purpose and objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations and definitions of operational terms.

1.1 Background to the Study

Education worldwide is undergoing radical change and one of the challenges facing schools is the demand for the provision of quality education. Schools are being challenged to implement teaching and learning strategies that will prove effective for both teachers and pupils. These calls for the provision of quality education are bringing education into the limelight and as the calls for excellence are growing louder, the linkage between school leadership and the core business of schools which is quality teaching and learning is a growing concern as well.

Research shows that one of the factors that can influence the quality of teaching and learning in schools is the nature of leadership. Harris et al (2003) indicated that the most important single factor in the success of the schools is the quality of leadership of the head. Fullan (2001) also supports this when he states that increasingly, research has been associating school leadership with the quality of learning and teaching, the motivation of teachers and the ethos of the school.

Conventional wisdom about schooling asserts the existence of a positive correlation between the quality of teaching and learning in schools and the quality of leadership found in the schools. The operative notion is that the quality of teaching and learning is largely dependent upon an individual or group that exercises supervisory responsibility for the core business of schools; namely, curriculum, teaching and learning. Research further shows that effective schools do not only have good managers but also those who stressed the importance of instructional leadership. (Brookover and Lezotte, 1982)

Instructional leadership is defined as that leadership that puts teaching and learning as a priority in order to improve student learning. A simplistic approach to defining instructional leadership might be to just look at the vocabulary and that the concept of instructional leadership is exactly what is stated, “Leadership in the domain of instruction” or merely leadership for learning. (Terry,1995).

According to Fullan (1991) the role of the principal has become dramatically complex, overloaded, and unclear over the past decade. Stronge (1988) states that if principals are to heed the call from educational reformers to become instructional leaders it is obvious that they must take on a dramatically different role. He further adds that improved education for our children requires improved instructional leadership. Instructional leadership calls for a shift of emphasis from school leaders concentrating on managerial and administrative tasks to focus more on instruction and academic issues.

Many researchers (Brookover and Lezotte, 1982; Duke, 1983 [cited in Flath, 1989]; Edmonds, 1979 and Kroeze 1984[cited in Flath, 1989] stress the importance of instructional leadership responsibilities of the principal; however, the consensus in the literature regarding instructional

leadership is that it's seldom practiced. According to Stronge, (1988) 62.2% of the elementary principal's time is focused on school management issues, whereas only 6.2% of their time is focused on academic program issues. He adds that, "a typical principal performs an enormous number of tasks each day- but only 11% relate to instructional leadership" (p.32).

Interestingly, among the reasons cited for less emphasis given to instructional leadership is the lack of in depth training for their role as instructional leaders, lack of time to execute instructional activities, increased paper work and the community's expectation that the principal's role is that of a manager (Flath, 1989; Fullan, 1991). Berlin, Kavanagh, and Jensen (1988) conclude that, if schools are to progress, "the principal cannot allow daily duties to interfere with the leadership role in the curriculum" (p. 49).

Educational research does provide some evidence that supports the conventional wisdom with researchers identifying the positive effects that instructional leaders have upon teaching and learning outcomes. As an instructional leader, the principal is the pivotal point within the school who affects the quality of individual teacher instruction, the height of student achievement, and the degree of efficiency in school functioning. (Flath. 1989).

This is supported by several researchers such as Findley and Findley (1992) when they state that "If a school is to be an effective one, it will be because of the instructional leadership of the principal" (p.102). Flath (1989) concurs with this and adds that: "Research on effective schools indicates that the principal is pivotal in bringing about the conditions that characterize effective schools" (p. 102).

Ubben and Hughes (cited in Findley and Findley, 1992) claim that “although the principal must address certain managerial tasks to ensure an efficient school, the task of the principal must be to keep focused on activities which pave way for high student achievement” (p. 102). If our goal is to have effective schools, then we must look at ways to emphasize instructional leadership.

The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE) in Zambia has not been left behind in these calls for provision of quality education. It has over the years been struggling with ways to improve the quality of teaching and learning in schools so that standards of education could be raised and in order to have high student achievement. The Ministry of Education National policy document “Educating our Future” MoE (1996) identifies the vital role that the school head must play in the pursuit of excellence and quality in education. It acknowledges that the person with the major responsibility for this excellence is the school head.

According to the policy document, *Educating Our Future* (1996; p159), quality in education would be better assured if schools were dynamic in their pursuit of excellence. The policy outlines the characteristics of an effective school as follows:

- They have a strong leader who pays unremitting attention to the quality of teaching.
- They have high expectations for the performance of every pupil. No pupil is written off; standards that are both attainable by all are set and maintained.
- They have a clear focus on learning, with school time being used productively in a systematic approach to teaching and learning. The school’s instructional tasks take precedence over all other activities.

- They have an orderly, controlled atmosphere, with a clear set of general rules. School discipline, which is definite but not rigid, and establishes a predictable framework within which the essential teaching and learning tasks of the school can be carried on.
- Evaluation and assessment are used systematically. Learning is monitored closely so that teachers and the school head are constantly aware of pupil progress in relation to established goals.

Two points emerge from these indicators of excellence within a school as outlined by the Zambia National Policy on Education-Educating Our Future (1996). One is the vital role that the school head must play. Excellence is not something that happens to a school. It is something that must be deliberately and painstakingly created and maintained. The person with the major responsibility for this is the school head.

The policy document further stresses the need for head teachers to be instructional leaders if the quality of education has to improve. The Ministry of Education (1996) policy document “Educating our Future” states that:

Excellence is not something that happens in a school; it is something that must be deliberately and painstakingly created and maintained (p. 159).

The policy identifies instructional leadership by head teachers as a priority in enhancing the quality of education in schools. MoE (1996: 159) notes,

Before everything else, the head should be an instructional leader, who can enthuse teachers and pupils, who can fire them with interest and satisfaction in their teaching and learning tasks...

While the Ministry of Education policy document acknowledges that instructional leadership is critical in the realization of quality education, not much research has been done to establish whether head teachers are instructional leaders. Most of the studies carried out on head teachers in Zambia tended to have focused on their managerial and administrative practices, hence, the need for a study to find out whether head teachers in Zambia are instructional leaders as stated in the policy document.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Even though the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational, Training and Early Education policy document on education of 1996 acknowledges the need for head teachers to be instructional leaders if the quality of education has to improve, it is not clear whether head teachers are instructional leaders. This is because most of the research carried out on head teachers in Zambia, largely ignores the role of the head teacher as an instructional leader. The studies tended to have focused more on their managerial and administrative practices.

Therefore despite the policy expectations, it is not clear whether head teachers are instructional leaders and the extent to which they are. We also do not know the effect of the head teacher's instructional leadership practices on the teaching and learning process and whether these head teachers received relevant training prior to or after their appointment to the position.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study was to assess whether head teachers in the basic schools in Central Province of Zambia were instructional leaders as stated in the National Policy on Education (1996); Educating Our Future and to also establish the extent to which these head teachers practiced instructional leadership. In addition the study sought to assess the effect of instructional

leadership practices by these head teachers on the teaching and learning process and to further find out whether these head teachers received any training that prepared them for this role either at pre service or in service levels.

1.4 Objectives of the study

The specific objectives of the study were to:

1. Assess the perceptions of head teachers and teachers in the basic schools of Central Province about the instructional leadership role of the head teacher.
2. Establish the extent to which instructional leadership is being practiced by basic school head teachers in Central Province.
3. Assess the perceptions of the head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the effect of instructional leadership on the teaching and learning process.
4. Establish whether head teachers in the basic schools received any training that prepared them for this role either at pre service or in service.

1.5 Research Questions

The research questions for the study were:

1. What are the perceptions of the head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the instructional leadership role of the head teacher?
2. To what extent is Instructional leadership being practiced in the basic schools by head teachers?
3. What are the perceptions of head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the effect of instructional leadership on the teaching-learning process?
4. Did the head teachers in the basic schools receive any training that prepared them for this role either at pre service or in service level?

1.6 Significance of the study

As earlier stated in this study, the Ministry of Education Science, Vocational Training and Early Education National Policy on Education identifies the vital role that a head teacher should play

in the provision of quality education and stresses the need for head teachers to be instructional leaders if the quality of education has to improve.

The findings of this study therefore might be useful to the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESTVEE) policy makers to determine whether its policy objectives are being implemented and the extent to which the policy is achieving the desired effect in schools. Without studies such as this one, it might be difficult to know whether what is outlined in the policy document on the role of head teachers as instructional leaders is being implemented.

The findings may also provide the Ministry of Education and other stakeholders with more insights on the role of instructional leadership in the teaching and learning process in schools and may also provide evidence of the effect of instructional leadership on the teaching and learning process.

The findings may help as feedback to develop, refine and expand the training programmes for teachers and that such components like instructional leadership if not there, may be incorporated in the training programmes that offer courses in educational administration and leadership. The research findings could also prove useful for training purposes.

Training institutions in developing countries like Zambia have often relied on imported management development programmes, while such programmes can be useful, the impact of training is likely to be enhanced when it takes into account research-based findings drawn from the local or national context.

The study may also be useful to head teachers and help them to reflect on their leadership practices and this would help them see their strengths and weaknesses and thus work on the aspects of their leadership that may need improvement. Teachers too may draw inferences from the study and develop themselves academically especially in the area of school leadership training.

The study may also be a valuable contribution to the existing body of knowledge in the area of instructional leadership and may be a basis for further research in the same field.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

This study focused on instructional leadership practices of head teachers in selected basic schools in the Central Province of Zambia; therefore, the possibility of generalization may be limited. A study of instructional leadership practices of head teachers in one province may not be representative of all head teachers in the country. The results of this study may only be a representation of the sampled group.

However, it is hoped that an educational study of this nature could hopefully contribute to the generation of new ideas and perspectives on the instructional leadership practices of head teachers and the linkage between instructional leadership and the teaching and learning process.

1.8 Definition of Operational Terms

Terms that have been used in this study are defined below for clarity and understanding.

Leadership: Leadership involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure and facilitates activities and relationships in a group or organization. (Yukl,1998).

Education Leadership: is the ability of a school leader to initiate school improvement, to create a learning oriented educational climate, and to stimulate and supervise teachers in such a way that the teachers may carry out their tasks as effectively as possible (Van de Grift and Houtveen, 1990).

Instructional Leadership: Instructional leadership consists of behaviours, traits and processes of school leaders that set high expectations and clear goals for student and teacher performance, monitor and provide feedback regarding the core business of schools which is teaching and learning and provide professional growth for all members of staff (Blasé and Blasé 1998, 1999).

School Leader/Head teacher/Principal: This refers to a person in charge of a school. In Zambia the term used commonly is head teacher while in many other countries the term principal applies. The three words have been used interchangeably in this study.

Student/Pupil: This is a learner or someone who attends an educational institution. In other countries learners in secondary schools are referred to as students while in Zambia they are called pupils. These two words are also used interchangeably in some instances in this study.

Teaching-Learning Process: A planned interaction that promotes behavioural change that is not a result of maturation or coincidence. Teaching is an active process in which someone shares information with others in order to provide them with information that may lead to behavioural changes whereas learning is the process of assimilating information with a resultant change in behaviour.

School Manager: An individual who manages the school and directs the activities of others in order to get things done.

Management: This is an act of getting people together to accomplish desired goals and objectives using available resources efficiently and effectively. Management comprises planning, organizing, staffing, leading or directing, and controlling an organization (a group of one or more people or entities) or effort for the purpose of accomplishing a goal.

Administrator: A person who is responsible for running an organization.

Manager: A person who is responsible for planning and directing the work of a group of individuals.

Basic School: A school from Grade one to Grade nine.

1.9 Layout of the Thesis

This thesis is divided into six chapters. This chapter has presented the introduction and background information to the study. The next, chapter two, presents the review of the relevant literature to the study. Chapter three provides the research methodology used in this study and this include: the research design, target population, study sample and sampling procedure, research instruments and their reliability and validity, data collection and data analysis procedures. Chapter four presents the findings of the study and these are presented in both quantitative and qualitative forms. Statistical tables have been used where necessary. Chapter five presents the discussion of the findings in relation to the objectives of the study. Chapter six, which is the last chapter, comprises the conclusion of the study, recommendations as well as recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 Overview

The previous chapter presented introductory information to the study, beginning with the background to the study, purpose and objectives of the study, and also research questions, and significance of the study, limitations and delimitation of the study.

This chapter focuses on review of literature relevant to the study. It begins with the review of literature on the concept of leadership and instructional leadership. This is followed by a review of leadership theories that provide an overview and historical understanding of instructional leadership. The chapter also reviews the conceptual framework that guides this study.

The chapter further reviews literature on the indicators of instructional leadership and the effect of instructional leadership on teaching and learning. Furthermore, the chapter presents the review of literature regarding some studies done on instructional leadership, also studies pertaining to head teachers in Zambia and on school leadership training. The chapter further reviews literature on studies regarding instructional leadership that have utilized the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (1982, 1990) by Phillip Hallinger.

2.1 The Concept of Leadership

The definition of leadership in literature has been very diverse. Generally, leadership is defined in terms of traits, behaviours, roles, and processes. According to Yukl (1998), researchers usually define leadership according to their individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon that interest them. This definition includes the assumption that “leadership involves a process

whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure and facilitate activities and relationships in a group or organization.

The leadership definition continues to evolve and expand especially in education. Van de Grift and Houtveen (1990) define educational leadership as:

The ability of a school leader to initiate school improvement, to create learning oriented educational climate, and to stimulate and supervise teachers in such a way that the teachers may carry out their tasks as effectively as possible (p.373).

Instructional leadership exemplifies this definition in practice. Instructional leadership consists of principal behaviours that set high expectations and clear goals for student and teacher performance, monitor and provide feedback regarding the core business of schools which is teaching and learning, provide professional growth for all members of staff and help create and maintain a school climate of high academic press (Blasé and Blasé, 1999). Furthermore, Hoy and Hoy (2003) state that:

Above all, the principal must communicate a clear vision on instructional excellence and continuous professional development consistent with the goal of improvement of teaching and learning (p.2).

Instructional leadership encompasses “those actions that a school leader takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning” (Debevoise, 1984, pp. 14 -20) and comprises the following tasks: defining the purpose of schooling; setting school – wide goals; providing resources needed for learning to occur; supervising and evaluating teachers; coordinating staff development programmes; and creating collegial relationships with and among teachers (Wildy and Dimmock, 1993, p.44)

The term instructional leader encompasses a school leader who must lead toward educational achievement and one who makes instructional quality the top priority of the school. Above all such a leader must communicate a clear vision on instructional excellence and continuous professional development consistent with the goal of the improvement of teaching and learning. According to Richardson et al. (1989), the term instructional leadership clearly describes the primary role of the principal in the quest for excellence in education.

Leithwood et al (1999) defined instructional leadership as an approach to leadership that emphasizes the behaviour of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of student learning. According to Murphy (1988), instructional leadership focuses on leadership functions directly related to teaching and learning. Leithwood (1994) further defines instructional leadership as a series of behaviours that are designed to affect classroom instruction. Liu (1984) goes on to define instructional leadership as the type of leadership, which is made up of direct or indirect behaviours that significantly affect educator's instruction and, as a result, student learning. It also implies identifying and sharing goals and persuading teachers to work towards the goals.

Instructional leadership is also about the principal guiding and inspiring the teachers in putting their school curriculum into practice and improving it. It ensures that there is a culture of teaching and learning in the school because it is a path to good learning and teaching. One of the major components of instructional leadership is supervision. According to Rossouw (1990) as quoted in Zulu (2004), supervision is the key to principals' role in contributing to effective teaching and learning.

He further points out that the principal as supervisor has the major responsibility of communicating the overall school goals to the teachers as part of the evaluation process. Staff supervision is central to the improvement of the quality of teaching in a school and if the teachers are well managed and are aware of the benefits inherent in supervision; they need to be amenable towards supervision.

In a nut shell the researcher would like to state that instructional leadership is all about the head teacher focussing on the teaching and learning process which is the core business of schools in order to lead to better or high pupil performance. It is important to note too that improvements in pupil performance are likely to be achieved when the head teacher supervises and motivates teachers and gets involved in the core business of schools. Instructional leadership calls for a shift from head teachers focusing on administrative tasks to lead the teaching and learning in the school and make it top on their list of priorities. This is not to say administrative issues should be neglected but it's a matter of a balancing act.

2.2 Instructional Leadership: A Historical Evolution

Instructional leadership is a practice-based rather than a theory-driven construct, with wide, if not deep roots in American education (Bridges, 1967; Lipham, 1961 ;). More than 50 years ago, James Lipham (1961) asserted that effective principals were associated with effective schools. According to Hallinger (2011), it was during the 1980s that a sea of change in the thinking of instructional leadership began to be observed. Renewed interest in instructional leadership took inspiration from the findings that emerged from research on instructionally effective schools such as (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee, 1982; Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

In retrospect, the effective schools movement yielded two important legacies.

- The first was to provide substantive empirical support for conventional wisdom that instructional leadership was associated with school improvement (Bossert et al., 1982; Edmonds, 1979; Hallinger and Murphy, 1985).
- The second was to stimulate succeeding generations of increasingly sophisticated, large scale, international empirical research aimed at understanding if and how instructional leadership contributes to school effectiveness and improvement (Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Leithwood et al., 2008; Robinson, Lloyd, and Rowe, 2008; Witziers, Bosker, and Kruger, 2003).

Thirty years later there was substantial consensus on the importance of instructional leadership in efforts to raise and sustain the quality of teaching and learning in schools (Luppescu, and Easton, 2009; Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger and Heck, 1996; Leithwood et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2008) as cited in Hallinger (2011b). While this represents empirical confirmation of a long standing tenet of American education, this was not the case elsewhere in the world. It is only in the past decade that instructional leadership and its companion “leadership for learning” have attained broader international currency (Bell, Bolam, and Cubillo, 2003; Hallinger, 2011; Southworth, 2002; Witziers et al., 2003).

During the 1980s, the state of the art in instructional leadership was expressed in attempts to define the role and describe relevant workplace practices (Bossert et al., 1982; Dwyer, 1986; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Thirty years later researchers have made demonstrable progress in establishing how this role contributes to the quality of student learning (Hallinger, 2011;

Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood et al., 2004; Leithwood et al., 2008; Louis et al., 2010; Robinson et al., 2008).

Today, instructional leadership is viewed as a process through which leaders identify a direction for the school, motivate staff, and coordinate school and classroom based strategies aimed at improvements in teaching and learning. The current state-of-the-art concludes that instructional leadership:

- Affects conditions that create positive learning environments for students (Hallinger and Heck, 1998, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2008; Witziers et al., 2003).
- Creates an academic press and mediates expectations embedded in curriculum standards, structures, and processes (Bryk et al., 2009; Hallinger and Heck, 1996, 1998; Leithwood et al., 2008; Louis et al., 2010).
- Employs improvement strategies that are matched to the changing state of the school over time.
- Supports ongoing professional learning of staff, which, in turn, facilitates efforts of schools to undertake, implement, and sustain change (Hallinger, 2011; Leithwood et al., 2008; Louis et al., 2010; Robinson et al., 2008).

This description of the means by which instructional leadership affects school improvements is consistent with what scholars have termed a mediated-effects model of leadership (Hallinger and Heck, 1996). Leadership effects on learning are achieved indirectly by affecting people, work structures and processes, and school culture.

2.3 Leadership Theory

It is evident from the various definitions that researchers define instructional leadership through the traits, behaviours and processes a person needs to lead a school effectively. This study has reviewed various leadership theories such as, trait, behaviour, contingency, charismatic and

transformational leadership theories and these have provided a framework for understanding the historical perspective of instructional leadership.

2.3.1 Trait Theory

In the nineteenth and early twentieth century “great man” leadership theories asserted that leadership qualities were inherited, especially by people from the upper class. “Great men were born, not made” (Pierce and Newstrom, 2006; p.69). The assumption of this early approach was that leadership consists of certain inherited characteristics or personality traits, which distinguish leaders from their followers. The focus was on the person in the job and not on the job itself.

Early in the twentieth century, the great man theories evolved into trait theories. (“Trait” is used broadly here to refer to people’s general characteristics, including capacities, motives, or patterns of behaviour).

The trait approach may be categorized into two phases: early and modern. The early phase of the trait theory argued that leadership capacity could be determined by a person’s individual attributes such as personality, physical characteristics, intelligence, motives, temperament, and skills. This early phase of the theory focused on comparing leaders to non- leaders. The trait approach argued that leadership is in born. It further asserted that leaders’ characteristics are different from non-leaders. Pierce and Newstrom (2006) observed that the trait theories of leadership approach resulted from the initial interest in personal qualities and characteristics of ‘successful leaders’. It was believed that if traits could be identified, leaders could be predicted.

The trait view was brought into question during the mid- century when a prominent theorist, Ralph Stogdill (1948), after a thorough review of literature concluded that a person does not

become a leader by virtue of possession of some combination of traits. Stogdill's review demonstrated that certain personal traits were associated with leadership. The five general categories include:

- Capacity – intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgment;
- Achievement – scholarship, knowledge, athletic, accomplishments;
- Responsibility – dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self-confidence, desire to excel;
- Status – socioeconomic position, popularity (Stogdill, 1948 p. 63-64).

However, Stogdill (1948) believed that although traits could differentiate leaders from non-leaders, they alone do not produce reliable empirical results because research showed that no traits were universally associated with effective leadership and that situational factors were also influential. He proposed that situational factors also must be considered:

A person does not become a leader by virtue of possession of some combination of traits.....the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers (Stogdill, 1948).

The modern phase of trait theory produced more consistent results about the relationship between traits and leadership effectiveness. Stogdill's follow-up study (1974) reviewed 163 trait studies conducted between 1949- 1970. He concluded that many of the leadership traits that distinguished leaders from non-leaders were consistent with leadership effectiveness.

The leader is characterized by a strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigour, and persistence in pursuit of goals, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other persons, behaviour and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand (Stogdill, 1974, p.81).

Traits alone, however, are not sufficient for leadership effectiveness, they are only a pre-condition. Yukl asserts, “A leader with certain traits could be effective in one situation but be ineffective in a different situation” (1998, p.236).

He goes on to say that Leaders who possess the requisite traits must take certain actions to be successful (e.g. formulating a vision, role modelling, setting goals). Possessing the appropriate traits only makes it more likely that such actions will be successful.

The trait theory continues to develop trait variables associated with effective leadership. Hoy and Miskel (2000) have categorized these traits into three groups: personality, motivation and skills. Personality traits consist of personal characteristics that are inherent to an individual’s actions and demeanour such as self- confidence, integrity, energy, stress tolerance, and emotional maturity. Motivation traits include a person’s level of expectations, power, drive, and intensity. Skills associated with effective leadership encompass relevant task knowledge and skills needed to accomplish goals and objectives set forth by an organization.

Trait theory and research have provided researchers and practitioners with a useful background about leadership traits and effectiveness. It is helpful in the process of selecting an educational leader that a balance and fit are made between the person’s personal traits and the environmental situations that are involved. Therefore, the trait theory in practice should lead to an effective choice and goodness of fit for both the organization and leader.

2.3.2 Leadership Behaviour Theory

The leadership behaviour theory provides the framework for behavioural research of leaders. This theory was prominent in the 1940s and 1960s advocating that effectiveness in leadership

has to do a lot with how the leader behaves (Derelg, 2003). It hypothesizes that there are leadership behaviours that exist that distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders. Robbins (2003) indicated that the failure of tracing ‘gold’ in the trait ‘mines’ urged researchers to examine the behaviours that specific leaders exhibited. Daft (2005) stated that the failure to identify a universal set of leadership traits led researchers in the early 1950s to begin looking at what a leader does, rather than who he or she is.

Behavioural studies of leadership aim to identify behaviours that differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Mullins (2007) also indicated that behavioural approach draws attention to the kinds of behaviour of leadership situations. The conceptualization of leadership behaviours has centred around two main characteristics: interpersonal relations or consideration for others and task-oriented behaviours such as goal attainment, production, and structure (Yukl, 1998; Hoy and Miskel, 2000).

Yukl (1998) proposes an integrated framework for classifying behaviours. His taxonomy includes three factors that are closely aligned with “consideration” and “initiating structure”. They include task- oriented behaviour, relations- oriented behaviours, and change- oriented behaviours. Yukl (1998) provides a brief description of each factor:

- Task- oriented behaviour- Doing things that are primarily concerned with accomplishing the task, utilizing personnel and resources efficiently, maintaining stable and reliable operations, making incremental improvements in quality and productivity. Key component behaviours include clarifying roles, planning and organizing and monitoring operations. This category includes initiating structure but is defined more broadly.
- Relations- oriented behaviour- Doing things that are primarily concerned with improving relationships and helping people, increasing cooperation and teamwork, increasing subordinate job satisfaction, and building identification with the organization. Key component behaviours include supporting, developing,

recognizing, consulting, and managing conflict. This category is similar to consideration, but it is defined more broadly and in a way that seeks to integrate task concerns as well.

- Change-oriented behaviour- Doing things that are primarily concerned with improving strategic decisions, adapting to change in the environment, making major changes in objectives, processes, or products/services, and gaining commitment to changes. Key component behaviours include scanning and interpreting external events, articulating an appealing vision, proposing innovative strategies, making persuasive appeals about the need for change, encouraging and facilitating experimentation, and developing a coalition to support and implement change. (p.61).

Leaders need to use all the three categories of behaviours depending on different situations and organizational environments. Hoy and Miskel (2000) contend that,

In sum, appropriately applying or balancing different types of behaviours for varying situations is fundamental to enhancing leadership performance (p.402).

2.3.3 Contingency Theories of Effective Leadership

Contingency theories seek to explain the moderating or intervening variables that distinguish a leader's behaviour across situations. This type of theory embraces leadership traits, characteristics of a situation, and how these factors impact on leader effectiveness. According to Mullins (2007), there is no single style of leadership that is appropriate to all situations.

Contingency theories of leadership emphasize the situation as the dominant feature in considering the characteristics of effective leadership (Mullins, 2007). Daft (2005) indicated that the idea behind contingency theories is that leaders can analyse their situation and tailor their behaviour to improve leadership effectiveness. Contingency theories emphasize that leadership cannot be understood in a vacuum separate from various elements of group or organizational situation. Path goal theory is presented as one of the prominent theories of contingency.

The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership

The path goal theory of leadership was developed to explain how the behaviour of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates (Yukl, 2002). According to House (1971, p.324),

The motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the paths to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route.

The path- goal theory postulated that a leader's behaviour influence the satisfaction, motivation and performance of subordinates. It evolved around a causal relationship among the leader's behaviour, situation and subordinate's satisfaction, motivation, and performance. According to path-goal theory, the effect of leader behaviour on subordinate satisfaction and effort depends on aspects of the situation, including task characteristics and subordinate characteristics.

According to Yukl (2002) these situation moderator variables determine both the potential for increased subordinate motivation and the manner in which the leader must act to improve motivation. Situational variables also influence subordinate preferences for a particular pattern of leadership behaviour, thereby influencing the impact of the leader on subordinate satisfaction.

House (1996) reformulated the path-goal theory in response to empirical research and to keep pace with the changing nature of organizations. The propositions of the theory have been broadened to include the effects of the leader on subordinates' abilities to perform effectively and the leader's effect on work- unit performance as well as on dyadic relationships. Leadership behaviours have been increased from four to ten: path goal clarifying, achievement oriented,

work facilitation, supportive, interaction, group oriented decision process, representation, networking, value based, and shared leadership.

2.3.4 Charismatic Leadership

The current theories of charismatic leadership were strongly influenced by the ideas of Max Weber. Weber (1947) defined charisma as a leader's influence based on the follower's perception that the leader possesses endowed exceptional qualities. According to Weber, charisma occurs when there is a social crisis, a leader emerges with a radical vision that offers a solution to the crisis, the leader attracts followers who believe in the vision, they experience some successes that make the vision appear attainable, and the followers come to perceive the leader as extraordinary. According to Yukl (2002), several theories of charismatic leadership exist.

Leader Traits and Behaviours

According to Yukl (2002), follower attributions of charisma depend on several types of leader behaviour. Charisma is more likely to be attributed to leaders who advocate a vision that is highly discrepant from the status quo, but still within the latitude of acceptance by followers.

Charisma is more likely to be attributed to leaders who act in an unconventional ways from conventional ways of doing things in order to impress followers that the leader is extraordinary (p.262).

According to House (1977), charismatic leaders have a strong need for power, high self-confidence, strong conviction of beliefs and ideas, well- developed communication skills, and the skill to arouse high degrees of motivation in followers. Conditions that foster charismatic leadership include times of crisis, need for change, work environments that provide for the defining task roles in ideological terms that appeal to the followers (House, 1977; Yukl, 1998).

Self- Concept Theory of Charismatic Leadership

House (1977) proposed a theory to explain charismatic leadership in terms of a set of testable propositions involving observable processes rather than folklore and mystique. The theory identifies how charismatic leaders behave, their traits and skills, and the conditions in which they are most likely to emerge.

Shamir et al. (1993) revised and extended the theory by including aspects of human motivation. The theory attempts to explain why charismatic leaders are able to influence followers to rise above their own self-interests for the good of the organization. According to Yukl, (2002) the following assumptions were made about human motivation;

- Behaviour is expressive of a person's feelings, values, and self-concept as well as being pragmatic and goal oriented
- A person's self-concept is composed of a hierarchy of social identities and values
- People are intrinsically motivated to enhance and defend their self-esteem and self-worth
- People are intrinsically motivated to maintain consistency among the various components of their self-concept and between their self-concept and behaviour.

Personal identification occurs when the leader makes self-sacrifices to demonstrate courage and leadership. The leader is perceived by followers as one who wants the best for them and will do anything to achieve it. Social identification comes about as the leader provides a sense of unit for a group with the use of shared values, beliefs, norms among the group.

The internalization process develops as followers begin to link their self-concepts to their work and the values of followers are defined in terms of task objectives. Intrinsic motivation becomes

apparent in effort and completion of tasks. According to Alig- Mielcarek (2003), Charismatic leaders raise levels of self and collective efficacy by setting high expectations and espousing high levels of confidence in followers to achieve. Followers believe that they personally, and as a group, can accomplish and obtain goals and objectives set forth.

2.3.5 Transformational Leadership

The theory of transformational leadership was developed by Burns in 1978. He defines transformational leadership as a process in which “leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation” (p.20). With transformational leadership, the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty, and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they originally expected to do.

According to Bass (1985), the leader transforms and motivates followers by making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes, inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team and activating their higher- order needs. Transformational leadership increases follower motivation and performance more than transactional, but effective leaders use a combination of both leadership types.

According to Bass (1985), a transformational leader is one who motivates the follower to do more than they would ordinarily not do. He further says transformational leadership goes beyond the ordinary needs of the organization and its members to foster higher level needs for change and potential. A transformational leader is one who turns the everyday routine into a shared vision for the organization.

Burns (1978) says,

The transformational leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. (p.4)

According to Keely, (1998), the objective of transformational leadership is

“To turn individuals’ attention toward larger causes, thereby converting self-interest into collective concerns” (p.113)

The primary characteristic of transformational leadership is having a common goal or shared vision. The purpose of leaders and followers “which might have started out as separate but related, as in the case of transactional leadership, become fused” (Burns 1978, p.20).

The leadership theories reviewed above provided an overview of instructional leadership and showed how a head teacher who is an instructional leader could utilize the characteristics of the various theories and become effective. The instructional leadership construct combines many of these theories and puts them into practice. Strong instructional leaders possess specific traits and behaviours, such as charisma, which can be applied in different situations and environments.

This is exemplified in the diagram below:

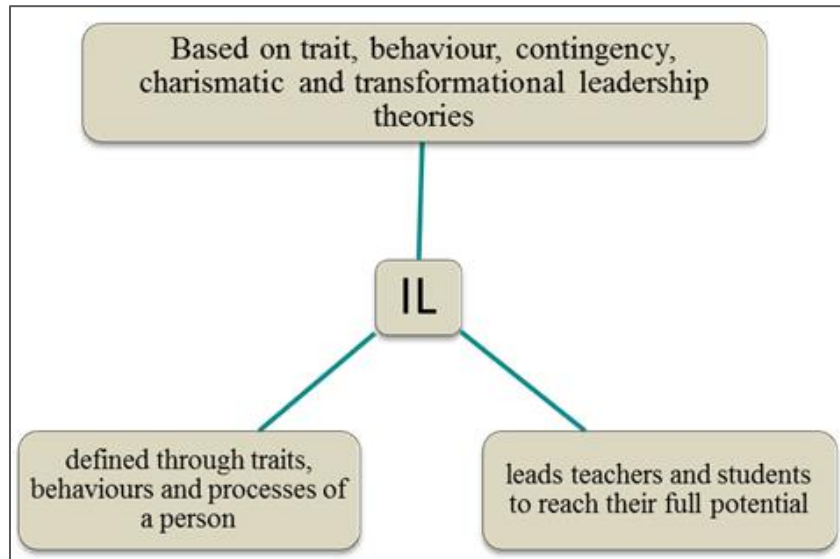


Figure 2.3-1 Leadership Theory: an overview of Instructional Leadership (Source: Author)

The premise of instructional leadership is to lead teachers and students to reach their full potential by creating conducive learning environments, defining and communicating shared goals, monitoring the teaching and learning process and providing continuous development to teachers and other stakeholders.

2.4 Conceptual Framework

A multitude of conceptual models that demonstrate instructional leadership were proposed during the 1980s; (Andrews and Soders, 1987; Bossert et al; 1982; Hallinger and Murphy, 1985; Leithwood, Begley and Cousins, 1990; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982, Van de Grift, 1987 ;) as cited in Hallinger (2005). This study has been guided by the model proposed by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) because it is the model that has been used most frequently in empirical investigations on instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2008; Hallinger and Heck, 1996) and which the researcher felt would make assessment and measurement of the of instructional leadership

role of head teachers easier as it clearly defines the concept of instructional leadership and breaks it down into dimensions and job functions that are measurable.

Bridges (1967) highlighted the importance of starting with a sound definition of what is meant by instructional leadership. In their review article, Bossert and colleagues (1982) began to define this construct, which they termed instructional management. They selected the term instructional management because they inferred that this role of the principal revolved around core managerial functions concerned with the “coordination and control” of curriculum and instruction (Cohen & Miller, 1980).

However, overtime instructional leadership became the term more commonly used by scholars and practitioners. The formal distinction between these terms lies in the sources of power by which the leader achieves results. Instructional leadership became the preferred term due to the recognition that principals who operate from this frame of reference rely more upon expertise and influence than on the formal authority and position power to achieve a sustainable impact on staff motivation and behaviour, and student learning. (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger and Heck, 1996a).

Another early attempt to provide a clear definition of instructional leadership came from Hallinger and Murphy in the early 1980s. Their proposed conceptual framework incorporated three dimensions in this role: *Defining the School’s Mission, Managing the Instructional Program, and Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate* (Hallinger and Murphy, 1985).

These dimensions were further delineated into 10 instructional leadership functions as shown in the figure below:

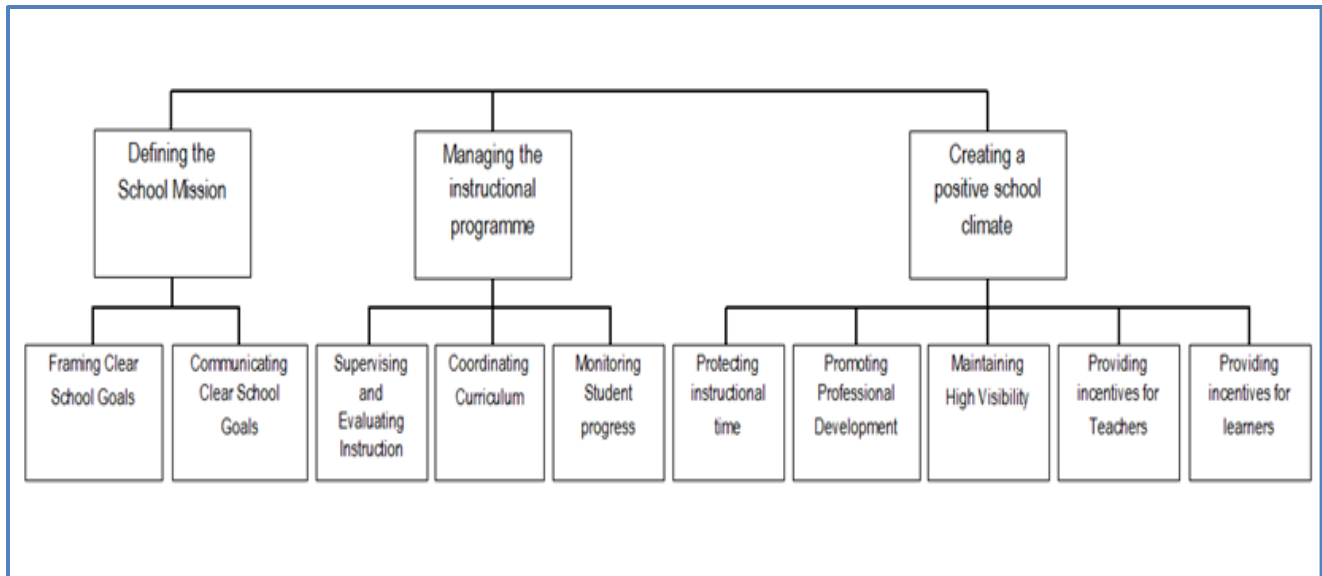


Figure 2.4-1 PIMRS Conceptual Framework (Source: Hallinger and Murphy 1985)

The two functions, Framing the School’s Goals and Communicating the School’s Goals, comprise the dimension defining the School’s Mission. These concern the principal’s role in working with staff to ensure that the school has a clear mission and that the mission is focused on the academic progress of its students.

Hallinger and Murphy (1985) note that this dimension does not assume that the principal defines the school mission alone, instead it proposes that the principal is responsible for ensuring that such a mission exists, for communicating it widely to staff, and ensuring that there is a shared purpose underlying staff efforts to improve teaching and learning in the school. This dimension is the starting point for creating a learner- centred school.

The second dimension is managing the Instructional Program. This incorporates three leadership functions: Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Coordinating the Curriculum, and Monitoring Student Progress. This dimension focuses on the role of the principal in “managing the technical

core” of the school (Hallinger et al., 1983; Hallinger and Murphy 1985). Although in larger schools it is clear that the principal is not the only person involved in monitoring and developing the school’s instructional program, the principal is expected to ensure that these tasks are carried out.

The third dimension, promoting a Positive School Learning Climate, includes several functions: Protecting Instructional Time, Promoting Teacher Professional Development, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, and Providing Incentives for Learning. This dimension is broader in scope and intent than the second dimension and overlaps with dimensions incorporated into transformational leadership frameworks (Hallinger, 2003; Leithwood et al., 2006).

It conforms to the notion that successful schools create an “academic press” through the development of high standards and expectations, and a culture that fosters and rewards continuous learning and improvement (Bossert et al., 1982, Hallinger and Murphy, 1985a; Murphy, Hallinger, Purkey and Smith, 1983).

These three dimensions and their composite functions represent a research- informed framework conceptualizing the principal’s role as an instructional leader. Although this framework proposes that coordination and control of the academic program of the school remains a key leadership responsibility of the principal, in practice many specific activities and tasks may be shared, delegated, or distributed (Hallinger, 2003; Marks and Printy; 2003, Spillane, 2006).

Indeed, over the past three decades the field has increasingly recognized that the scope of tasks involved in enacting instructional leadership often goes beyond the principal’s responsibility

(Barth, 2001; Hallinger and Heck, 2010; Marks and Printy, 2003; Spillane, 2006) as cited Hallinger (2012).

2.5 Effect of Instructional Leadership on Teaching and Learning

Many studies of effective schools emphasized instructional leadership as one of the features of effective schools. It has been identified as the driving force behind the principal to ensure that effective teaching and learning take place in a school. Cawood and Gibbon (1981: 7) described instructional leadership as follows:

Instructional leadership is a process of guiding and encouraging the teacher along a path towards greater professional effectiveness. Such guidance demands very careful, far sighted and effective planning, based on professional insight and constructive and accurate analysis of the teaching- learning activity.

Principals who possess instructional leadership qualities show concern for the students and what teachers do by being visible, they walk around the school to observe how teaching and learning are occurring and when there is something good occurring, they will praise the teachers (Blasé and Blasé 1998). Below are the likely objectives of the principal's walk through in the classrooms:

- Motivating teachers
- Monitoring instruction
- Being accessible and providing support
- Keeping informed.

Instructional leadership may not encompass all the other aspects of a school; however, it focuses on the core business of a school which is teaching and learning. As an instructional leader, the principal is the pivotal point within the school who affects the quality of individual teacher instruction, the height of student achievement, and the degree of efficiency in school functioning.

Findley and Findley (1992) state that “if a school is to be an effective one, it will be because of the instructional leadership of the principal” (p. 102).

Flath (1989) concurs that: “Research on effective schools indicates that the principal is pivotal in bringing about the conditions that characterize effective schools” (p.20). Ubben and Hughes (cited in Findley & Findley, 1992) claim that:

Although the principal must address certain managerial tasks to ensure an efficient school, the task of the principal must be to keep focused on activities which pave the way for high student achievement (p. 102).

Kruger (2003: 207) suggested the presence of the following aspects in a school in order for instructional leadership to succeed:

- All the role players value the processes of teaching and learning
- Practices reflect a commitment to teaching and learning
- The resources needed to facilitate the process of teaching and learning are available
- The school is structured to facilitate the processes of teaching and learning.

Purkey and Smith’s review (1983), as well as other studies discussed (Brookover and Lezotte, 1982; Edmonds, 1979), provide significant evidence that instructional leadership impacts the technical core of schools. The influence that an instructional leader has on the teaching and learning is extensive. Researchers have studied this influence with positive results.

Many studies of teachers’ perceptions about characteristics of school leaders that influence the teaching and learning process have concluded that behaviours associated with instructional leadership positively influence classroom instruction (Blasé and Blasé, 1999, 1998; Sheppard, 1996; Chrispeels, 1992).

Blasé and Blasé's (1998, 1999) findings indicate that when instructional leaders monitor and provide feedback on the teaching and learning process, there were increases in teacher reflection and reflectively informed instructional behaviours, a rise in implementation on new ideas, greater variety in teaching strategies, more response to student diversity, lessons were prepared and planned more carefully, teachers were more likely to take risks and had more focus on the instructional process, and teachers used professional discretion to make changes in the classroom. Teachers also indicated positive effects on motivation, satisfaction, confidence, and sense of security.

Conversely, principals that did not engage in monitoring and providing feedback of the teaching and learning process had a negative effect on teachers and classroom practice (Blasé and Blasé, 1998). Teachers with non-instructional leaders felt a sense of abandonment, anger, and futility, as well as lower levels of trust and respect for the principal, motivation and self-efficacy.

Instructional leadership behaviours associated with promoting professional growth and staff development yield positive effects for classroom practice (Blasé and Blasé, 1998, 1999; Sheppard, 1996; Chrispeels, 1992).

In particular, leaders that engage in behaviours that inform staff about current trends and issues, encourage attendance of workshops, seminars, and conferences, build a culture of collaboration and learning, promote coaching, use inquiry to drive staff development, set professional growth goals with teachers, and provide resources that foster teacher innovation in using a variety of methods, materials, instructional strategies, reflective practice, and technology in the classroom. This in turn, increases the likelihood of increased student achievement (Sheppard, 1996; Blasé and Blasé, 1998).

Locke and Latham (1990) assert that goal setting is an effective way to increase motivation and performance. They argue that goals increase attention to obtainment of task, increase the effort expended on goal relevant activities, increase persistence to achieve, and increase the development of strategies to obtain the goal.

Bookbinder (1992) explains that frequent communication of school goals by instructional leaders promotes accountability, a sense of personal ownership and instructional improvements. Principals that define and communicate shared goals with teachers provide organizational structures that guide the school toward a common focus.

An additional criterion for instructional leaders, often mentioned in research, is that the principal should also be a practicing teacher. Weindling (1990) states that head teachers in the United Kingdom indicated that “the most important thing contributing to instructional leadership was the fact that all continued to teach for an average of about 20 percent of the week” (p. 42).

According to Harden (1988), principals need to work closely with students in order to have credibility, developing teaching techniques and methods as a means for understanding teacher perspectives and for establishing a base on which to make curricular decisions. Also, a teaching principal strengthens the belief that “the sole purpose of the school is to serve the educational needs of students” (p. 88).

An effective school head also understands what good teaching is (Arnold, 2004). Literature has shown that the quality of the leadership of the head teacher matters in determining the quality of teaching which takes place in the classroom (Erant, 1994; Hargreaves, 1994; and Hargreaves and

Fullan, 1998). According to McEwan (2003) effective school heads are knowledgeable about teaching and learning, and serve as instructional leaders within the school building.

Beck and Murphy, (1996) further add that effective school heads believe it is critical to be up to date on best practices in instruction and assessment, and seek out opportunities to learn more about good teaching. Not only do effective school heads understand what good teaching is, they recognize that their primary goal is to improve the effectiveness of their teachers (Whitaker, 2003).

Harris et al. (2003) indicated that school heads play a crucial role in school wide efforts to raise standards of teaching and pupil learning achievement. Leadership at the school building level is one of the factors that affect pupils' achievement in that it influences teaching and learning. High quality teaching and learning for all students depends substantially on effective school leadership. According to Bush et al (1999) as cited in Maliwatu (2011) school leaders influence school and classroom processes that have a direct impact on student achievement and offer encouragement and support to their teachers.

School heads are held accountable for the educational quality in the belief that students' success or failure is determined by the way a school is run. Quinn (2002) indicated that principals in high achieving schools, as measured by academic achievement in a variety of areas, are more effective instructional leaders than their counterparts in consistently low achieving schools.

Davis et al (2005) also observed that principals' abilities are central to the task of being schools that promote powerful teaching and learning for all students.

Davis et al (2005:8) stated,

Principals play a vital and multifaceted role in setting the direction for successful schools that are positive and productive workplaces for teachers and vibrant learning environments for children.

According to Donaldson (1991), in a good school, where the children learn a lot and enjoy their work, the head of the school is typically someone who knows what the school wants to achieve and helps teachers to work together towards shared goals.

The importance of leadership in securing sustainable school improvement has been demonstrated in both research and practice. According to Barringer (2006) as cited in Maliwatu (2011), research has emphasized the critical role of head teachers in improving schools. Snowden and Gorton (2002) stated that for any improvements efforts targeted at the school level, the head teacher is the key person in providing the leadership necessary for such efforts to be met with success. Davis et al (2005) emphasizes the unique position head teachers hold that places them in a powerful position to coordinate the entire school operation and move it forward.

Various researchers that include Jantzi and Leithwood, (1996); Hallinger and Heck, (1996); and Fullan,(2001) have observed that effective school heads identify and articulate a shared vision; create an atmosphere of trust and patience; convey high performance expectations for students and teachers; encourage teachers to be creative and try new strategies; provide intellectual stimulation; build a productive school culture.

They further state that such heads have a strong belief in the value of honest and open communication, collegiality, and willingness and ability to be flexible; help structure the school to enhance participation in decisions; foster the acceptance of group goals; lead by example;

focus first on students and their learning; supports and empowers their colleagues; understand change processes; recognize and reward the achievement and struggles of others; invites participation and shares responsibility; and uses expectations to change the attitudes and behaviours.

According to researchers such as Clark and Clark (1996) as cited in Zulu (2004), principals of successful schools provide leadership and a sense of direction, have a clear vision based on values and beliefs, create the culture and climate of schools, behave strategically, and promote quality. Leithwood et al (2004) outlined three sets of leadership practices.

- Developing people- Enabling teachers and other staff to do their jobs effectively, offering intellectual support and stimulation.
- To improve work, providing models of practice and support; Setting direction for the organization- developing shared goals, monitor organizational performance and promoting effective communication
- Redesigning the organization- Creating a productive school culture, monitor organizational structures that undermine the work and building collaboration.

2.6 Shared Instructional Leadership

As stated earlier, instructional leadership involves efforts to improve the instructional Programme in a school so that more students learn at high levels. Traditionally, school administrators met their instructional role responsibilities by assuming a top-down supervisory approach that focused on monitoring and evaluating teacher performance. Contemporary research emphasizes collaborative approaches to instructional improvement where principals share leadership responsibilities with teachers and promote teachers' professional growth and learning.

Marks and Printy (2003) defined shared instructional leadership as collaborative work on curriculum, instruction and assessment where the principal seeks out and utilizes teacher expertise in these areas to improve teaching and learning. Teachers share responsibility for staff development, curriculum development, and instructional supervision with the principal, who serves as a leader of leaders, rather than the sole leader in the school.

Marks and Printy (2003) further argue that, under this model, the principal encourages teachers to improve curriculum, instruction and assessment. Thus leadership for improved student learning involves both individual efforts by the principal to transform school cultures and joint efforts by the principal and teachers to increase the effectiveness of instructional practice.

One of the tasks of instructional leadership is to transform school culture to support collaboration and collegiality among teachers this is because teaching is no longer viewed as the efforts of individual teachers working autonomously in isolated classrooms.

An analysis of research conducted by Hallinger (2005) and Blasé and Blasé (2000) provides insight into characteristics of the cultures that are required for collaborative professional work in today's schools. A synthesis of their findings indicates that principals should work to:

- Create a shared sense of purpose and a vision for improved teaching and learning
- Build a school climate of high expectations and trust
- Be a visible presence in the school, modelling the desired values of the school culture
- Encourage and support inquiry, innovation, and reflective practice
- Value and support professional learning by providing a wide range of activities aimed at intellectual stimulation and the continuous development of staff.

2.7 Approaches to Instructional leadership

As indicated in the literature above, most researchers agree that the principal is a key element in establishing an effective school. Jenkins (1991) cited in Zulu (2004) says that effective schools focus on teaching and learning and the ability of a school leader to offer strong instructional leadership is a key factor in assuring academic effectiveness.

Rossouw (1990) as cited in Zulu (2004) sees the principal's leadership role as having three dimensions and these are as follows:

Modelling

Rossouw (1990) suggests that the principal's role should be that of modelling for an academic emphasis. The principal should set the tone and focus of the school by observing classroom lessons, enforcing discipline code in a fair but firm manner and setting the goals for the school that are supported by the administration, staff and students. Rossouw (1990) further points out that the behaviours of principals communicate what is really valued to both teachers and students. The teachers and the students will tend to imitate the actions, attitudes and beliefs of those in authority such as the principal.

According to Cotton and Blum (1985) as cited in Zulu (2004) principals in high achieving schools create safe and orderly environments where students feel a sense of responsibility for their learning. Principals are highly visible, visiting classrooms frequently so that they know what is going on. Principals of effective schools model an academic emphasis by visiting classrooms, talking with teachers about their teaching.

Consensus Building

Rossouw (1990) argues that the behaviours that the principal displays that enhance consensus will improve prospects for an effective school. He further states that, in building consensus for academic emphasis, the principal should encourage teachers to meet together to plan course content and sequencing of topics from grade to grade.

Consensus for orderly environment can be accomplished if the principal has periodic sessions with the teachers concerning student behaviour. Principals of schools are both educational and instructional leaders. In improving the instructional programme, principals must be able to work with teachers in planning, evaluating, controlling and decision making.

Feedback

Thirdly, Rossouw (1990) points out that by communicating feedback that builds expectations for success to the teachers, the principal improves the chances of high performance of the school. He further emphasizes that teachers and students must be rewarded for things done correctly, and for things not done correctly they should experience some penalty which should be rather corrective than punitive.

The Supervisory Role of the Principal

As stated earlier, supervision is the key to the principal's role in effective classroom instruction. It is central to the improvement of the quality of teaching in a school. Lovell and Willes (1983) as cited in Zulu (2004) define instructional supervision as a subsystem of the educational organization, which is formally provided by the organization to interact directly with teaching

behaviour to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching. The key person in the supervision exercise is the principal. It is therefore important for the principal, as the supervisor, to have a shared perception of what is supposed to be happening in the classroom with the teacher.

Bondi and Wiles (1986) point out that in improving instruction through supervision, the principal should become more clinical in reviewing the processes and procedures of the classroom. They further argued that it is essential that the supervisor and the teacher develop a shared reality that can become the basis of professional dialogue. The principal has to be systematic by drawing the connection between curriculum and instruction for the teacher. This will enable the principal to understand the teacher's classroom practices and concerns and be in a position to provide the necessary assistance.

Classroom Visits and Observation

Researchers such as Bondi and Wiles (1986) have suggested some models of supervision that could be used effectively by school principals. One such model is the clinical supervision model by Cogan (1973) as illustrated by Rossouw (1990) in the diagram below:

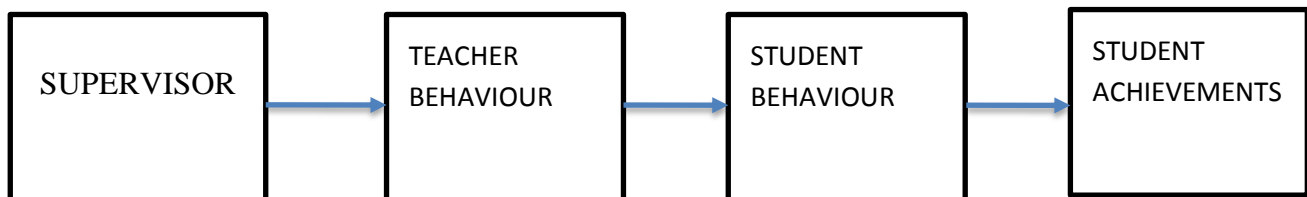


Figure 2.7-1 Clinical supervision model (Source: Cogan (1973) and Rossouw (1990) as cited in Zulu, 2004)

This model consists of 4 stages:

(a) Pre- Conference

The principal and teacher aim to reach a common understanding of the objectives, approaches to learning and teaching and the intended outcomes in a lesson.

(b) Classroom Observations

The principal gathers information through observation while the teacher conducts the planned lesson.

(c) Analysis and Reflection

The principal and teacher reflect on the lesson and draw inferences from what transpired and what was observed.

(d) Post- Conference

The principal and teacher meet to share their analysis and draw implications, intentions on the part of the teacher and the basis for discussion and judgments are provided.

According to Roussow (1990) classroom visits and lesson observations form the basis of the principal's supervision practices. This means that supervision is focused on improving professional performance so as to deliver the valued outcomes of the school which includes increased student achievement.

Once again, the above model supports and reiterates what has been stated earlier in this literature review that principal's instructional leadership affects student performance indirectly by influencing teacher behaviour and other structures. Empirical studies of the effect of

leadership on student achievement show that the effects are indirect (Barker, 2007). There is consensus that the indirect effect on student outcomes is achieved through direct impact on instruction organization and culture (Kruger, Witziers and Slegers, 2007).

The Power of Praise

According to Blasé and Kirby (1992) praise is one of the important strategies that can influence teachers' work. They further point out that positive reinforcement is universally accepted as a correlate of effective teaching. Principals as former teachers are expected to automatically translate this teaching behaviour into the leadership domain, because praise is vital for instructional leadership. In a school where principals use praise as a strategy to motivate their teachers, there is a healthy atmosphere conducive to effective teaching and learning.

The Principal's Role in The Curriculum Management

Curriculum management is primarily concerned with promoting quality learning and teaching in the classroom. Hall, MacKay and Morgan (1986) as cited in Zulu (2004) view the principal as a key player in dealing with both educational policy and curricular matters in his school. They suggest that all the activities connected with the setting of the main aims and objectives of the school, the provision of an academic and pastoral curriculum to meet the needs of the whole range of pupils, and the management and methods of teaching, rests with the principal.

This shows that it becomes the principal's major responsibility to coordinate the delivery of the curriculum as it was intended by those who planned the programme. Principals are thus the linkage between the desired ends identified in a departmental plan and delivered curriculum as found in the classroom.

According to Bondi and Wiles (1986) principals are perfectly positioned to observe curriculum planning and implementation because they operate at the school and classroom level. They further state that principals must ensure that the desired change is occurring, that improvements are directional and that the results obtained are those projected in the planning process.

This emphasizes the fact that every principal should be directly involved in all curricular related matters of their school. The principals should therefore keep themselves updated with new developments in education pertaining to curricular planning, development, monitoring and evaluation.

2.8 Indicators of Instructional Leadership

After a thorough literature review, indicators of instructional leadership in a school were summarized by the researcher as shown below:

Table 2.8-1 Indicators of Instructional Leadership

- A strong head teacher who pays unremitting attention to the quality of teaching.
- A highly visible leader who supervises and evaluates the teaching and learning.
- A clear focus on learning, with school time used productively in a systematic approach to teaching and learning.
- The school's instructional tasks take precedence over all other activities.
- An orderly, controlled environment, with a clear set of general rules.
- School discipline, which is definite but not rigid, and establishes a predictable framework within which the essential teaching and learning tasks of the school can be carried out.
- Learning is monitored closely so that teachers and the school head are constantly aware of pupil progress in relation to established goals.
- All role players value the processes of teaching and learning
- Practices reflect a commitment to teaching and learning
- The resources needed to facilitate the process of teaching and learning are available.
- The school is structured to facilitate the processes of teaching and learning.
- Frequently observes teaching and provides feed back
- Protects instructional time
- Establishes visions and goals that are focused on high levels of student learning.
- Fosters a positive and supportive school climate.
- Collaborates and encourages collaboration among staff.
- Focuses on high levels of student achievement.
- Discusses instructional issues with staff
- Provides professional development opportunities and resources.
- Monitors student progress and shares findings
- Recognizes student and staff achievement.
- Motivated, satisfied and confident teachers.
- An accessible head that provides support to teachers.

Sources: Zambia National Policy on Education; Educating our Future (1996), Kruger (2003), Cotton (2003) and McEwan (2003)

2.9 Studies regarding Instructional Leadership

Several studies have been carried out regarding instructional leadership. However, most of these studies have been conducted mainly in the United States of America (USA), Europe and to an extent Asia. The following are some of the studies regarding instructional leadership that have been carried out in Africa and some other developing countries.

Enueme and Egwunyenga (2008) conducted a study which focused on principals' instructional leadership roles and their effect on teachers' job performance. The study was carried out in the secondary schools of Asaba Metropolis in Delta State, Nigeria. The study sought to investigate the instructional leadership roles played by principals in Asaba Metropolis.

The study further sought to find out the extent to which principals' assisted and encouraged teachers in their classroom instructions, the extent to which principals promoted professional growth for teachers and whether the principals' instructional leadership role had any effect on the teachers' job performance. The sample comprised 240 teachers randomly selected from government secondary schools. The researchers mainly utilized quantitative approaches and a questionnaire entitled "Questionnaire on Instructional Leadership Employed by Principals (QILEP)" was used.

The study concluded that the principals in Asaba metropolis showed high level of instructional leadership responsibilities by assisting their teachers in classroom instructions and that they also promoted professional growth of their teachers. Teachers' job performance was also found to positively relate to the principals' instructional leadership roles.

Enueme and Egwunyengas' (2008) study was insightful and an eye opener in the developing countries to the instructional leadership role of the principals. However, the study could have been more enriching by having the head teachers also assess themselves on how their instructional leadership role affected teachers' job performance. Furthermore, the study should have utilized qualitative method as well in order to get more insights from the participants.

Kruger (2003) carried out a study which focused on the impact of instructional leadership on the culture of teaching and learning in two effective secondary schools in South Africa. The study sought to find out how principals of effective schools ensured that effective instructional leadership took place in order to develop and maintain a sound culture of teaching and learning. The study involved two schools that displayed academic effectiveness. The study utilized mainly qualitative approaches.

The conclusion of the study was that schools that had experienced good matriculation examination results for a number of years would be characterized by a sound culture of teaching and learning, resulting from effective instructional leadership. The findings of this study illustrate a shift from the traditional authoritarian methods of instructional leadership towards a more collaborative approach.

Kruger (2003) study was very good in that it brought out indicators of a sound culture of teaching and learning resulting from effective instructional leadership and also showed factors that exist in a school where there is a poor culture of teaching and learning. However, the sample he used of only two schools was quite limited and these schools were already identified as effective schools, giving an assumption that the results would definitely be positive.

Pansiri (2004) conducted a study to assess the effectiveness of instructional leadership displayed by primary school management teams following the implementation of the Primary School Management Project in Botswana. Leadership skills, Coordination of instructional activities, management of curriculum and quality of learners were the key variables that guided the study. The study used the descriptive approach and data was analysed using the Statistical Package for

Social Sciences (SPSS) programs using frequencies and percentages. Respondents were 240 primary school teachers including school heads and 575 learners.

The results revealed school management teams' lack of interpersonal skills necessary for classroom supervision, inability to mobilize parents to participate in school instructional improvement activities, teachers' unauthorized use of corporal punishment and lack of creativeness and innovativeness for management of curriculum change. Regarding quality of learning, the study identified learners' inability and lack of freedom for self-expression and inadequate acquisition of basic literacy skill at varying degrees between rural and urban schools.

Pansiri (2004) study was good in that it also utilized learners as participants. However, it was purely quantitative and as a result did not give the participants a chance to offer more insight through qualitative explanations.

Musungu and Nasongo (2008) conducted a study to assess the head-teachers' instructional role in academic achievement in secondary schools in Vihinga district in Kenya. According to Musungu and Nasongo (2008), the head teachers role is to promote academic performance, it is therefore important that the performance of the school is appraised against the performance of the person who leads it.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the role of the head teacher in academic achievement in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) examinations in Vihinga district of Western province. The population of the study comprised 84 head- teachers and 1, 280 teachers serving in the 84 secondary schools. Saturated sampling technique was used to select a sample

from the high and low performing schools, while stratified random sampling technique was used to select a sample from the low performing schools.

The sample comprised 7 high performing schools, 17 average performing schools and 20 low performing schools. All the 44 head- teachers of the selected schools formed part of the sample for the study together with 8 teachers from each school sampled randomly. Data was collected by use of questionnaires, in depth interviews and document analysis guide. Data was analysed by use of descriptive statistics of frequencies and percentages.

The findings of the study revealed that the head teachers supervised the teachers' work by checking lesson books, schemes of work, records of work covered attendance register, class attendance records and log in and log out books. The findings further revealed that the head teachers in high performing schools checked the records more frequently compared to those in the average and low performing schools.

Musungu and Nasongo (2008) concluded that effective supervision of teachers is necessary if they are to be productive. Since the role of the head-teacher is associated with high student achievement, the study recommended that head- teachers should enhance internal supervision of teachers.

Musungu and Nasongos' (2008) study was insightful in that it focused on the instructional leadership role of the head teacher and brought out salient features and advantages of this role in teacher performance and student achievement. The study was good in that it also used the qualitative approach method which provided more insights on the role of the head teacher as an instructional leader.

Sindhvad (2009) carried out a study entitled *School Principals as Instructional Leaders: An investigation of School Leadership Capacity in the Philippines*. Sindhvads' study focus emanated from the redefined role of the school principal from a school building manager to instructional leader in which the principal's core responsibility is to ensure quality teaching and learning in the classroom. He argued that in Asia many principals were not prepared for the new role and new focus.

This study identified factors related to the extent Filipino school principals thought they were capable of supporting teachers' classroom instruction through instructional supervision, professional development, and classroom resources; and the extent to which they thought these instructional supports were effective. The study also measured principals' confidence in supporting teachers' classroom instruction after participation in the instructional leadership training programme, *Instructional and Curricular Excellence in School Principalship for Southeast Asia (ICExCELS)*, offered by the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization Regional Centre for Educational Innovation and Technology (*SEAMEO INNOTECH*). The study was grounded in the principal- agent relationship as well as a model for teacher incentives by Kemmerer (1990) and Bandura's (1977) concept of self- efficacy which served as a framework for investigating school principal ship.

Analyses were conducted on data from 364 principals. The study utilized linear regression analysis and results showed that Filipino principals thought their capacity to support teachers through instructional supervision and professional development was dependent on their beliefs as to whether these instructional supports could make a difference in classroom instruction, their level of control, time spent on instructional leadership and their degree of job satisfaction.

Principals' thought their capacity to support teachers through classroom instruction resources was only dependent on their level of control over them and their beliefs as to whether they could make a difference in classroom instruction. Principals' beliefs as to whether instructional supports could make a difference in classroom instruction was the most significant factor related to principals' sense of capacity for providing instructional supervision and professional development, while their level of control was the more significant factor related to principals' sense of capacity for providing classroom resources.

Further results showed that principals' beliefs as to whether instructional supports were effective in supporting teachers' classroom instruction were dependent upon how effective they thought they were as school principals and how capable they thought their teachers were in guiding student achievement.

MANOVA results indicated no differences related to demographic and contextual factors among principals' beliefs about their capacity to support teachers and their beliefs about the effectiveness of instructional supervision, professional development, and classroom resources. According to the results seventy-five percent of the principals attributed their capacity to the hands- on training they received.

According to Sindhvad (2009), the results of his study are important for the formulation of school based management policies, and for the design of education reform initiatives and training programmes supporting school principals to be instructional leaders.

Sindhvad's study was informative in that it focused on some of the core characteristics of instructional leadership that support classroom instruction namely; instructional supervision, professional development, and classroom resources.

It also measured principals' confidence in supporting teachers' classroom instruction after participation in the instructional leadership training programme. The bringing in of the component of training by the researcher into the study brought in another dimension of instructional leadership and the results showed the importance of training for school leaders in instructional leadership and the impact of training of a head teacher on the outcomes in teaching and learning.

However, the study just like many other studies on instructional leadership utilized purely quantitative methods and so again some important insights which could have been gotten through qualitative data may have been missed. The study collected data only from the principals themselves and left out the teachers, in other words the principals evaluated themselves which could have led to some overrating themselves in some areas.

As stated earlier in this study, studies to do with head teachers may produce more reliable results when teachers are also involved in evaluating their head teachers. This is supported by Isik (2000) as quoted in Maliwatu (2011) who observed that teachers are one of the best sources to investigate the effectiveness of the head teachers and Kouzes and Posner (1997) also indicated that the people selected as observers should be those who directly work under the leader.

It is also important to note that generally the results of the studies above indicate that the instructional leadership role of head teachers has a positive effect on the teaching and learning process and consequently leads to high pupil performance.

2.10 Studies regarding Head teachers in Zambia

As observed earlier in the statement of the problem, most of the studies that have been done in Zambia regarding school head teachers have focused on other aspects mainly managerial aspects rather than their instructional leadership role.

The following section reviews some of the studies that have been conducted in Zambia regarding head teachers.

Maliwatu (2011) conducted a study which attempted to establish whether the training provided for the serving head teachers enabled them to improve in their leadership practices, and also to establish whether there was any significance difference in the leadership practices of the head teachers who had taken in-service training and those who had not taken the training. The study focused on the programme at the National In-service Teachers' College (NISTCOL).

The study employed both qualitative and quantitative methods. The data for this study was obtained through Kouzes' and Posner's (2003) Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI-self and observer), the questionnaires which measures the leadership practices in five distinct areas: modelling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. Interviews were also conducted. Data was obtained from the head teachers and teachers. 28 head teachers and 230 teachers participated in the study.

The results of this study revealed that the greater majority of the head teachers who had taken the in-service training in the area of educational management and those who had not taken the training demonstrated the practices associated with the leadership practices that were taken into account. The results based on the data obtained through questionnaires, generally revealed that there was no significant difference in the leadership practices of the head teachers who had taken in-service training and those who had not taken the training.

However, from the data that was obtained through interviews, the results revealed overwhelming evidence that there had been improvements in the head teachers' practices as a result of the training they had taken.

Based on the findings of the study, Maliwatu (2011) recommended that the Ministry of Education should support in-service training programmes for head teachers and should involve more educational institutions in the provision of relevant training to the head teachers. The researcher also recommended that further research be made of a similar study with a larger sample and utilize a different method for determining the leadership practices.

Maliwatu's (2011) study was a good attempt to examine leadership practices by head teachers and somehow made a shift from too much concentration on managerial aspects in most of the previous studies, however, the study does not really bring out the core aspects of the in-service training and how these could have affected or improved the leadership practices of the head teachers.

Generally, the study still focused on the managerial aspects of the head teachers. Even though the study mentions instructional leadership, the researcher, barely touched the subject and the

results do not show whether the head teachers improved in their leadership practices as instructional leaders.

Mwanza (2004) carried out a study that investigated teacher perception of school management practices and their influence on teacher performance in selected high schools of Lusaka. Stratified random sampling was used to select the eight high schools. Data were collected using questionnaires, interviews, observations and documentary analysis. Both quantitative and qualitative data was collected. The key respondents in this study were teachers.

The findings of this study revealed that effective head teachers exercised management styles that were contingent upon the situation. The study revealed that there was a relationship between school management practices and teacher performance. Furthermore the study revealed that teachers who had effective head teachers showed commitment and dedication to their work. The other findings were that despite the head teachers' management practices having an influence on teacher performance, head teachers of high schools did not undertake training in educational management. The head teachers and the majority of teachers expressed the need for head teachers to undertake training in educational management.

Mwanza's (2004) study focused on the perceptions of teachers; however, the views of head teachers could also have been included. It would also have been helpful if the researcher had defined the variables school management practices and teacher performance, as the results indicate the school management practices and teacher performance seem to be quite vague.

Mwanza's (2004) study once again focused so much on managerial aspects of head teachers and not on the technical core of schools and teachers; teaching and learning, however, it makes a

number of recommendations which are more instructional in nature. The study recommends that as stipulated in the National Education Policy of 1996; a school head must be an instructional leader and that head teachers should put this into practice.

Chiyongo (2007) conducted a study which focused on the training needs of school managers. The purpose of the study was to assess the training needs of both basic and high school managers in Chongwe District in Lusaka Province of Zambia. The study was intended to find out the extent to which school managers participated in determining their own training needs and identify constraints they encountered in meeting these needs.

The findings of the study revealed that basic and high school managers needed training in educational administration and management. The study further revealed that the skills in which school managers needed training included: financial management, human resource management, information communication and technology (ICT), management of school assets, records management, and time management and communication skills. The study recommended that educational management training of basic and high school managers should be based on identified training needs and that school managers should be involved in determining their own training needs. The study further recommended that the Ministry of Education (MOE) should come up with a policy of training all school managers so that qualified and empowered personnel do manage all basic and high schools in Zambia.

Chiyongos' study was well intended and a good attempt to bring out what is required in bridging the gaps that exist in the training of head teachers by allowing them to determine their own training needs. However, the question still remains as to whether these identified needs would be

taken into consideration by the relevant authorities and also whether the head teachers are aware of what they needed to be trained in.

The study also still focused a lot on training of head teachers in management of schools such as human and financial resource management, once again the leadership component is missing or barely touched and the issues of how the training would affect the teaching and learning in schools do not seem to come out.

Kunkhuli (1988) conducted a study which was about a description of the perceptions of the principals and climates of Zambia's "effective" Schools. According to Kunkuli the study was in response to the pressing quest for educational qualitative improvement in Zambia and it suggests an alternative qualitative method to school improvement.

Kunkhulis(1988) study sought to look at Zambia's' "effective Schools" to ascertain what these schools were like in respect to certain characteristics: leadership and management characteristics and climates. The study attempted to describe and examine leadership and management practices and school climates of some selected Zambian Secondary Schools designated as effective by the Ministry of Education and Culture in Zambia. The aim was to derive some insights into their prevailing leadership and management practices and climates for other schools not identified as "effective". The sample consisted of head teachers, deputy head teachers, heads of department and selected teachers.

Two critical questions were raised in order to guide the study:

- a. What instructional leadership and management characteristics exist in schools identified as effective?

b. What is the school climate like in such schools?

Kunxhuli (1988) outlines some insights acquired from his study as follows:

- Staff in successful schools emphasize the importance of learning and that all children can learn;
- The curricula is based on clear goals and objectives
- School time is used more for learning (than assemblies, maintaining order and cleaning the school).
- Learning progress is monitored closely; discipline is firm and consistent
- High expectations from everyone are upheld; and parents are involved or encouraged to participate in the school processes.
- Learning conditions are conducive for effective work.

The study further suggests some ways of improving leadership and administrative practices for schools not identified as effective in the country.

Kunxhulis' (1988) study was good in that it somehow moved away from the common trend in studies of head teachers in Zambia of concentrating too much on their managerial aspects. He appears to be one of the few researchers at the time to begin talking about the construct of instructional leadership and the teaching and learning processes in schools.

However, the study was also quite limited in that it concentrated only on five schools. The findings from such a study sample may not be generalized to all schools in Zambia. Another factor is that the researcher should have identified the "effective schools" himself other than relying on the information from the Ministry of Education and Culture. The study also focused on secondary schools.

Despite the gaps in Kunkhuli's study, it still provided guidelines for further study and future appraisal of school leadership, management and climate. He suggested that in as much as school leaders may exert great effort to improve their leadership practices, there are many barriers constraining them from practicing strong instructional leadership that needed to be addressed.

Kunkhuli (1988) suggested that Ministry of Education needed to define instructional leadership in terms of observable practices and behaviours that school leaders could use and that school leaders needed to know exactly what was expected of them.

Kunkhuli (1988) further suggested that the Ministry of Education needed to use assessment methods of school leaders which provided reliable and valid data on instructional leadership behaviour and provide information school leaders may need to help them know their strengths and weaknesses. He says such a practice may help in accountability and professional development.

Kunkhuli (1988) proposed the use of Hallinger's 1983 Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) to carry out such an assessment.

2.10.1 School Leadership Training

As shown in some sections of the literature review, research assets the need for training of school leaders if they have to be effective instructional leaders.

Chapman (2000) points out that the major reason for the deficiencies among school leaders is that training whether pre service or in service is often unavailable, inadequate, or inappropriate. Lockheed and Veer spoor (1991) further state that additionally, opportunities and incentives for advancement, clearly defined career paths, and systems for assessing performance are absent and

further state that the lack of such inputs not only hinders the professional development of school leaders but also dampen their motivation to perform well.

Many researchers too such as Fuller 1987; Heyneman and Loxley 1983; Sembiring and Livingstone 1981; as cited in Sandhvid (2009) argue that school principal training before appointment is virtually non-existent among developing countries except for the on-the-job training for a teacher who has served as a deputy or assistant principal.

They further state that studies in Egypt, Indonesia and Paraguay have found that a principal's teaching experience and instructional leadership training are related to higher student achievement.

Lockheed and Veerspoor (1991) go on to state that only a handful of developing countries such as China, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malaysia, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines and Thailand, have addressed the need to improve school management, primarily by establishing institutions to train school principals.

However, such institutions face three problems;

- First, they cannot accommodate the number of new principals needed to run the burgeoning number of schools,
- Second, no consensus has been reached about what the curriculum should reflect and who should provide the training. Institute staff often transplant curricula and methodologies derived from their overseas training without adapting them to the sociocultural context and needs of their country and community.

- Third, the national policies for training administrators are not coherent, which hinders the effectiveness of these institutions (Lockheed and Verspoors, 1991; Chapman, 2000; Hallinger and Leithwood, 1996)

According to Adams, (2002); ADB, (2001) as cited in Sindhvad (2009) and Chapman, (2000), some researchers have observed that most training for education managers has been skill focused (for example how to budget, analyse data, and design an evaluation) while much of the need is for strategic thinking, analysis of cross impacts, and the ability to work with constituent groups.

Chapman (2000) observes:

.....even if education managers have strategic planning skills, they often lack a firm understanding of the educational process. They do not know what inputs and processes can reasonably be expected to contribute to increased student learning. Lacking this, managers are left to retract to daily events and political pressures. One implication is that managerial training needs to provide education managers with some framework for understanding the educational process and information on interventions that have the best chance of yielding promising outputs, (p. 304).

2.10.2 Head teachers' Training in Zambia

The situation in Zambia regarding the training of head teachers is not any different from what has been discussed under the previous heading.

The Ministry of Education, Science, Training, Vocational and Early Education, policy document of 1996, states that effectiveness in the delivery of education depends heavily on the quality of educational administration. The policy further states that school heads, education officers and inspectors need training in educational management and supervision and that educational planners need special skills in data generation, analysis and interpretation, planning, resource management, monitoring and evaluation.

However, the majority of those occupying supervisory and management positions in the sector have not received relevant training for their posts. Neither has the Ministry had any facility or mechanism for ensuring that those appointed to managerial or supervisory positions could receive relevant training. The few managers who have been trained received their training either abroad or from local institutions that offer general programmes not specifically directed towards educational management (MoE 1996: 146).

The policy further acknowledges that teachers are appointed straight from the classrooms to management positions without prior education in management training. Most of these head teachers are usually promoted on the basis of long service and age, in such cases classroom performance is not even considered.

According to Maliwatu (2011) the current trend in Zambia in most cases is that people are promoted and then trained later, before the head teachers are trained, there is a likelihood of them using trial and error approach in doing their work. MOE (1996) also noted that the state of affairs where the majority of those occupying supervisory and management positions not having received the relevant training for their positions has led to inefficiencies and poor performance in the management and supervision of the education system. Bhagwan and Bhushan (2006) noted that learning by trial and error has its pitfalls; it may impair efficiency of administration, and that a lot of risk is involved in expecting the employee to learn by trial and error.

Blandford (1997) supports this when he says that managing schools requires knowledge and skills in planning, resourcing, controlling, organizing, leading and evaluating. Basu (1994) observed that today, school principals are required to lead in a new world marked by unprecedented responsibilities, challenges, and managerial opportunities. School leaders need relevant training to help them prepare for their complex and demanding roles.

Sindhvad (2009) in her study of principals as instructional leaders in the Philippines also supports this when she says principals in the Philippines rise through the ranks and are often promoted from the District Superintendents' office and most of them take on the responsibilities of school principal without formal training. she goes on to state that it is assumed that the average Filipino school principal would benefit from training that would guide them through instructional leadership experiences.

The education system in Zambia does not take training in educational management into account when promoting teachers to become head teachers. As stated earlier, the majority of those heading schools have no training in educational management or leadership; they are just picked from classrooms usually based on their successful classroom performance, age or length of service.

Mebrahtu et al cited in Mwanza (2004) supported this when he stated that,

In Zambia, as indeed elsewhere in Africa, the overwhelming majority of inspectors, school heads, and educational officers in the field have never had either pre-service or in-service training in educational management prior to their appointment. (1996: 5)

This is further supported by Sarason (1982) as cited in Fullan (1991) when he observes that being a classroom teacher by itself is not a very good preparation of being an effective school head.

A review of literature regarding training of school leaders in other countries revealed that, people aspiring to be school leaders are required to take training in educational management and leadership .According to Alkin (1992), in countries like the United States of America, there are

various programmes that are designed to prepare people for various administrative positions. These include heads of departments, assistant principals and principals.

According to Fullan (1991) to become principal, candidates are typically required to take advanced degrees or courses, usually in educational administration, more recently specific training and experiences in leadership academies and leadership centres. Haller et al. (1994) also added that the United States of America is one of the few countries in the world where prospective public school administrators are required to take substantial amounts of graduate training in order to become certified in their profession.

The national policy document, “Educating Our Future”, (1996) further acknowledges the need to train the people occupying supervisory and management positions in the education sector.

Lungwangwa et al (1995) further states that management of education is an issue that has increasingly attracted the attention of policy-makers and researchers in recent years and that one way of ensuring that there is effective management of education is the provision of continuous and relevant training.

The pre-service teacher training programmes in Zambia don't offer specific courses that prepare teachers for school leadership roles. The education courses that are offered just have components which gloss over administrative issues and their content are not adequate enough. Due to this inadequacy, there have been efforts to ensure that serving head teachers get the relevant training through in-service programmes.

The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education has been making efforts to support head teachers to improve their skills in order to improve school effectiveness.

In their effort to support head teachers to understand and appreciate their critical role in enhancing the delivery of quality education at school level, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education has worked with cooperating partners to fund different forms of school management training programmes for head teachers.

This effort is in line with the National Policy Document on education-Educating Our Future (MoE, 1996) statement that “the prevailing situation in most schools is far from the Ministry of Education, Science, and Vocational Training and Early Education’s expectation of excellence because of the way that schools are being run. The policy document identifies educational management training programmes for head teachers and deputy head teachers as a priority for making schools effective and raising the standards of education in Zambia.

Currently in Zambia, the common method of training head teachers is through in-service courses. The National In-Service Teachers College (NISTCOL) is one of the major institutions offering in-service training to head teachers in the area of educational management. In 2005, NISTCOL introduced a diploma in Education Management Course for school leaders which was affiliated to the University of Zambia.

The initial programme at NISTCOL was set out to provide training in the area of educational management to serving head teachers. The programme was aimed at equipping the head teachers with qualities and skills necessary to be effective managers in their schools and communities; and promoting the development of their schools.

However, in 2009 the Ministry of Education revised the Education Management Course and the content was broadened and even the name was changed to Education Leadership and

Management Course. This was in an effort by the Ministry of Education to equip head teachers with contemporary skills to effectively run their schools.

According to the baseline study conducted by the Ministry of Education on the effectiveness of the Education Leadership and Management Course in 2009, the Ministry of Education realized that despite some head teachers having been trained in education management, there was not much improvement in the education sector, hence the revision of the course. The revised course was meant to be an improvement to the earlier one which lacked the leadership component.

The earlier course according to the baseline study concentrated more on the management components and focused more on such topics like managing financial resources, human resources and record keeping among others. After the revision, the focus of the course shifted from being merely a management course to include components like instructional leadership. According to the NISTCOL (2009) course outline, the revised course was to be work based, interactive or participatory and takes into account the principles of adult learning. The course adopts a problem solving approach to learning.

The NISTCOL course outline of (2009) further states that the revised course will promote transformational and instructional leadership styles in order to enhance school effectiveness and that the ultimate goal of the revision is to produce a cadre of critical head teachers who will be in a better position to raise the quality of education in the country.

The course will further support interventions to improve the leadership and management skills of head teachers in areas of teacher supervision and support, evidence based problem solving,

using assessment to enhance learning, enhancing community participation and effective record and resource management.

As stated above, the later course that was developed was meant to be an improvement to the earlier one, even, the scope of the people to participate was also widened, much as it would mainly still target head teachers, deputy head teachers, education officials such as District Education Board Secretaries, District Education Standards officers and Heads of Department were also to be availed an opportunity to attend the course.

The course was to be done through distance learning with the candidates attending a two week residential once or twice a year. At the end of the course, a head teacher was to obtain a diploma in Education Management and leadership.

However, according to Educational Statistical Bulletin (MoE, 2007/8), faced with the challenge to reach out to more than eight thousand head teachers who are currently serving in basic and high schools without any formal training in management, the Ministry of Education, in consultation with stakeholders, decided to revise and decentralize the delivery of the NISTCOL diploma in Education Leadership and Management course and state that

The course would now be delivered by distance education through all the colleges of education in the provinces in order to increase enrolment. The colleges would be supervised and monitored by NISTCOL. The revision of the course has taken into consideration the underlying assumptions of successful professional development programmes as well as the principles of adult learning. Also the aspect of leadership in general and instructional leadership in particular has been strengthened and as a result the nomenclature of the course changed to Education Leadership and Management.

Unfortunately this training is not available to all the head teachers as it is only offered by one institution so far in Zambia which is the National In-service College. The course is only offered

to a limited number of head teachers and this limited number may not really have an impact on the teaching- learning process.

This has still resulted in many head teachers not being trained and also the other category of deputy head teachers and heads of department to hardly get an opportunity to participate in this course.

2.10.3 Studies that Utilized the Principal Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)

The following section looks at some studies regarding instructional leadership that have utilized the Principal Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) by Hallinger (1982, 1990).

Lyons (2010) conducted a study about principal instructional leadership behaviour as perceived by teachers and principals at New York State Recognized and Non-Recognized Middle Schools. The purpose of the study was to determine which of the 10 leadership functions contained in the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS), as identified by Hallinger and Murphy (1985), were demonstrated by principals at New York State Department of Education recognized gap closing and high achieving middle schools, as compared to principals at non-recognized schools.

The survey was administered to teachers and principals at demographically similar schools. 15 principals and 174 teachers participated in the study. The study also sought to determine if there was a significant difference in principal and teacher perceptions of the principals' instructional leadership behaviour.

Lyons (2010) used descriptive statistics to identify which individual behaviours and leadership functions were being demonstrated frequently. The data indicated that on average, principals of

recognized schools were demonstrating the leadership behaviours measured in the PIMRS more frequently than principals of non-recognized schools.

Although teachers, on average, indicated that there were fewer overall behaviours being demonstrated frequently, they were in agreement with their respective principals' data in that they also perceived that principals of recognized schools demonstrated these behaviours more frequently.

This study was good in that the researcher used both the principal and teacher assessment questionnaires. The research also used the one –way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine whether there would be statistically differences in the mean scores between cohorts and within cohorts between principals and teachers.

However, the study solely employed quantitative methods. Although Lyons' study demonstrated principal and teacher perceptions of the principals' leadership, it did not allow for participants to explain or elaborate their answers. Qualitative methods would also have been utilized to allow participants to explain or elaborate their answers. This would have enhanced the validity and reliability of the findings.

Alig-Mielcarek (2003) conducted a study to find out whether the instructional leadership of the principal and academic press of an elementary school affects student achievement. The data used in the research was collected from 146 elementary schools in Ohio, as well as student achievement and socio economic data obtained from the Ohio Department of Education. After reviewing and synthesizing the literature on instructional leadership, Alig-Mielcarek (2003) developed a framework and measure of instructional leadership that was tested.

Three aspects of principal behaviour (as adopted from Hallinger and Murphy 1985); promoting school- wide professional development, monitoring and providing feedback on the teaching and learning process, and developing and communicating shared goals were used to give a general definition of instructional leadership. Then a theoretical path model to explain achievement was developed with instructional leadership, academic press, and socioeconomic status as the key variables.

The findings of this study provided substantial support for the model. Although the study found that the instructional leadership of the principal was not directly related to student achievement, the study concluded that it did have an indirect positive effect on achievement through the academic press of the school, which had a direct effect on student achievement in both mathematics and reading. Socioeconomic status too had both a direct and indirect effect through academic press on student achievement.

AligMielcarek (2003) study was insightful in that it added to the understanding of the social dynamics within the school that influence student achievement. The findings indicated that principals can affect the student achievement indirectly by using their leadership to develop an organizational climate in which academic and intellectual pursuits are central to the school.

However, the study concentrated on quantitative methods and did not give chance to the participants to elaborate their responses. The study also focused on elementary schools and only in one state. A similar study but of a comparative nature between elementary and high schools could be done too.

Griffin (1993) conducted a study to describe the instructional leadership practices of catholic secondary school principals and also to determine the relationship of these behaviours to selected factors of school context: school size, student administrator ratio and enrolment stability. Griffins' (1993) study employed a quantitative research methodology which was used to measure instructional leadership behaviours of principals in 19 catholic schools in Connecticut and Western Massachusetts.

Data on teachers' perceptions of principals' instructional leadership was obtained from 464 teachers using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). Analysis of variance was used to examine whether significant differences in instructional leadership practices existed according to classification on three variables of school context. Discriminant function analysis was used to measure the contribution of ten specific instructional leadership functions to group differences on the 3 variables of school context.

The results of Griffins' (1993) study demonstrated a significant principal instructional leadership role across a broad range of instructional leadership functions with mean scores on the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) subscales ranging from 2.78 to 3.81 on a Likert scale with values from 1 to 5.

The study concluded that principal instructional leadership is related to factors of school context and that the decentralized organizational structure of catholic secondary schools appears to be a generally conducive context for the exercise of principal instructional leadership.

Griffins' (1993) study seemed to have been well conducted. It was good that the researcher assessed the teacher perceptions of principals' instructional leadership behaviours by using the

Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). However, it appears the researcher only utilized the PIMRS teacher form which was administered to teachers, it would have been better if the researcher had also utilized the PIMRS principal form so that the principals could have been given an opportunity to evaluate themselves.

The study could have utilized qualitative approaches as well in order for the participants to give more detail to their assessments. The study was quite limited in that it only focused on catholic schools, a comparative study with either public schools or private schools would also have been better.

In a study of high school principals' instructional leadership behaviours as perceived by teachers in urban comprehensive and magnet high schools, McCier (2003) surveyed 223 teachers by using the PIMRS developed by Hallinger in 1983. A non-experimental, descriptive research design provided the framework for the study. The PIMRS measured 10 aspects of instructional leadership; framing the school goals, communicating the school goals, supervision and evaluation, curriculum coordination, monitoring student progress, protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, promoting instructional improvement, professional development and provides incentives for learning.

The results of McCiers' (2003) study indicated that teachers in Magnet schools perceived their principals were more likely to perform the behaviours associated with instructional leadership than teachers in Comprehensive schools. In addition teaching in a Magnet school was also a significant predictor of principals practicing behaviours associated with instructional leadership.

McCiers' (2003) study was purely quantitative, participants could have been given chance to explain their answers through qualitative approaches. Just like in Griffins' (1993), the principals could have also assessed themselves by using the PIMRS principal form.

As mentioned earlier on, most of the research done on instructional leadership has been concentrated in the developed countries predominantly the United States of America, United Kingdom and Canada. According to Hallinger (1994), while research in Western societies has found that principal leadership is usually a necessary condition for school improvement, there remains a dearth of research on how principals provide instructional leadership in developing countries.

Hallinger et al (1994) carried out a study to assess the instructional leadership of secondary school principals in Thailand. Their study sought to address the need for more research on principal instructional leadership in developing countries. The study adapted the PIMRS (Hallinger, 1984a), an instrument designed to assess principal instructional leadership. The PIMRS was translated and administered to 10 secondary school principals in Northern Thailand. Findings from Hallinger et al (1994) indicated that the PIMRS-Thai Form appeared to have provided data on the instructional leadership of secondary school principals that met or exceeded common research standards of reliability and validity.

Consistent with past studies, the principals in Hallinger et al's (1994) study tended to have rated themselves higher in their self-assessments than did their teachers. (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; O Day, 1983) According to Hallinger et al (1994), current and past data suggest that greater credence be given to teacher assessments.

The results in Hallinger et al (1994) study indicated that the sample of secondary school principals from northern Thailand exercised a low to moderate level of instructional leadership activity. Assessments of secondary school principals in the United States (Haack, 1991), Malaysia (Saavedra, 1987), Canada (Jones, 1987) as cited in Hallinger (1994) have all yielded significantly higher scores as compared with the Thai sample.

As could be seen in the studies analysed in the above section, various researchers (which include Griffin 1993, Alig-Mielcarek 2003, McCier 2003 and Lyons 2010) have used the PIMRS to assess instructional leadership practices of principals and came up with various conclusions.

It is important however, to note that almost all the studies cited above that utilized the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) utilized only quantitative methods. A mixed approach in some of the studies could have been better. This is supported by Leedy and Ormond (2001) when they said that quantitative and qualitative research designs are appropriate for answering different kinds of questions. They go on to say that as a result people learn more when both quantitative and qualitative methodologies are used than when a study is limited to only one approach.

In this study the researcher also utilized the PIMRS to assess the instructional leadership practices of head teachers in the basic schools of the Central Province of Zambia. This study was worthy conducting because as has been seen from the literature review, research on instructional leadership of head teachers (principals) has been concentrated in the western world and Asia with very little research having been carried out in Africa.

The results of most of these studies that have been carried out have shown that instructional leadership by school heads impacted positively on the teaching and learning process.

Furthermore, despite the Zambian Education Policy of 1996 “Educating our Future” stating that the attainment of quality education could be realized if head teachers were instructional leaders, little or no research at all has been carried out to ascertain whether head teachers in Zambian schools are practicing instructional leadership.

Many developing countries like Zambia report near universal access and levelling of enrolment growth at the primary school level and this has increased attention to improving the quality of education too. Hardly a day passes without hearing of a government official or parent calling for the improvement in the quality of education being provided in schools.

However, whenever school performance or pupil performance is discussed, seldom does the role of the head teacher come in. What come out mainly among other factors are issues of infrastructure and furniture. The question which still remains therefore is; what about the person at the helm of the school? What role does or could he or she play in the improvement of the teaching and learning process in the school if pupil performance had to improve?

2.11 Summary of Reviewed Literature

This chapter reviewed literature regarding instructional leadership practices of head teachers and the reviewed literature revealed that instructional leadership by school heads impacts positively on the teaching and learning process. The reviewed literature revealed further that head teachers who are instructional leaders motivate teachers, monitor instruction and provide feedback; they are highly visible, accessible and provide support to teachers.

The literature also revealed that even though instructional leadership may not encompass all the other aspects of a school, it focuses on the core business of a school which is teaching and learning. The literature further state that the head teachers' instructional leadership impacts student achievements indirectly through influencing the teachers.

The reviewed literature furthermore indicated that the school head as an instructional leader is the pivotal point within the school who affects the quality of individual teacher instruction which is at the height of student achievement, and the degree of efficiency in school functioning. The literature also says that a principal in order to be an effective instructional leader should be a practicing teacher. Further the literature asserts the positive effects of instructional leadership on the teaching and learning and that this consequently improves pupil performance.

One other thing that comes out strongly from the literature especially in later studies is that there is need to move away from the traditional authoritarian methods of instructional leadership towards a more collaborative approach. The head teacher in order to be an effective instructional leader needs to practice shared instructional leadership but he still remains the key person in facilitating effective teaching and learning by promoting a positive school climate.

The reviewed literature has also revealed a serious lack of research regarding instructional leadership in developing countries. Most of the studies that have been carried out are from the developed world with the United States of America dominating. In the developing world we see from the literature that research on instructional leadership has mainly been carried out in Nigeria, Kenya and South Africa, Philippines, Thailand and Malaysia.

It has also been established from the literature reviewed that in 1996, the Ministry of Education enacted the National Education Policy “Educating Our Future” in which the role of head teachers as instructional leaders is identified and the policy further states that the quality of teaching and learning in *Zambian schools* would improve if head teachers were instructional leaders. However, 18 years down the line from the time the policy was enacted there has been little or no research at all to find out whether head teachers were practicing instructional leadership and what the effects of this were on the teaching-learning process in the *Zambian schools*.

The literature review has also revealed that there is increasing attention to improving the quality of education in *Zambia* and world over and that with this attention, education administrators at all levels of the education sector, particularly school head teachers need a better understanding of the teaching and learning processes and the actions that are likely to improve them.

The reviewed literature has also revealed the need for in depth training for head teachers if they have to be effective instructional leaders. It has further brought out the linkage between training and instructional leadership.

It has come out clearly in the literature review that there is great need to improve education leadership at the school level and that head teachers need to be instructional leaders if the teaching and learning in schools has to improve. However, it is also clear from the literature that this is a need that has been least advocated in *Zambia*, and also least examined or researched. This study was thus an effort to address this need.

This chapter focused on the literature review. The next chapter, chapter three, describes the methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

The previous chapter focused on the review of relevant literature to this study. This chapter provides information about the research methods used. The chapter begins by presenting the research design, and further focuses on the target population, study sample and sampling procedure, research instruments, instrument reliability and validity, data collection procedures, and data analyses procedures.

3.1 Research Design

A research design can be thought of as the structure of the research. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006), it is the “glue” that holds the elements in a research project together. A design is used to structure the research, to show how all of the major parts of the research project work together to try to address the central research questions. Orodho (2003) defines it as a scheme, outline or plan that is used to generate answers to research problems. Bryman (2004) also observed that a research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data.

The survey and case study designs were used in this study. The survey design was used because collection of information was done through interviews and questionnaires while case study was used because the study focused only on instructional leadership and was based on one province out of the ten provinces in Zambia.

The survey and case study method have been used in this study to investigate the instructional leadership practices of head teachers in selected basic schools in Central Province. Zikmund

(2000) defined survey as a research technique in which information is gathered from a sample of people by use of a data collection technique based on communication with a representative sample of individuals.

Travers (1978) describes the survey method as an attempt to build a body of knowledge through direct observation, seeking opinion, and determining attitudes among people. It is often used to assess thoughts, opinions, and feelings.

According to Bryman (2004), a case study is a research design that entails the detailed and intensive analysis of a single case. Bell (1993) as cited in Maliwatu (2011) observed that the basic idea about a case study is that one case would be studied, using whatever methods that seem appropriate. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) indicated that a case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of what is to be studied. Leedy and Ormrod (2001) also described a case study as a type of qualitative research in which in-depth data are gathered relative to a single individual, programme, or event, for the purpose of learning more about an unknown or poorly understood situation.

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. The researcher looked at the context of the research and also realized that the research questions needed the use of both methods to answer them. Using both approaches was advantageous in that it enabled the researcher collect more information than what could have been collected through a single approach. According to Leedy and Ormond (2001: 101) “....quantitative and qualitative research designs are appropriate for answering different kinds of questions. As a result, we learn more when we have both quantitative and qualitative methodologies at our disposal than when we are limited to only one approach”.

Kombo and Tromp (2006) indicated that qualitative research is a form of research that involves description, and quantitative research relies on the principle of verification. According to Bryman (2004) qualitative research usually emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data whereas quantitative research usually emphasizes the quantification in the collection and analysis of data. Bryman (2004) further states that as a research strategy, quantitative research is deductivist and objectivist and incorporates a natural science model of research.

According to Ritchie and Lewis (2003) qualitative research is a naturalistic, interpretive approach concerned with understanding the meanings which people attach to actions, decisions, beliefs, values and the like within their social world, and understanding of their mental mapping process that respondents use to make sense of and interpret the world around them. Qualitative research encompasses in-depth interviews and focus group discussions which deal with subjective assessment of attitudes, opinions and behaviour.

3.2 Target Population

The target population comprised all head teachers and teachers of the basic schools in the Central Province of Zambia. According to Bless and Achola (1990) a target population is the set of elements that the research focuses upon. It is further defined by Zikmund (2000) as a specific, complete group relevant to the research project. Kombo and Tromp (2006) describe a target population as a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurement.

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures

The sample was drawn from the 536 government basic schools in Central Province. The sample comprised 32 basic schools. Therefore, 32 basic school head teachers and 160 teachers were sampled and interviewed. 5 teachers per school were targeted.

In this study, the researcher used a statistical formula to calculate the sample size. The initial sample was 96 basic schools, however the researcher used own discretion to reduce the sample size from 96 to 32 by deciding to do only one third of the initial sample. The researcher arrived at this decision after taking into consideration a number of factors such as time and cost.

It is of no doubt that as suggested by many researchers such as Bryman (2008) that the larger the sample size the greater the precision because the amount of sampling error will be less. Hazelrigg (2004:85) as cited in Bryman (2008) succinctly puts it: “The larger the size of the sample drawn from a population the more likely (x) converges to u; but the convergence occurs at a decelerating rate which means that very large samples are decreasingly cost efficient)”.

The researcher in this study took into consideration time and cost constraints. The researcher carried out this study while working because it was difficult to be on study leave. The resources to carry out the research were also limited as the funds that were made available were not going to be adequate enough to cover 96 basic schools. Geographical factors and the distances involved were also considered. It was also felt by the researcher that the 32 basic schools were adequate enough as this research was a survey that was carried out for descriptive purposes such as assessing whether head teachers in these basic schools were practicing instructional leadership. In other words the sample in this study fitted in the research context and the objectives and analyses.

The study site comprised all the six districts in Central province and constituted urban, peri-urban and rural schools with at least about 5 schools sampled in each district. From each of the schools sampled, teachers who had worked under the leadership of these head teachers for at least one year or more years were also purposively sampled to take part in assessing the head teachers by filling in the teacher form.

The researcher used purposive sampling to select the head teachers and teachers in the selected Basic Schools. Purposive sampling was used because the study required using head teachers and teachers who had taught in a given basic school for one year or more. This was because such a sample would enable the teachers to assess their head teachers and also the head teachers to be able to evaluate themselves based on their previous performances. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006), when using purposive sampling, the researcher purposely targets a group of people believed to be reliable for the study.

Zikmund (2000) defined purposive sampling as a non-probability sampling technique in which the researcher selects the sample based upon the researchers' judgment about some appropriate characteristics required of the sample members. It enables the researcher to use their judgment to select cases that will best enable them to answer the research questions and to meet the objectives. Davies (2007) also observed that purposive sampling invites the researcher to identify and target individuals who are believed to be 'typical' of the population being studied.

3.4 Research Instruments

This section looks at the research instruments that were utilized in the collection of data for this study. The major instruments that were used in data collection were the Principal Instructional

Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) questionnaire for teachers and principals (appendix C and D) and the interview guides for head teachers and teachers (refer to appendix E and F).

3.4.1 The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) by Hallinger (1982) was developed over 30 years ago as a tool that could be used by both researchers and school practitioners in the measurement of the instructional leadership construct. It is based upon the conceptual framework that has been presented earlier in this thesis. The instrument has subsequently been employed by numerous school systems as well as by more than 200 researchers in published studies and doctoral dissertations focusing on principal instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2011a).

The original form of the PIMRS (Hallinger, 1982) contained 11 subscales and 72 “behaviourally anchored” items. Subsequent revision of the instrument reduced the instrument to 10 subscales and 50 items. For each item, the rater assesses the frequency with which the principal enacts a behaviour or practice associated with that particular instructional leadership function. Each item is rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from (1) almost never to (5) almost always. The instrument is scored by calculating the mean for the items that comprise each subscale. This results in a profile that portrays perceptions of principal performance on each instructional leadership function.

Three parallel forms of the instrument have been developed and tested: a self-assessment form to be completed by the principal, a teacher form and a supervisor form. The items that comprise

each form are identical; only the stems changes to reflect the differing perspectives of the role groups (Hallinger& Murphy, 1985).

According to Hallinger (1982), principal self- assessment using the PIMRS provides useful comparative results, but when taken alone, may not provide a valid picture of principal instructional leadership. Some principals tend to overestimate their role behaviour, while others may underestimate the degree of leadership exercised in this domain. Hallinger (1982) goes on to state that when used as part of a principal evaluation system, it is essential that the PIMRS be administered to the teaching staff of the principal's school. The reason for this is that only the teacher scores have demonstrated validity and reliability. Hallinger (1982), states that only teachers who have worked with the administrator for a full year, should be asked to complete the PIMRS.

In this study only two forms were used, that is, the principal and teachers forms. The study did not utilize the supervisor form due to the nature of the research topic. The study was about the effect of the head teachers' instructional leadership practices on the teaching and learning process. The study sought the perceptions of the head teachers and the teachers on the instructional leadership practices of the head teachers and their effect on the teaching and learning.

The supervisor form could not be used because head teachers in Zambia are supervised by District Education Board Secretaries (DEBS) and District Education Standards Officers (DESOs) whose offices in most cases are located far away from many schools and they do not have direct supervision and observation of the head teachers.

Validation studies in the United States like those stated above indicate that the *PIMRS* form that solicits the teachers' perceptions provides the most valid data of the three forms.

3.4.1 Reliability of the PIMRS

According to Leedy and Ormrod (2001), the reliability of a measurement instrument is the extent to which it yields consistent results. Lang and Heiss (1998) defined reliability as the consistency with which an instrument yields the same or similar responses across settings and time. Several different approaches may be employed for assessing the reliability of a test instrument: test-retest, parallel forms, inter-rater, internal consistency. Kerlinger (1996) as cited in Hallinger (2011) states that studies employing the *PIMRS* have relied exclusively on measures of internal consistency of the instrument. Internal consistency refers to the degree to which items that have been grouped together conceptually as subscales correlate with each other.

The original validation study found that the *PIMRS* met high standards of reliability (Hallinger, 1983). All the ten subscales exceeded .80 using Cronbach's test of internal consistency. Subsequent studies have generally substituted Ebel's (1951) test for calculating inter-rater reliability for Cronbach's formula. This test provides a more accurate test of reliability for ratings aggregated from a set of schools where respondents within schools such as teachers are rating a feature of the school like the principal.

These studies have supported the original validation study in its conclusion that the scale provides reliable data on instructional management (Dunn, 2010; Fulton, 2009; Harris, 2002; Howe, 1995; Jones, 1987; Leitner, 1994; Mercer, 2004; Moore, 2003; O'Day, 1984 as cited in Hallinger (2011)

3.4.2 Validity of the PIMRS

An appraisal instrument, in order to be useful, must provide data that not only are accurate but consistent but also measure the construct as conceptualized by the researcher. (Lang and Heiss, 1998) Latham and Wexley (1981) further state that “a valid measure should yield consistent (reliable) data about what it’s concerned with regardless of the time of day, week, or month the measures are taken, and regardless of who takes the measures”, (p. 65).

Studies have further tested the PIMRS for face validity, content validity and discriminant validity. Initially the instrument was judged to be a valid measurement tool for use at elementary school level. However, subsequent studies expanded on the instrument’s validation (e.g., Hallinger et al., 1994; Jones, 1987; Leitner, 1994; O’Day, 1984) as cited in Hallinger (1994). It suffices to conclude that the instrument appears to have provided a reliable and valid means of assessing the instructional leadership of school principals.

3.4.3 Interview Guides

The interview guides used in this study were developed by the researcher. The formulation of the interview guides was done to meet the requirements of the research questions.

Semi- structured interview guides which consisted of a list of questions that helped to manage the interview process systematically were used. There were two interview guides namely for head teachers and teachers. The interview guides for teachers and head teachers consisted of a list of questions that guided the researcher. Copies of the interview guides are attached as appendix (E and F).

May (1997) states that “interviews yield rich insights into people’s experiences, opinions, aspirations, attitudes and feelings” (p.108). This was considered important and relevant to this study because it sought to explore the perceptions of head teachers and teachers on the construct of instructional leadership and its effect on the teaching- learning process. The study further sought to find out whether the head teachers who participated in this study had received any training that prepared them for the role of instructional leadership.

According to Robson (2002), the semi- structured interview has predetermined questions but the order can be modified based on the interviewer’s perception of what seems to be most appropriate. Denscombe (2003) adds that in a semi- structured interview, the interviewee can develop ideas and speak more widely on issues raised by the researcher. Denscombe (2003) further adds that in this type of interview, answers are open- ended, and there is more emphasis on the interviewee elaborating points of interest and that the interviewer can change the question wording and questions that appear inappropriate with particular interviewees can be omitted.

The semi- structured interview was chosen for this study because it has a number of advantages which were applicable to this study. The advantages of interviews as elaborated by for example by Denscombe; (2003); Robson; (2000); Payne and Payne; (2004) include high response rate, validity, flexibility, use of simple equipment, depth of information and informants’ priorities.

This researcher adopted the semi- structured face- to- face interviews as it was thought that the approach would best capture the perceptions of the head teachers and teachers.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

Data were collected through the administration of questionnaires to the respondents. Face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions were also conducted using interview guides to gather more information from the respondents. The researcher also visited the schools sampled to interact with the respondents and also took time to observe activities and interactions in the selected schools. This also helped in the validation and cross checking of the findings. The researcher further also analysed documents such as profiles of grade nine examination results and any other relevant documents to obtain more information.

Permission to use the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) was granted by the author Professor Phillip Hallinger. (See appendix A) The researcher was also granted permission to carry out the research in schools through a letter to all District Education Board Secretaries (DEBS) and head teachers by the Provincial Education Officer-Central Province, (See appendix B).

The researcher visited all the schools to distribute the questionnaires and conduct interviews with head teachers and held focus group discussions with teachers and also took time to observe the activities in the selected basic schools.

3.5.1 Administration of the PIMRS (Principal and Teacher Forms)

The Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) was the major instrument used to collect data in this study. Two types of the instrument were used. The head teachers assessed their own instructional leadership practices using the PIMRS-Principal form (see Appendix C). The teachers assessed the instructional leadership practices of their head teachers using the Teacher form (see Appendix D). It was important to use the two forms because literature that

includes Hallinger (2011) established that principals tended to overrate themselves and that the assessments of teachers tended to be more objective. Isik (2000) as quoted in Maliwatu (2011) observed that teachers are one of the best sources to investigate the effectiveness of the head teachers. Kouzes and Posner (1997) also indicated that the people selected as observers must be those who directly observe the leader.

The researcher would like to state that since the questionnaire was developed abroad and that most of the educational terms used in the questionnaire related more to the American school systems, there was always need to take time to explain the items in the questionnaire to the respondents. For example, the word principal was used in the questionnaire whereas here in Zambia the word that is commonly used is head teacher. Another word that was not familiar to the respondents was instruction which refers to teaching and is not commonly used here in Zambia. However, the head teachers and teachers who participated in this study appreciated the use of the PIMRS and they said it was educative and beneficial to their work.

In some schools, the researcher waited for the respondents to fill in the questionnaires and collected them. In certain schools however, the researcher had to leave the questionnaires behind especially if the teachers were found to be teaching or in meetings. This usually led to not having 100% questionnaire return rate. When such instances occurred, the researcher returned to the school to re-administer the questionnaire and wait for the responses.

Initially there were instances of uncertainty and seemingly fear to fill in the questionnaires especially on the part of teachers, who somehow thought that by assessing their head teachers, they may somehow find out what they wrote about them and penalize them. The researcher

assured them of the confidentiality of their responses and that the information was going to be used for this study only.

This was enhanced by the fact that the questionnaire for teachers did not require them to write their names, they only had to fill in the name of the school and the number of years they had taught at that school and worked under their current head teacher. There were instances also where some teachers who felt they did not want to assess their head teachers requested not to participate and these were usually allowed to do so because the participation was voluntary.

The head teachers too had their own fears. Some of them were initially reluctant to respond to the questionnaire. Their fears were heightened by the fact that head teachers did not only have to write the name of their school and the number of years they had served as head teachers but also their names on the questionnaire. The head teachers thought that maybe their responses would be taken to their supervisors and could be used for administrative purposes.

The researcher once again took time to explain and assure the head teachers that their responses to the questionnaire were purely for academic purposes and were intended to be used for this study only. Leedy and Ormond (2001) stated that people could respond to questions truthfully if they are assured that their responses will be anonymous.

3.5.2 Interviews

Data was also obtained through the face-to-face interviews and focus group discussions that were conducted with the head teachers and teachers. The interviews were conducted using the interview guides which were developed by the researcher (refer to Appendix E and F). The

interview guides were prepared to meet the requirements of the research questions and to fill in the gaps where some questions in the questionnaire would not be adequately tackled.

Focus group discussions were held with teachers to maximize on time and also to protect instructional time. The focus group discussions were held during midmorning break times or in the afternoon after classes. The interviews with head teachers were usually held in their offices while the discussions with teachers would be held in the staffroom or a small classroom, usually away from the office of the head teacher. This seemingly made the teachers more comfortable than when the office of the head teacher was in close range.

Both the interviews with head teachers and the focus group discussions with teachers were recorded and later transcribed. However, the focus group interviews were not without problems, some teachers expressed fear and felt they did not want to say anything against their head teachers; usually these were encouraged to leave the group discussion and a replacement would be sought.

Pole and Lampard (2002) argue that tape recording offers the most comprehensive method of recording dialogue. Atkins and Wallace (2012) state that audio recording allows for careful review of data. However, Atkins and Wallace (2012) also advise that the technology in the audio recording may fail leaving no record of the interview and that the recording of the interview may make the interviewee self-conscious and inhibit their responses. Transcription of the interviews was time consuming and this is one of the disadvantages of the interview method if the proceedings are recorded.

The face-to-face interview allowed for flexibility and gave chance to the researcher to modify the line of enquiry in some cases and follow up responses and investigating underlying motives in a way that self-administered questionnaires may not. Knight (2002) underscores this point when he argues that researchers using the face-to-face inquiry can improvise and change the direction of a whole enquiry to accommodate new insights and comments made by participants.

However, this was not to say that the interview method did not have problems. Interviews were time consuming. This researcher faced a number of time consuming challenges such as making arrangements to visit the schools, securing necessary permission, confirming arrangements and rescheduling appointments in instances of absences and other developments. This was more so when it came to interviews with head teachers. Most of the times the researcher visited the schools to interview head teachers, they would be out of their stations usually attending meetings or workshops. This meant that the researcher had to reschedule the appointments and had to go back to those schools later.

3.5.3 Observations

According to Wellington (2000) participant observation is the key research strategy employed in ethnographic research where a researcher becomes, effectively an ‘insider’ participating in the cultural and social world of the group as she/he attempts to draw meaning from their actions. The researcher in this study visited the schools sampled and interacted with the respondents. The researcher took time to observe the activities in the sampled schools. The researcher did the observations using a check list of the indicators of instructional leadership that have been outlined in the literature review in chapter two.

Some of the schools were visited more than once for cross-checking and validation. Leedy and Ormrod (2001) argued that observation data when coupled with interviews permit for data triangulation. Flick (2002) points out that the term triangulation is used in social research to refer to “observation of the research issue from at least two different points.... And is most often realized by means of applying different methodological approaches” (p. 178).

3.5.4 Document Analysis

Document analysis is a form of qualitative research in which documents are studied and interpreted by the researcher to give voice and meaning around an assessment topic. Analysing documents incorporates coding content into themes similar to how focus group or interview transcripts are analysed. In this study the researcher also used document analysis as a research tool and studied some documents that related to the topic of study. The documents looked at included statements of analysed pupils’ results, minutes of staff meetings, mission statements, vision statements and school mottos that were usually found pinned in head teachers’ office notice boards and in the staff rooms.

These documents were also discussed with both the head teachers and teachers.

3.6 Data Analysis

As stated earlier, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in this study. Some research questions required to be answered using quantitative methods of analysis, while others were to be answered using qualitative methods. Descriptive analysis was used on qualitative data to identify common inferences in order to establish facts.

The quantitative data in this study was obtained through the use of the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). As earlier stated in this study, the PIMRS contains 10 subscales and 50 items. For each item, the ratter assesses the frequency with each the principal enacts a behaviour or practice associated with that particular instructional leadership function. Each item is rated on a Likert- type scale ranging from (1) almost never to (5) almost always. The instrument is scored by calculating the mean for the items that comprise each subscale. This results in a profile that portrays perceptions of principal performance on each instructional leadership functions.

The head teachers awarded themselves scores through the PIMRS- principal form while the teachers assessed their head teachers through the PIMRS- teacher form. The averages of responses from teachers on the subscales from the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale were calculated and also of the responses from head teachers.

The data that was obtained through the administration of the PIMRS was analysed using the statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), statistical analysis software. Combined responses from head teachers and teachers were also calculated.

Independent sample t Tests were calculated to compare the mean differences in the 10 principal Instructional Management Rating Scale subscales or job functions, between the perceptions of teachers and how the head teachers rated themselves. Correlations tests were also run.

The qualitative data was obtained through interviews with the head teachers and also through focus group discussions with teachers. Wiersma (2000) described data analysis in qualitative research as “a process of categorization, description, and synthesis” (p.204). Patton (2002) stated

that qualitative analysis transforms data into findings. He further cautioned that, “there is no formula that exists for the transformation, guidance, yes, but not recipe” (p.432)

Patton (2002) stated that,

The challenge of qualitative analysis lies in making-sense of massive amounts of data. This involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting Trivia from significance, identifying significant patterns, and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal. (p. 432).

In this study, the researcher used some of the six typical phases for analysis in qualitative research as described by Marshall and Rossman (1999) as follows: organizing the data, generating categories, themes, and patterns; coding the data; testing the emergent understanding; searching for alternative explanations and writing the report.

Summary

In this chapter, the research methods used in this study have been explained. The type of research has been explained and a description of the sample has been given. The research instruments, data collection and data analysis procedures have also been fully discussed and explained. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

4.0 Overview

This chapter presents the findings of the study and this is done in both quantitative and qualitative forms. The chapter begins by giving an overview of participants in the study, followed by the presentation of data that was obtained quantitatively through the Principal Management Rating Scale (PIMRS). The chapter further presents the data that was obtained qualitatively.

The purpose of this study was to establish whether head teachers in selected basic schools in the Central Province of Zambia were instructional leaders as stated by the National Policy on Education (1996); Educating Our Future and also to establish the extent to which these head teachers practiced instructional leadership. In addition the study sought to assess the effects of instructional leadership practices by head teachers on the teaching and learning process and further to establish whether these head teachers received any training that prepared them for this role either at pre service or in service levels.

The chapter is guided by the following research questions as stated in chapter one:

1. What are the perceptions of the head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the instructional leadership role of the head teacher?
2. To what extent is Instructional leadership being practiced by head teachers in the basic schools?
3. What are the perceptions of head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the effects of instructional leadership on the teaching-learning process?

4. Did the head teachers in these basic schools receive any training that prepared them for this role either at pre service or in service level?

The first part of this chapter presents the findings obtained using the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) and the second part presents the findings obtained from the responses to the interview questions, observations and document analysis.

4.1 Overview of Participants in this Study

In this study, the instructional leadership practices of head teachers in the basic schools of Central province were examined through the self-assessments of the head teachers themselves and through the assessments of teachers working under their leadership. 32 head teachers and 160 teachers participated in this study. As stated earlier, the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale was used in data collection. The researcher used both the principal-self-evaluation and teacher- observer form.

Background Information of Teachers

A hundred and sixty questionnaires were collected from teachers in 32 Basic schools in Central Province of Zambia. Eighteen (11.3%) of the participants had worked as teachers for a year; 28 (17.5%) had worked for 2-4 years; 47 (29.4%) had worked for 5-9 years; 31 (19.4%) had worked for 10-15 years; and 22 (13.8%) had worked for more than 15 years. Fourteen participants did not indicate the number of years they had worked.

Thirty-nine (24.4%) of the participants had worked with the current head teacher for a year; 72 (45.0%) of the participants had worked with their current head teacher for 2-4 years; twenty-seven (16.9%) had worked with their current head teacher for 5-9 years; seven (4.4%) had

worked with their current head teacher for 10-15 years; and three (1.9%) had worked with their current head teacher for more than 15 years . Twelve participants did not indicate the number of years they had worked with their current head teachers.

Background Information of Head teachers

Thirty-two questionnaires were collected from 32 Basic school head teachers in Central Province of Zambia. Eight (25.0%) of the participants had worked for a year; ten (31.3%) had worked for 2-4 years; nine (28.1%) had worked for 5-9 years; and three (9.4%) had worked for 10-15 years. Two participants did not indicate the number of years they had worked.

4.2 Reliability Analysis

Hallinger (1982) found the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale to have reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) of at least .80 on each subscale. The analysis in this study yielded reliability coefficients ranging from .65 to .85 for teachers' responses. The only subscale that showed poor internal consistency (.65) was communicating school goals. The head teachers' data produced reliability coefficients between .23 and .91. Three subscales evidenced poor internal consistency, namely: Monitoring Student progress (.23), coordinating the curriculum (.54), and Framing school goals (.57).

Table 4.2-1 Showing Cronbach’s alpha for Teachers and Head teachers Subscales

Subscale	Cronbach’s alpha	
	Teachers	Head teachers
Frame school goals	.728	.574
Communicate school goals	.649	.672
Supervise & evaluate instruction	.823	.618
Coordinate curriculum	.780	.538
Monitor students’ progress	.746	.229
Protect instructional time	.675	.823
Maintain high visibility	.796	.687
Provide incentives for teachers	.813	.720
Promote professional development	.849	.907
Provide incentives for learning	.816	.695

Source: Author with reference to Cronbach (1951)

4.3 Data obtained from the PIMRS

4.3.1 Teachers

Table 4.3-1 Descriptive Statistics for Teachers’ Responses

SN	Subscales	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Frame Goals	150	10	25	19.74	2.998
2	Communicate Goals	152	11	25	19.36	3.155
3	Supervise & Evaluate	157	7	25	19.23	3.960
4	Coordinate Curriculum	150	7	25	19.29	3.575
5	Monitor Progress	151	7	25	18.36	4.004
6	Protect Time	154	10	25	18.62	3.280
7	Maintain Visibility	156	5	25	16.47	4.592
8	Incentives for Teachers	155	5	25	16.83	4.672
9	Promote Development	158	10	25	20.45	3.790
10	Incentives for Learning	155	5	25	17.64	4.436
	Valid N (list wise)	112				

Table 4.3.1 shows the average of responses from teachers on the subscales from the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale

The sub scales are: (i) Framing the School Goals, (ii) Communicating School Goals,(iii) Supervision and Evaluating Instruction,(iv) Coordinating the Curriculum, (v) Monitoring Student Progress,(vi) Protecting Instructional Time,(vii) Maintaining High Visibility, (viii) Providing Incentives for Teachers,(ix) Promoting Professional Development, and(x) Providing Incentives for Learning.

The mean score in all the categories was between 16.47 and 20.45. Overall, teachers rated their head teachers highest in the category Promoting Professional Development (20.45) and the lowest in the category of Maintaining High Visibility (16.47). It is worth noting that teachers scored their head teachers highly also in the subscales Framing the School Goals (19.74), Communicating School Goals (19.36), Coordinating the Curriculum (19.29). The teachers further rated their head teachers much lower in the instructional job functions of Providing Incentives for teachers (16.83) and Providing Incentives for learning (17.64) as shown.

4.3.2 Head teachers

Table 4.3-2 Descriptive Statistics for head teachers' responses

SN	Subscales	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Frame the School Goals	30	15	25	20.40	2.387
2	Communicate The School Goals	31	12	23	18.87	2.566
3	Supervise& Evaluate Instruction	32	8	25	20.50	3.121
4	Coordinate the Curriculum	31	14	25	20.03	2.331
5	Monitor Student Progress	31	14	22	18.69	2.407
6	Protect Instructional Time	32	10	25	19.34	3.470
7	Maintain High Visibility	32	9	24	18.06	3.435
8	Provide Incentives for Teachers	30	12	24	18.03	3.068
9	Promote Professional Development	32	14	25	21.03	2.989
10	Provide Incentives for Learning	32	10	24	18.22	3.643
	Valid N (list wise)	25				

Table 4.3.2 shows the responses from head teachers on the average subscales from the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale.

The mean scores were between 18.03 and 21.03. Head teachers rated themselves highest in Promoting Professional Development (21.03) and lowest in Providing Incentives for Teachers (18.03).

The second highest mean score for head teachers is Supervising and Evaluating Instruction (20.50); and the third highest mean score is Framing School Goals (20.40). The other functions that are rated lower are Maintaining High Visibility (18.06) and Providing Incentives for learning (18.22).

4.3.3 Combined Responses head teachers and teachers

Table 4.3-3 Descriptive Statistics for combined sample of teachers and head teachers

SN	Subscales	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	Frame Goals	180	10	25	19.85	2.909
2	Communicate Goals	183	11	25	19.28	3.062
3	Supervise Evaluate	189	7	25	19.44	3.853
4	Coordinate Curriculum	181	7	25	19.41	3.401
5	Monitor Progress	182	7	25	18.42	3.789
6	Protect Time	186	10	25	18.74	3.315
7	Maintain Visibility	188	5	25	16.74	4.449
8	Incentives for Teachers	185	5	25	17.03	4.467
9	Promote Development	190	10	25	20.55	3.667
10	Incentives for Learning	187	5	25	17.74	4.307
	Valid N (list wise)	137				

The mean scores in all categories were between 16.74 and 20.55. The lowest mean score was again Maintaining High Visibility (16.74) and the highest was Promoting Professional Development (20.55).

4.4 Independent Sample t Tests

Table 4.4-1 Independent Samples t Test Results for the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale Subscales as a Function of Role (Combined Sample)

	N		Mean		Std. Deviation		t	df	p
	teachers	head teachers	Teachers	head teachers	teachers	head teachers			
Frame Goals	150	30	19.74	20.40	2.998	2.387	-1.135	178	0.258
Communicate Goals	152	31	19.36	18.87	3.155	2.566	0.813	181	0.418
Supervise Evaluate	157	32	19.23	20.50	3.960	3.121	-1.709	187	0.089
Coordinate Curriculum	150	31	19.29	20.03	3.575	2.331	-1.461	63.2 62	0.149
Monitor Progress	151	29	18.36	18.69	4.004	2.407	-0.588	62.3 87	0.558
Protect Time	154	32	18.62	19.34	3.280	3.470	-1.129	184	0.260
Maintain Visibility	156	32	16.47	18.06	4.592	3.435	-2.246	56.3 75	0.029*
Incentives for Teachers	155	30	16.83	18.03	4.672	3.068	-1.781	58.6 51	0.080
Promote Development	158	32	20.45	21.03	3.790	2.989	-.956	53.3 57	0.343
Incentives for Learning	155	32	17.64	18.22	4.436	3.643	-.693	185	0.489

Note: * denotes significant p value ($p < .05$)

Independent sample *t* tests were run to compare the mean differences in the 10 Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale subscales, or job functions, between the perceptions of teachers and how the head teachers rated themselves, teachers versus head teachers. The statistics were significant in only one situation, Maintain Visibility ($t=-2.246$; $DF=56.375$; $p=0.029$) at $\alpha=0.05$. For this subscale, head teachers rated themselves more highly ($M = 18.06$, $SD = 3.435$) than they were rated by their teachers ($M = 16.47$, $SD = 4.592$).

4.5 Correlations

Table 4.5-1 Correlation Matrix for the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale Subscales (Combined sample)

	FG	CG	SE	CC	MP	PT	MV	IT	PD
IL	.299**	.432**	.367**	.432**	.116	.258**	.580**	.552**	.432**
PD	.458**	.495**	.446**	.525**	.284**	.375**	.452**	.512**	
IT	.383**	.352**	.478**	.390**	.302**	.342**	.536**		
MV	.342**	.438**	.534**	.410**	.332**	.357**			
PT	.473**	.268**	.300**	.352**	.221**				
MP	.213**	.301**	.354**	.330**					
CC	.557**	.536**	.494**						
SE	.589**	.564**							
CG	.520**								

Note: FG = Frame Goals, CG = Communicate Goals, SE= Supervise and Evaluate, CC=Coordinate Curriculum, MP=Monitor Progress, PT=Protect Time, MV=Maintain Visibility, IT=Incentives for Teachers, PD=Promote Development, IL=Incentives for Learners. **denotes correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Pearson correlations revealed significant relationships between all subscale pairs in all samples.

However, a number of correlations were particularly strong, sharing approximately 50% or more of their variance.

Table 4.5.1 displays the correlations for the combined sample of teachers and head teachers. Framing School Goals was strongly related to Supervising and Evaluating instruction, $r(178) = .59, p < .001$; Communicate Curriculum, $r(170) = .56, p < .001$; and Communicate Goals, $r(173) = .52, p < .001$. Promote Development was strongly related to Coordinate Curriculum, $r(179) = .53, p < .001$ and Incentives for Teachers, $r(183) = .51, p < .001$. Incentives for Learners is strongly related to Maintain Visibility, $r(183) = .58, p < .001$, and Incentives for Teachers, $r(180) = .55, p < .001$. Coordinate Curriculum is strongly related to Frame Goals, $r(180) = .56, p < .001$, and Communicate Goals, $r(170) = .54, p < .001$. Supervise and Evaluate is strongly related to Frame Goals, $r(180) = .59, p < .001$, and Communicate Goals, $r(170) = .56, p < .001$.

Table 4.5-2 Correlations for head teacher sample

	FG	CG	SE	CC	MP	PT	MV	IT	PD
IL	.088	-.061	.104	-.001	-.380*	-.215	.218	.360	.162
PD	.441*	.195	.458**	.374*	.075	.298	.427*	.261	
IT	.275	.167	.358	.009	.031	.223	.516**		
MV	.355	.242	.520**	.028	.033	.269			
PT	.542**	.119	.463**	.258	.088				
MP	-.025	.214	.108	.090					
CC	.468*	.291	.480**						
SE	.591**	.375*							
CG	.149								

Note: FG = Frame Goals, CG = Communicate Goals, SE= Supervise and Evaluate, CC=Coordinate Curriculum, MP=Monitor Progress, PT=Protect Time, MV=Maintain Visibility, IT=Incentives for Teachers, PD=Promote Development, IL=Incentives for Learners. ** Denotes Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); * Denotes Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.5.2 displays the correlations for the head teacher subsample. Supervise and Evaluate and Frame Goals had the strongest correlation for head teachers, $r(30) = .60, p < .001$. Supervise and Evaluate was also strongly related to Maintain Visibility, $r(32) = .52, p < .002$. Protect Time was related to Frame Goals, $r(30) = .54, p < .002$. Lastly, Incentives for Teachers was related to Maintain Visibility, $r(30) = .52, p < .004$.

Table 4.5-3 Correlations for Teachers subsample

	FG	CG	SE	CC	MP	PT	MV	IT	PD
IL	.324**	.504**	.397**	.480**	.251**	.341**	.626**	.573**	.465**
PD	.455**	.539**	.441**	.537**	.348**	.387**	.452**	.536**	
IT	.386**	.383**	.483**	.418**	.372**	.357**	.533**		
MV	.332**	.478**	.527**	.442**	.411**	.367**			
PT	.458**	.303**	.264**	.366**	.262**				
MP	.276**	.356**	.424**	.401**					
CC	.564**	.574**	.491**						
SE	.585**	.601**							
CG	.574**								

Note: FSG = Framing School Goals, CSG = Communicating School Goals, SEI= Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, CC=Coordinating Curriculum, MSP=Monitoring Student Progress, PIT=Protect Instructional Time, MHV=Maintaining High Visibility, PIT= Providing Incentives for Teachers, PPD=Promoting Professional Development, PIL= Providing Incentives for Learners. Denotes **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.5.3 displays the correlations for the teachers' subsample. Teachers had the strongest correlation between Incentives for Learners and Maintain Visibility, $r(151) = .63, p < .001$. Incentives for Learners was also strongly related to Incentives for Teachers, $r(151) = .57, p < .001$, and Communicate Goals, $r(151) = .50, p < .001$. In addition, Promoting Professional Development is strongly related to Communicating School Goals, $r(150) = .54, p < .001$; Coordinate Curriculum, $r(148) = .54, p < .001$; and Incentives for Teachers, $r(153) = .54, p < .001$. Maintain Visibility is strongly related to Supervising and Evaluating instruction, $r(153) = .53, p < .001$; and Incentives for Teachers, $r(151) = .53, p < .001$. Supervise and Evaluate is closely related to Frame Goals, $r(148) = .59, p < .001$; and Communicate Goals, $r(151) = .60, p < .001$. Lastly, Communicate Goals is related strongly with Frame Goals, $r(144) = .56, p < .001$.

Correlations

Table 4.5-4 Correlations Coefficients Combined sample

		FSG	CSG	SEI	CC	MSP	PIT	MHV	PIT	PPD	PIL
FSG	Pearson Correlation	1	.520**	.589**	.557**	.213**	.473**	.342**	.383**	.458**	.299**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.005	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	180	173	178	170	172	174	176	173	179	176
CSG	Pearson Correlation	.520**	1	.564**	.536**	.301**	.268**	.438**	.352**	.495**	.432**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	173	183	182	173	174	177	179	176	181	180
SEI	Pearson Correlation	.589**	.564**	1	.494**	.354**	.300**	.534**	.478**	.446**	.367**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	178	182	189	180	181	183	185	182	187	184
CC	Pearson Correlation	.557**	.536**	.494**	1	.330**	.352**	.410**	.390**	.525**	.432**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	170	173	180	181	173	176	177	174	179	176
MHP	Pearson	.213**	.301**	.354**	.330**	1	.221**	.332**	.302**	.284**	.116

		FSG	CSG	SEI	CC	MSP	PIT	MHV	PIT	PPD	PIL
	Correlation										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.000	.000	.000		.003	.000	.000	.000	.124
	N	172	174	181	173	182	176	178	176	180	177
PIT	Pearson Correlation	.473**	.268**	.300**	.352**	.221**	1	.357**	.342**	.375**	.258**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	174	177	183	176	176	186	182	179	184	181
MHV	Pearson Correlation	.342**	.438**	.534**	.410**	.332**	.357**	1	.536**	.452**	.580**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	176	179	185	177	178	182	188	181	186	183
PIT	Pearson Correlation	.383**	.352**	.478**	.390**	.302**	.342**	.536**	1	.512**	.552**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000	.000
	N	173	176	182	174	176	179	181	185	183	180
PPD	Pearson Correlation	.458**	.495**	.446**	.525**	.284**	.375**	.452**	.512**	1	.432**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		.000
	N	179	181	187	179	180	184	186	183	190	185
PIL	Pearson Correlation	.299**	.432**	.367**	.432**	.116	.258**	.580**	.552**	.432**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.124	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	176	180	184	176	177	181	183	180	185	187

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.5-5 Correlations for head teacher sample

		FSG	CSG	SEI	CC	MSP	PIT	MHV	PIT	PPD	PIL
FSG	rho	1	.149	.591**	.468*	-.025	.542**	.355	.275	.441*	.088
	p		.441	.001	.010	.897	.002	.054	.156	.015	.642
	N	30	29	30	29	29	30	30	28	30	30
CSG	rho	.149	1	.375*	.291	.214	.119	.242	.167	.195	-.061
	p	.441		.037	.119	.257	.523	.189	.388	.294	.744
	N	29	31	31	30	30	31	31	29	31	31
SEI	rho	.591**	.375*	1	.480**	.108	.463**	.520**	.358	.458**	.104

		FSG	CSG	SEI	CC	MSP	PIT	MHV	PIT	PPD	PIL
	p	.001	.037		.006	.564	.008	.002	.052	.008	.573
	N	30	31	32	31	31	32	32	30	32	32
CC	rho	.468*	.291	.480**	1	.090	.258	.028	.009	.374*	-.001
	p	.010	.119	.006		.638	.161	.879	.963	.038	.997
	N	29	30	31	31	30	31	31	29	31	31
MSP	rho	-.025	.214	.108	.090	1	.088	.033	.031	.075	-.380*
	p	.897	.257	.564	.638		.639	.860	.873	.688	.035
	N	29	30	31	30	31	31	31	29	31	31
PIT	rho	.542**	.119	.463**	.258	.088	1	.269	.223	.298	-.215
	p	.002	.523	.008	.161	.639		.137	.236	.098	.236
	N	30	31	32	31	31	32	32	30	32	32
MHV	rho	.355	.242	.520**	.028	.033	.269	1	.516**	.427*	.218
	p	.054	.189	.002	.879	.860	.137		.004	.015	.231
	N	30	31	32	31	31	32	32	30	32	32
PIT	rho	.275	.167	.358	.009	.031	.223	.516**	1	.261	.360
	p	.156	.388	.052	.963	.873	.236	.004		.164	.051
	N	28	29	30	29	29	30	30	30	30	30
PPD	rho	.441*	.195	.458**	.374*	.075	.298	.427*	.261	1	.162
	p	.015	.294	.008	.038	.688	.098	.015	.164		.375
	N	30	31	32	31	31	32	32	30	32	32
PIL	rho	.088	-.061	.104	-.001	-.380*	-.215	.218	.360	.162	1
	p	.642	.744	.573	.997	.035	.236	.231	.051	.375	
	N	30	31	32	31	31	32	32	30	32	32
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).											
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).											

4.6 Summary of Findings from the PIMRS

The mean scores in all the categories of the teacher ratings were between 16.47 and 20.45. Overall, teachers rated their head teachers highest in the category of Promoting Professional Development (20.45) and the lowest in the category of Maintaining High Visibility (16.47). The teachers also rated their head teachers highly in the subscales Framing School Goals (19.74),

Communicating School Goals (19.36), Coordinating the Curriculum (19.29) as shown in table 4.3.1.

The mean scores for the head teachers' ratings were between 18.03 and 21.03. The head teachers rated themselves lowest in Providing Incentives for Teachers (18.03), second and third lowest in maintaining high visibility and providing incentives for learners. The head teachers also rated themselves second and third highest in the categories of Supervising and Evaluating Instruction (20.50) and framing school goals (20.40) respectively as shown in table 4.3.2.

The mean scores in all the categories for the combined ratings for both head teachers and teachers were between 16.74 and 20.55. The lowest mean score was again Maintaining High Visibility (16.74) and the highest was still Promoting Professional Development (20.55). The other categories that were still rated in the lower category were Providing Incentives for Teachers (17.03), Providing Incentives for Learners (17.74) and Protecting Instructional Time (18.74). It is important to note that these categories that were rated lowest in the combined statistics were the same ones that were also rated lowest by the teachers. Generally, the teachers rated their head teachers lower than they rated themselves.

Independent sample t tests to compare the mean differences in the 10 instructional leadership functions on the Principal Management Rating Scale to compare the perceptions of teachers and how the head teachers rated themselves showed that the statistics were significant in only one job function, Maintaining High Visibility. For this subscale, the head teachers rated themselves higher (M= 18.06) than their teachers rated them (M= 16.47).

Pearson correlation tests that were done for the combined sample, head teacher sample and teacher sample revealed significant relationships between all subscale pairs in all the samples though a number of correlations were particularly strong such as teachers had the strongest correlation between Incentives for learners and Maintain High Visibility, Incentives for learners was also strongly related to Incentives for teachers. Maintaining High Visibility is strongly related to Supervising and Evaluating Instruction. Supervising and Evaluating Instruction and providing Incentives for Teachers were also strongly related to Maintain High Visibility

4.7 Data obtained qualitatively

Qualitative data was obtained through face-to-face interviews with head teachers and teachers, and also focus group discussions with teachers. The interview guides in Appendix E and F were used. A number of questions were asked based on the research questions. Data was further obtained through observations and document analysis.

The responses to the interview questions were written down and also audio recorded. The responses from the interview questions were categorized and presented according to the following themes adopted from the Principal Management Rating Scale (PIMRS): Framing the school goals, Communicating the school goals, Supervising and evaluating instruction, Coordinating the curriculum, Monitoring student progress, Protecting instructional time, Maintaining high visibility, Providing incentives for teachers, Promoting professional development, Providing incentives for learning and Training for the role of head teacher, the concept of instructional leadership and performance of pupils in the selected basic schools.

4.7.1 Framing the School Goals

Framing the school goals talks about how a head teacher develops a focused set of annual school-wide goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them and the use of needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development. It also encompasses the use of data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals.

Head teachers

The head teachers did not have much to say on this question. They said that their school goals were usually framed based on the national curriculum.

On the use of data on student performance when developing school goals, their responses revealed that they hardly did this but usually relied on data from the Examinations Council of Zambia(ECZ) and the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education. They further said that as a result their goals and aims were embedded in the national curriculum.

The head teachers acknowledged that they did not do needs assessment or student performance analysis. This was supported by the lack of computers and electricity especially in the rural schools. The use of computers by head teachers and teachers was seen only in the schools in the urban areas. One head teacher stated:

It is very difficult for us to do proper results analysis due to lack of facilities such as computers and electricity, however, we do try and do analysis manually though we usually rely on the national analysis of results from the examination council of Zambia.

Teachers

The teachers also had very little to say on this theme because they said that they were hardly involved in framing the school goals. The teachers further confirmed that the results of pupils were usually not analysed and that as a result decisions in the school were not made based on analysed results.

It is very rare to hold meetings to discuss performance of pupils based on their results because the analysis is not usually done and most of the times we just go on teaching without really knowing or understanding how and why our pupils performed the way they did.

Another teacher added that; “we normally learn about the performance of our students through announcements from the Examinations Council of Zambia”.

The researcher would like to note that this is one of the functions which both the head teachers and teachers found quite alien to their school situations and therefore did not attract many responses.

4.7.2 Communicating School Goals

This instructional leadership function of communicating the school goals describes the head teachers’ ability to communicate the schools’ mission effectively to members of the school community and the ability to discuss the schools’ academic goals with teachers at staff meetings.

This practice also calls on the head teacher to refer to the schools goals when making curricular decisions with teachers and also to ensure that the schools’ academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school in forms of posters or bulletin boards emphasizing academic

progress. It also encompasses the head teachers' ability to refer to the schools' goals or missions in forums with students such as in school assemblies or discussions.

Head teachers

In regard to this practice of whether the head teacher was able to communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community, the head teachers responded that they found most of the mission statements pinned on the notice boards in their offices and they hardly reviewed them. Only a few head teachers admitted having had written out the mission statements together with their teachers, but even in such instances, they still acknowledged that the mission statements were rarely or not discussed at all. It was clear from the discussions that most of the head teachers did not really understand the mottos and mission statements of their schools as they had to read them out from the notice boards.

You know, these mission statements, I found them when I came to this school and am sure they were written by the head teachers before me and I should admit that we hardly refer to them in our day to day operations in the school.

Another added that;

“In my case we wrote the mission statement together with the teachers but it was just like a mere academic exercise because we don't really integrate them into our academic planning”

Teachers

The teachers interviewed also confirmed this and said that actually most of the mission statements had been there for a long time and were actually outdated.

One teacher stated that:

These mission statements and statements on vision are things we just see on notice boards in staffrooms and sometimes in classrooms but no one really talks about them even in meetings. I for one do not even understand the mission statement of this school and I wonder what their relevance is.

The researcher noted that these mission statements and vision statements for the school were displayed in the offices, staffroom notice boards and where the school was enclosed in a perimeter wall, the mission statements would be written on the wall in big and colourful letters. It was evident from the interviews that most of the head teachers and teachers were not familiar with the mission statements of their schools.

4.7.3 Supervising and Evaluating Instruction

This describes the head teachers' ability to ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school and to be able to review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction. This practice also refers to the head teachers' ability to conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis and to point out specific strengths and weaknesses in teachers' instructional practices in post observation feedback.

Head teachers

In regard to the function of supervising and evaluating instruction, very few head teachers said that they supervised and evaluated the teaching and learning. The majority of them said that they barely found the time to carry out this task as they were ever busy attending to administrative issues and meetings. In one of the schools, a head teacher supported this assertion when she said that ".....the administrative part of my job keeps me away from monitoring the teachers".

Another head teacher responded that

...If I had to monitor teachers, then my office work will suffer...., for me it's actually quite difficult in a term, I may see very few teachers but I have given that responsibility to my deputy head, also I have to report to my superiors on what is happening in my school, so you may find that in and out of the school, I have empowered these locally appointed heads of sections to go down to the classrooms and see to it that the teachers are teaching and that's how we are monitoring.

One head teacher further stated that:

We are supposed to supervise and monitor our teachers but we rarely do so because there is just too much work to do, as a result we let the senior teachers and heads of department do this on our behalf and in some cases there is very little interaction with teachers though we expect the senior teachers to be briefing us on what is going on in the classrooms

Teachers

The teachers' responses further revealed that most of the head teachers did not supervise the teaching and learning. The teachers said that their head teachers were always busy with office work and that they were ever attending meetings and workshops away from the schools. The teachers revealed that the people who supervised instruction were the deputy head teachers and senior teachers.

This was confirmed by various responses from teachers such as this:

..... Our head teacher is very busy, he is always attending meetings and workshops, and you know he is a member of the head teachers association, with the coming of this head teachers association, most heads are not found in schools.

Another teacher went on to say that

.... I rarely see the head teacher; if he is around he usually sits in the office. The supervision is there but it is not much, if there was much supervision from the head, there will be great improvement, most of the time we are on our own as teachers because both the head and deputy go out.

The teachers' responses pointed to the fact that head teachers were detached from the teaching and learning process, the teachers explained that the role of supervising and monitoring teaching was almost completely delegated to the deputy head and senior teachers. The teacher supported his statement by adding that:

...the head is always in the office but he monitors the school through the deputy head and the senior teachers; he speaks to the teachers through the deputy head and the senior teachers. However, there is a problem in senior teachers monitoring and supervising teachers because in the basic schools most of the senior teachers are qualified to teach at primary level and not grade 8 and 9.

Another teacher added

The head teacher rarely goes to the classrooms, the senior teachers supervise instruction on her behalf, and she just acts on reports, supervision not so well done by the head, consultation between the head teachers and teachers is very minimal, and the head teacher talks to teachers through the senior teachers.

Another factor that came out of the responses of the teachers was that their head teachers regarded themselves as school managers because at one point their titles had changed from head teacher to that of school manager.

Our head tells us she is a manager, being a manager means that the instructional part comes down and under managing. In staff briefings, she just gives us instructions that we have to teach...

However in about four schools, the teachers said that their head teachers did observe and evaluate lessons, at least a few lessons and they said that this was good as it made most of them to also focus on their teaching.

The responses from teachers in these schools revealed that their head teachers did observe lessons and held discussions afterwards to give them feedback.

Some teachers said that they found this monitoring beneficial though the majority said that they felt that some head teachers' monitoring was mainly for fault finding and did not add any value to the improvement in the teaching and learning.

4.7.4 Coordinating the Curriculum

This is about the head teachers' ability to make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels, to draw upon the results of school- wide testing when making curricular decisions, monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the schools' curricular objectives and to participate actively in the review of curricular materials.

Head teachers

In regard to this function, the head teachers said that they did not participate in the review of the curriculum because in Zambia, schools used a national curriculum and head teachers were hardly involved in its formulation. Head teachers further said that due to their limited role in the formulation of the curriculum they did not have the authority to make any decisions concerning the curriculum. They however, felt that they should be involved in the process of formulating the curriculum.

As head teachers we are not consulted so much when the curriculum is being formulated, we are simply asked to implement it. However, as head teachers we should be involved because we are the people on the ground and we understand these programmes better than the people at the ministry of education headquarters.

Teachers

A similar response was also echoed by the teachers who said that their head teachers did not participate in the formulation of the curriculum and therefore, did not make decisions based on

the curriculum. The teachers said that schools used national curriculum which they were simply asked to implement.

Our education system excludes our head teachers from participating in the formulation of the school curriculum; it is usually done at national level by the directorate of standards and curriculum.

4.7.5 Monitoring Student Progress

This practice describes the head teachers' ability to meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress and to discuss academic performance results with members of staff to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses, use tests and other performance measures to assess progress towards schools goals, inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form and also to inform students of school's academic progress.

Head teachers

In regard to this function, the head teachers that were interviewed still reiterated that due to their busy schedules, they hardly found time to meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress and that the same applied to meeting with students. They however said that issues of academic performance of pupils were usually discussed in staff meetings which were usually held at the beginning and end of the school term.

A head teacher stated that:

You know as stated earlier we don't just have the time to go to classrooms and monitor how the teaching and learning is going; let alone find time to check pupils progress because if you do that, by the time you come back to the office, you will find a long queue of people waiting to be attended to or a huge hip of files waiting....

Teachers

The teachers interviewed confirmed that their head teachers rarely had time to discuss student progress with them individually.

The head teacher does not take time to interact with pupils, let alone find time to discuss their academic performance with them; when pupils are summoned to the head teachers' office, it's often for disciplinary purposes.

The head teacher does not visit the classrooms often, even when they did it will be mostly to find out something from a teacher.

The teachers said that issues to do with academic performance were usually discussed in staff meetings which were not often held but that it was very rare to hold such discussions with the head teacher or deputy head teacher at an individual teacher level.

4.7.6 Protecting Instructional Time

This instructional leadership practice refers to the head teachers' role in minimizing interruptions of instructional time and encouraging teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts and further to limit the intrusion of extra co-curricular activities on instructional time.

Head teachers

In regard to this practice, the head teachers mentioned meetings and workshops as one of the major factors that disturbed instructional time. They said that they had no power to control most of the things that interrupted teaching and learning as they were far beyond their jurisdiction. The head teachers mentioned sports activities, numerous public holidays such as youth days,

teachers' day, women's day and others as being among the factors that disturbed instructional time.

Meetings for teachers and continuous professional development programmes were also mentioned as some of the major factors that took away teaching and learning time. A head teacher cited activities such as youth day where pupils from various schools would be told to go and march for two weeks. "This takes away learning time".

There are just too many holidays during the school term that disturb teaching and learning such as women's day, youth day and many others because teachers and pupils are expected to go and march or participate in the celebrations; surely these can be celebrated without stopping classes.

Another head teacher added that other factors that really disturbed teaching and learning were:

Unplanned meetings at the District Education Board Secretary's office, teachers attending funerals and absenteeism due to sicknesses of teachers, preventive maintenance where pupils are asked to clean school surroundings especially when there are visitors coming to the school.

The head teachers also revealed that the latest trend in the education sector where teachers had to go for in service courses to upgrade their qualifications had adversely affected the teaching and learning in the schools. They said that many pupils were losing a lot of learning time. The head teachers supported their sentiments with such statements,

...for example where you have 4 or 5 teachers studying on the same programme and can be called to attend residential school at any time and the coordinators of the programmes don't even consider that these teachers are supposed to teach. So you find that five teachers are gone at the same time, meaning pupils will not learn for the entire week or two, children will come to school but how do you cover their classes because here in rural schools you can't find replacements for the teachers.

Another head teacher added that these studies by teachers through distance learning have become very common and they have a big negative impact on teaching and learning.

..Because when these teachers go for contact sessions, they are given assignments and instead of doing these assignments while there, they bring them along and start doing them during working hours, instead of teaching, the teachers are always busy tackling their assignments. Sometimes you want to monitor a teacher, you find that they have no lesson plan but they have a heap of modules which they are reading; then you wonder where is this teacher concentrating, is it the distance education programme or the teaching?

When the head teachers were asked what measures they had put in place to protect instructional time, they all indicated that they could not do much as they could not stop teachers from studying. They further said that some of the factors that disturbed instructional time were beyond their means of control.

Most of these things come as directives from our supervisors, the district education board secretaries (DEBS).It's a question of being pushed against the wall; you can't do much or go against directives from your superiors, you just have to abide and in return certain things have to suffer.

They further revealed that the location of their schools was also a contributing factor to the loss of instructional time. Most of the urban schools were located in the town areas close the central business areas and the district education board secretaries offices. As a result the head teachers said that these schools were often used as venues for meetings and workshops by education officials and that there was nothing much they could do as head teachers.

Being close to the DEBS' office, a lot of disturbances sometimes they are certain programmes which they bring, they would want to use our double rooms for their activities and then you cancel lessons and you cannot say no because these are your superiors.

The rural schools on the other hand are located near or surrounded by villages. In these schools, the head teachers cited rampant absenteeism by pupils and teachers as the major contributor to loss of teaching and learning time. They said that teachers would travel to towns for a number of days to get their salaries because there were no banking facilities near the schools.

in the rural schools parents tolerate their children from being absent from school so that they herd cattle ;you can see, this school is surrounded by villages and livestock, sometimes livestock such as goats and chickens walk through the classrooms while the lesson is going on and pupils will get excited and start screaming and also The villagers would create foot paths passing right through the school with their ox-carts and animals.

Head teachers also cited the idea of schools being zonal centres as another factor that took away huge amounts of teaching and learning time. They explained that a zonal school was one where the other surrounding schools about 6 to 7 would meet for various activities during the school term. The activities would range from head teachers meetings, inter school sports activities and continuous professional development programmes (CPDs).

The head teacher in such a school is also required to monitor CPD programmes in other schools. It was revealed that teaching and learning in zonal schools was often disturbed because when different activities took place, teaching and learning would not go on.

A zonal school is expected to host most of the activities from the different schools attached to that zone. These take a lot of time and in most cases lessons are greatly disturbed.

Teachers

The teachers interviewed also reiterated that too many public holidays during the school calendar interrupted the teaching and learning in schools. They further added that they did not understand the rationale behind a head teacher of a zonal school going out to monitor CPD activities in another school when they hardly did that in their own schools.

The policy of these CPDs is that a head teacher of a zonal school is expected to go out and monitor CPD activities in other schools while they don't do it in their own schools.

The teachers also said that CPDs took away a lot of teaching and learning time and they went on to say that the continuous development programmes were not being done as per the initial idea but just as a formality.

To be honest, these continuous development programmes when they are done, they are just done not to bring knowledge to the teachers but to fulfil the plan for the school. In the end, they are not beneficial to both the teachers and the pupils.

4.7.7 Maintaining High Visibility

This instructional leadership function is about the ability of the head teacher to take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks, to visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students, to attend and participate in extra-curricular activities, to cover classes for teachers who are absent or late and also to tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes.

Head teachers

In regard to this function, the head teachers said that they rarely found time to be available and visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students. Once again the question of head teachers being too busy with office work came in. The head teachers said most of the times they were attending to parents, attending meetings at the District Education Board Secretary's office.

..for me it is actually difficult to be available all the time in the school, I have to report to my superiors on what is happening at my station; so you may find that am in and out of the school ,other than being a head, am a provincial secretary of the head teachers' association which keeps me very busy.

Also our meetings which are just called at random by the district education board secretary (DEBS) and the provincial education officer (PEO) ...when heads should have been at their schools, they will go and assemble where the Provincial Education Officer (PEO) would want to meet them.

On the question of covering classes for teachers who were absent or late, the head teachers said that sometimes they did sit in for such teachers but that mostly they looked for other teachers who were not teaching to sit in for their colleagues. Again the head teachers' responses revealed that even this function was mainly delegated to the deputy head and senior teachers.

This role of visiting classrooms and talking to teachers is delegated to senior teachers, the senior teachers are the ones on the ground, be it staff or pupil discipline, it is done by the senior teachers, the head teachers are completely detached from teaching.

When asked whether they taught, almost all the head teachers apart from two interviewed said that they did not teach.

They once again cited their busy schedules with administration work as a major obstacle to this function. This was supported by various statements that were made by head teachers. For instance, one head teacher said, "I don't teach, maybe once in a while when there is need, otherwise daily activities of administration keep me away from teaching".

Another one had this to say, "It is a good idea for the head to teach in smaller schools but not in bigger schools where there is a lot of office work". Some head teachers said that they did not teach because their schools had enough teachers. One head teacher said,

Basically, heads should not teach because they are too busy, they won't be able to plan, to be in class all the time, heads are more of administrators than teachers.

The rest of the head teachers said it was almost impossible for them to teach because they were too busy with administration work. This was echoed by one head teacher who said

I don't have a class, I can't teach because the administrative part of my job keeps me away from teaching, I can't teach because that class will lag behind as I will be absent most of the time due to attending to administrative matters.

The head teachers who participated in this study totally agreed that it would be a very good idea for head teachers to teach. This is reflected in some responses from the head teachers as follows;

I was privileged last year to go to the United Kingdom to visit our partners; one of the things I learned from our colleagues was that with them there is nothing like the head sitting in the office, my experience there was very good because there I saw that a head is not just confined to the office, they teach. There the head has to go and teach and the deputy as well has to go and teach and that is motivating to both the teachers and pupils, there is nothing like being looked at like a spectator.

Another head teacher who admitted that he did not teach supported the idea of heads teaching because they needed to be in touch with what was going on in the classrooms. He gave the following response;

Head teachers should teach a few lessons; a head teacher should be alert and active not where you forget what is even in a lesson plan. He went on to say thata head teacher needs to be active not where you sit in an office just yawning even when there is nothing to do.

However, a head teacher who said that he taught once in a while had this to say,

Heads should teach because sitting in the office 100% would not help you, or the school or the community, teaching will give you a clear picture of what goes on in the classroom, whatever we preach, we must be in the fore front.

One head teacher told the researcher that it was like this time head teachers had developed the mentality of thinking that the classroom was just for the teachers not for the head teachers. She

further said that head teachers tended to distance themselves from classroom activities and even from their teachers.

Even when the Debs visits your school and they ask how many teachers you have in the school; you would say there are 15 teachers and when we include the head and deputy then there are 17; now the question is are the head and deputy head not teachers?" She further said that it is high time head teachers changed their mentality and got involved in the teaching and learning process, even if it just meant taking on a few lessons.

.. I remember one time during the CPDs, I observed a lesson they had invited me to, I looked at how the teacher presented the lesson and I said this is a very interesting lesson but the way it has been presented..... I asked the teacher to give me the book and I prepared the lesson and demonstrated just to show them that even when we are in these offices, we can still teach and maybe even better than them. And this is very motivating to both pupils and teachers.

Teachers

The teachers who were interviewed confirmed that head teachers were hardly available in schools. They strongly felt that if head teachers were available in school, the teaching and learning process would greatly improve because the teachers would focus on their core responsibilities. The teachers said that the absence of head teachers from schools impacted negatively on teacher performance.

...you know it's a situation of when the "cat is away" .Some teachers would report for work but just sit in the staffroom drinking tea and chatting" "...as a teacher, pupils may not take me seriously but if the head is visible there would be improvement.

The teachers interviewed overwhelmingly agreed that head teachers did not teach. One teacher had this to say

The head concentrates a lot on administrative issues; she is detached from academic work".

Another teacher added that most of the heads do not teach, they consider themselves as bosses.

A further response from another teacher was added,

Modern head teachers don't want to teach, in the olden days, heads and their deputies used to teach; and teachers were motivated; nowadays unfortunately, heads say they don't have the time.

The teachers said that the disconnection of head teachers from the teaching and learning process was worsening the performance of teachers and pupils.

A teaching head would be a great motivator to his teachers because teachers would take him or her as a role model. If a head can teach, who am I not to teach; the presence of the head would also encourage teachers to be available in the schools too because head teachers are respected and feared by teachers as compared to senior teachers.

However, in one school, the teachers said that their head teacher taught;

The head teacher here teaches Geography; he plans together with the teachers of Geography,

Another teacher from the same school added; if you want to differ with him then don't go to class.

Here the head teacher teaches and he is usually available to make sure that teachers are teaching; as a result even the performance of our pupils has improved from 50% to almost 70%.

The head teacher in this school also confirmed that he taught and usually handled grade nine classes. When asked whether he was not too busy with administrative work to find time to teach.

He responded that,

....Time depends on you, if you missed a period; it's up to you to cover up even after school. He further added that when a head teaches it gives them a clear picture of what goes on in the classroom.....

The teachers that were interviewed pointed out that it would be very motivating to them if their head teachers taught because they would look at them as role models and another said that if

head teachers taught, they would be leading by example and would gain a lot of respect from their teachers.

Heads should teach at least one or two periods, otherwise why should he observe teachers when he does not even teach?

This teacher added further that head teachers should “walk the talk”.

The teachers agreed that if head teachers taught, this would have a positive impact on the performance of both the teachers and pupils. This was supported by a response from a teacher;

If the head taught, teachers can observe him and can find best interventions that can be applied in the teaching and learning process”.

They said this would also help the head teacher to have a better understanding of what goes on in the classroom. The teachers overwhelmingly agreed that a head teacher who taught would enhance the performance of his teachers and therefore raise pupil achievement.

You see if a head teacher teaches and knows what is going on in the classroom; it would be easier for him or her to even provide the teaching and learning materials because he will understand the problems, otherwise when people realise that there is not so much supervision of the teaching and learning; teachers would just be idling in the staffroom while pupils will be roaming around the school.....

4.7.8 Providing Incentives for Teachers

This practice talks about the role of the head teacher in reinforcing superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters or memos, compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance, acknowledge teachers’ exceptional performance by writing memos for their personal files, reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition and to create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school.

Head teachers

In regard to this practice, the head teachers agreed that incentives would motivate the teachers but added that incentives were provided in a minimal way and mostly it was in form of awards during the Labour Day and teachers' day which were both annual events and it is mandatory to give awards. They further said that these awards were usually limited to a small number of teachers due to limited resources. One head teacher stated,

“Our resources are very minimal, there is very little we are doing for the teachers”.

The head teachers also acknowledged that they did not reinforce teachers' superior performance through writing memos which were put in the teachers' personal files. One head teacher responded,

“These things of writing to teachers to reinforce their performance are not very common”.

Another head teacher who admitted that he did not reinforce superior performance of teachers through writing asserted

This is an inadequacy which can be corrected and he said that just by responding to this interview question has helped him realize the inadequacy.

The responses also revealed that the presents or awards given were not necessarily to reinforce superior performance by teachers in academics but also given in such categories as the most punctual teacher or the most smartly dressed teacher.

They added that as head teachers they did recognize teachers who were hard workers and tried to motivate them by recommending them for promotion but were quick to say that they were not the final authorities when it came to the promotion of teachers.

As head teachers we do usually recognize hard working teachers and forward recommendations for considerations for promotions but you know we are not the final authorities, our system sometimes does not favour those who perform well and this can be very frustrating to teachers.

The head teachers also added that the choice of teachers to be awarded was a source of conflict among the teachers and their supervisors. One head teacher had this to say,

Incentives motivate teachers though at times they bring conflicts because teachers question the criteria used to select the teachers and those that are not awarded are bitter and demotivated.

Another head teacher added thatsometimes we even fail to award teachers for fear of finger pointing and conflicts

Teachers

When asked whether their head teachers provided them with incentives, all the teachers echoed the same response that their head teachers gave, that incentives were usually given in form of awards on Labour Day and teachers' day. The teachers further said that the head teachers did not commend their superior work through writing and that they felt that the teachers that were awarded were not usually picked on merit and that this was very demotivating to the other teachers.

All the teachers agreed that the idea of commending teachers who performed exceptionally was very good.

That would be very good if we were written to when we performed well, because we can keep those letters on our files and may be even

promotions would be based on that. That would be very nice; it can motivate us to work even harder.

Teachers said that they were generally demotivated due to lack of incentives and also poor conditions of service such as low salaries, poor accommodation. In the rural schools, most of the teachers said that they lacked accommodation and lived in classrooms or in the nearby villages. They added that their situations were worsened by lack of basic amenities such as electricity and running water.

4.7.9 Promoting Professional Development

This instructional leadership role of the head teacher entails ensuring that in-service activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals, actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during in-service training, obtain the participation of the whole staff in important in-service activities concerned with instruction and to set aside time at staff meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from in-service activities.

Head teachers

In response to this instructional leadership function, the head teachers said that they did provide professional development opportunities for their teachers. They added that teachers sometimes did attend workshops in their subject areas through their subject associations. The head teachers also said that it was actually government policy that all teachers should be involved in continuous professional development programmes and they added that all teachers were expected to be in teacher groups where they should plan as a team and also observe one another's lessons and that this type of CPD was also known as lesson study.

The teachers were further expected to pick challenging topics and do team planning and observe their colleagues who may be better in teaching a given a topic. One head teacher said

Teachers may generally skip challenging or difficult topics, so through team planning and teaching, such topics may be covered.

Even though some head teachers said that these lesson study cycles were beneficial and helped teachers to learn from one another, the majority of them said that they consumed a lot of teaching and learning time. This was echoed in this response by a head teacher,

Continuous professional development programmes are trying to help teachers in a way of preparation; but at times when there is a study cycle, you find about seven teachers are involved and all the 14 periods will not be taught.

Some head teachers said that whereas the idea of the lesson study cycles was good, it emanated from a programme based on Strengthening Mathematics, Science and Technology Education (SMASTE), which basically was a study cycle on teaching Science and Mathematics. They said that even the rationale behind the programme was more suitable for Mathematics and Science and not so much for the other subjects.

Lesson study is a problem solving process of professional development for teachers which was adapted by the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education and was modified in order to contextualize it to suit the Zambian school context and introduced in the Zambian schools. This type of professional development has been supported by Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) through strengthening Mathematics, Science & Technology Education (SMASTE) project and strengthening Teachers' Performance and Skills (STEPS) especially for the teachers of Mathematics and Science.

However, in Zambia, the lesson study has been adopted as a major form of professional development and has been introduced to all provinces in the country and it cuts across all the subjects in order to provide the teachers with an opportunity to continuously improve their knowledge and skills in teaching. It was expected that this approach would directly improve the teaching and learning of pupils in schools.

One head teacher added

You know some of these things when they are bringing up certain policies, if they can consult the people on the ground it would be better. This programme is time consuming and some teachers... you have to push them because you have to implement the programme, when you look at it, I haven't seen the fruit as they put it.....and when you look at the setup from where the idea came from, it is very different from our educational set up.

The head teachers generally said that many teachers had a bad attitude towards this programme but just did it as a formality and sometimes as a way of running away from teaching. This was supported by a head teacher, who said that,

You find its group work and they leave the children not attended to and when you ask them, they will tell you that they are planning and observing their fellow teachers.

Teachers

Teachers also agreed that the lesson study cycles were the most common form of continuous professional development available to them in the schools. However, just like the head teachers they said that the benefits of these continuous development programmes were very difficult to see. One teacher stated

“We have been going there but personally I can't see the benefits”

The teachers said that they rarely attended other professional development workshops because they were always told by their head teachers that there were no funds to sponsor them.

We don't attend workshops often, heads and senior teachers are the ones who attend workshops and they rarely share what they learn at these workshops, invitation letters can come for teachers to attend workshops but the head teacher will say there is no money to send you to that conference, and yet we are the ones who do the teaching.

The teachers interviewed all agreed that teachers in the high schools benefitted more from workshops and seminars because they said that there was more funding there than in the basic schools. They also said sometimes they were stopped from attending professional development meetings due to the shortage of teachers in their schools and departments.

Sometimes you are the only teacher in the department and when such an opportunity comes, you will be told you cannot leave the pupils unattended to.

4.7.10 Providing Incentives for Learning

This practice talks about the ability of the head teacher to recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honour roll or mention in the principals newsletter, to use school assemblies to honour students for academic accomplishments, recognize superior student achievement or improvement by meeting students with their work, contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions and support teachers actively in their recognition and reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class.

Head teachers

In regard to this practice, the head teachers said that they recognized students who did superior work with awards and presents during school assemblies. They said that the presents that the

pupils were given were mainly exercise books, pens and rulers. The head teachers said that they also engaged the parents of the pupils through open days which are usually held at the beginning or end of a school term. The head teachers said that the results of pupils were usually given through school report forms during open days and that usually parents of pupils that were not doing well were summoned for discussions at the school.

However, the head teachers acknowledged that they hardly met students in their offices with their work to discuss their academic achievements or improvements. Once again their busy schedules were given as a limiting factor to do so. A few head teachers said they were able to meet some pupils at times though this was usually mainly to do with administrative and disciplinary activities.

You see just like in the other tasks, it's very difficult to find time to meet the pupils to discuss their performance; there is simply no time and these duties are delegated to the senior teachers and the teachers and such discussions are normally held during open days when parents are called to the school.

Sometimes we meet these pupils but usually when we do so it is mainly for disciplinary purposes; there is not so much interaction between pupils and the head teachers' office except when a pupil has committed an offence.

Teachers

All the teachers interviewed also agreed that head teachers were able to give rewards to pupils who performed well and those who made significant contributions to the school mainly through school assemblies and open days. They also said that head teachers rarely met such pupils in their offices. The teachers further echoed their earlier statements that head teachers were usually too busy with office work to find time to meet pupils. They said such assignments were still done by the senior teachers.

Head teachers do not meet pupils to discuss their academic performance, this is a task that is wholly assigned to teachers because even during open days, head teachers are usually absent or they sit in their offices attending to the usual administrative issues

4.7.11 The National Education Policy and the concept of Instructional Leadership

The 1996 National Policy on Education; “Educating Our Future” identifies the head teacher as the focal person in the delivery of quality education in the school. It further stresses that if the quality of teaching and learning in the schools has to improve, head teachers need to be instructional leaders.

Both the head teachers and teachers who participated in this study were asked how familiar they were with the policy document on education and they were asked further if they had read this policy document and whether their schools had a copy of the policy and were utilizing it.

Head teachers

In their responses all the head teachers said that they were aware of the policy and that they had read it but not thoroughly. Most of them agreed that they had not taken time to understand the policy. One of the head teachers responded

The policy..... Aaaa.....oooh, telling the truth sometimes is very good, one should not feel shy to tell the truth, that policy because of the same pressure, we just read part but I will not cheat that we have gone through and understand it better.

One thing that came out of the interview with head teachers was that most of them did not even have a copy of the policy document in their offices.

One head teacher had this to say:

I have not read the policy document but I know I have the book somewhere in my office, it's like what people say that if you hide money in a book, it will never be stolen but put it in a safe, it will be broken and stolen, we attend numerous workshops but we pile things in our offices and they are just gathering dust in head teachers' offices and have not been touched.

They all said that they had read and used the policy at colleges during training when they were doing their assignments in the education courses but not for the purpose of work. Another head teacher admitted that he was not familiar with the policy and had this to say;

The problem is that these documents have not been availed to us".
This head teacher went on to say that

I remember the last time I passed through the Provincial Education Office because the planning officer had told us to pass through so that we could be given a copy or two for people to read; however, I was told that these books were not available.

When asked by the researcher whether they were familiar with the concept of instructional leadership, the head teachers generally said they were not and the majority of them admitted that they had never even come across the term.

I would not cheat that I have read the policy; no I only used it to write my assignments when I was in college and I don't even have a copy here, am hearing that term instructional leadership for the first time.

Another one had this to say;

I am not familiar with the policy. The problem is these documents have not been availed to us; I have never heard of the term instructional leadership.

Generally, the head teachers also failed to define the term instructional leadership or to explain what they understood by a head teacher who was an instructional leader as stated in policy document. The common explanation that came from the head teachers was, "It is a head teacher

who gave instructions to teachers” or that it was “Someone who led by instructions” while others went on to say “It is a head teacher who was a dictator”. Even those head teachers who claimed they were familiar with instructional leadership gave conflicting definitions.

The researcher explained the term instructional leadership to them as a head teacher who made teaching and learning a priority and went on to ask them whether they thought they were instructional leaders. Some of the head teachers generally said that they were instructional leaders only to an extent while the majority out rightly said they didn’t think they were. The head teachers overwhelmingly agreed that the items which were in the questionnaire; the PIMRS were very good and that if head teachers practiced them, then there would be big improvements in the teaching and learning processes in their schools.

This was revealed through responses such as;

.... The items in the questionnaire are quite good, especially if a head can genuinely get 5, 5, 5, and that is a shining school, the Ministry of Education has actually laid down nearly everything that is in the questionnaire but the problem is implementation; it seems some people have just let those things go under

If heads did carry out what is in the questionnaire, there would be improvement in the schools, people generally don’t like work, and they can come for work but might not work especially if they discover a weakness that you don’t monitor....

A head teacher who said he had never heard of the term instructional leadership added that

When we build schools and we bring pupils, the core responsibility is that schools should teach and pupils should learn, however, we usually lack the knowledge on what we have to do and what our goals are and we end up concentrating on other things...yet these things are clearly laid down in the policy document....

This head teacher further added that; “I promise that from this interview I will become a changed head teacher. This interview has been an eye opener”.

As head teachers we don't seem to be doing the right things, we are concentrating a lot on administrative duties at the expense of making sure that teaching and learning is done by our teachers; as a result performance of our pupils has not been very good and even as a province, Central Province is always lagging around average in terms of performance.

Teachers

The teachers too were asked the same question and they also said that they were not so familiar with the policy document and they acknowledged that they were coming across the term instructional leadership for the first time. The teachers too, just like their head teachers said that they had only used the policy document; Educating Our Future for writing assignments during their training.

When further asked whether they thought their head teachers were practicing instructional leadership, the majority of the teachers said that they were not and only a few teachers said that their head teachers were practicing instructional leadership only to a limited extent.

The teachers gave these responses in regard to the question whether their head teachers were instructional leaders;

The head is not an instructional leader especially when it comes to teaching and learning. He concentrates a lot on administrative issues. He is detached from academic issues.... Each teacher works in isolation and there is no team work.

I see the head teacher stand outside to monitor those who come late; but she has never been to my classroom to observe the teaching and has never discussed my teaching or the learning of pupils. The head only comes to my classroom when she wants to consult on administrative issues but usually she will call me to her office. The head teacher talks about teaching and learning but no action. Head teachers can also delegate administrative duties to senior teachers just like they delegate supervision of teaching and learning.

Each time you are called to the office by the head teacher, it would be about administrative issues not really about teaching and learning.

When asked whether they felt that teaching and learning would improve if head teachers were instructional leaders, all the teachers agreed that if head teachers were fully instructional leaders, there would be a lot of improvement in the schools. They all said provision of instructional leadership by the head teacher would be very beneficial.

It will have a great contribution and results will improve because teachers will look at the head teacher to be fully involved and they will be motivated to work harder unlike now where a head teacher is just seen at a distance.....

Maybe the head teachers don't understand their roles very well because they believe that supervising teaching and learning is not their main job but that of teachers; there is need for them to be sensitized or trained in some of these things.....

4.7.12 Performance of Pupils

This question was about factors that contributed to good or poor performance in the selected basic schools. Performance in this study was looked at; at the level of grade nine because the study concentrated on grades eight and nine, at grade seven, the pupils were allowed to proceed to grade eight regardless of the marks they obtained and this was referred to as the 100% progression rate which was introduced by the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education.

Head teachers

In regard to pupil performance, the head teachers who participated in this study overwhelmingly said that the performance of the pupils was not very good. The responses revealed that in most of the schools, the pass rate at grade nine examinations was generally average and in some cases below average. In one school the pass rate in 2012 was 28% whereas in the majority of the

schools, the pass rate was generally below average ranging around 40%. The head teacher supported this through the following response;

Performance at grade 9 is not very good, in 2012 it was at 28% and this could be attributed to lack of teaching and learning materials, also lack of seriousness from the teachers due to lack of supervision, the other contributing factors are lack of adequate infrastructure where you find that there is over enrolment in the school which leads to overcrowding in the classrooms.

Another head added that:

It's very difficult to supervise teaching and learning due to the overcrowded classrooms, teaching and learning is also disturbed due to shortage of classroom space and as a result we rent some houses and other structures like churches where learning takes place and these are not conducive to teaching and learning...

The head teacher in the school with a pass rate of 28% further added that;

You see the location of this school affects the performance of pupils, it is surrounded by a shanty compound and there are a lot of disturbances from the compound such as loud music and pupils also sometimes run away from school.

When asked further what factors contributed to the low and average performance in their schools, the head teachers outlined a number of factors such as shortage of teaching and learning materials due to inadequate funding from government, absenteeism of pupils especially in rural schools due to early marriages and preference for farming.

Here in the rural areas it's very difficult for performance to improve because most parents don't value school and they withdraw their children to go and herd cattle for boys and getting married for girls; as head there is very little one can do due to cultural and traditional implications.

Some head teachers also attributed the poor performance to inconsistencies in policies by the Ministry of Education, Science Vocational Training and Early Education. One head further stated that:

We have told them of the disturbances to the teaching and learning such as national holidays, the national examinations; like in 2013, children were supposed to be taught for three terms but examinations started as early as October and our pupils lost about two months of learning; and the local programmes such as the common mock examinations which usually last for one month, when pupils and teachers are in that examination fever, they will not teach and learn because they are disturbed.

The head teachers also agreed that most of the professional development programmes were usually introduced by the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education and not by the schools. They still cited the SMASTE professional development programme which was initially meant for Science and Mathematics teachers but ended up being rolled out to all the subjects.

One major factor that was revealed by both the head teachers and teachers that contributed to poor performance was lack or inadequate teaching and learning materials in the schools. The head teachers said that the government funding that was supposed to be used to purchase teaching and learning materials was very little and that sometimes it only came once in a year. The head teachers overwhelmingly agreed that the lack of teaching and learning materials was one of the major contributing factors to the drop in performance. They revealed that in some cases, departments only had one text book and usually that was the teachers' copy.

One head teacher added, "The teaching and learning materials are in adequate, we just try to improvise- we do photocopy so that maybe even the teacher can have a copy".

Another head teacher added on to say, "Due to lack of funding from government; we squeeze a bit of money from the parents and teachers' association to buy books".

Books are not enough; we have just developed a culture of purchasing at least ten textbooks per subject per term from the little collection of

fees we get from the pupils. The funding is very little compared to the needs of the school and may come only once in a year.

Resources are not there, teaching and learning materials are not there. It's like a farmer, if you don't have tools, how do you weed? Do you start using your hands to uproot weeds? That's why standards in these schools are poor. Otherwise this country will have substandard students in Universities and Colleges. Resources have been very minimal; there is no money to buy text books. Government funding only comes once a year and when it comes it is only K2, 000 which cannot meet the demands of the school. As a result performance has not been very good.

Teachers

The teachers interviewed also echoed the sentiments of the head teachers regarding the lack or in adequate teaching and learning materials in the schools. They lamented that they really faced challenges in having to teach with inadequate text books. One teacher stated that:

A subject like English Language, how can one teach only using one text book; because if you are teaching comprehension for example, each child is supposed to have their own text book and then you are expected to read the passage to the whole class which is usually over crowded?

However, some teachers revealed that some teaching and learning materials could still be bought if their head teachers channelled funds towards buying teaching and learning materials.

One teacher added

There are too many workshops for head teachers which don't benefit the teachers and pupils; I would want the head teacher to cut off certain expenses from workshops and channel the money towards buying teaching and learning materials and the problem with these workshops is that the head teachers do not share the knowledge they acquired when they come back.

Another one further stated:

In some cases, the head teachers would attend workshops and seminars that are supposed to be attended by teachers who are the

subject specialists but because there are allowances to be paid, the head teacher would attend at the expense of the teacher.

4.7.13 Training Preparation for the Role of Head teacher

The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education policy of 1996 emphasizes the importance of relevant training for those leading educational institutions if the quality of education has to improve. The policy notes that the state of affairs where the majority of those occupying supervisory and management positions have not received the relevant training for their positions has led to inefficiencies and poor performance in the management and supervision of the education system.

From the responses obtained through the head teachers and teachers, it was established that the majority of the head teachers who participated in this study did not receive any further training prior to or after their appointment as head teacher which prepared them for the role of a head teacher.

Out of the 32 head teachers only 5 head teachers had attended the Education leadership and Management Course that is offered at the National in Service Teachers College (NISTCOL). The responses further revealed that the head teachers only did some components in education management in their pre- service courses. The head teachers who had attended the training at NISTCOL said that they did things differently and added that they were at least familiar with aspects of leadership and how to manage a school.

Head teachers

The responses of head teachers revealed and confirmed what the policy of the Ministry of Education; Educating Our Future states that head teachers in Zambia, are appointed based on

their seniority in the ministry and do not receive relevant training and as a result they lead and manage their schools based on trial and error. It was also revealed that most of the head teachers depended on the experience they gain from working under what they called “experienced head teachers”.

One head teacher responded by saying that “..... our Ministry structures do not offer specific training for head teachers; we basically learn from our previous supervisors”.

Another head teacher had this to say “..... the problem we have now is that we learn from other head teachers and you may be learning from a head that is not very good”.

One of the head teachers also added on to say,

unfortunately our system here in Zambia does not have that provision of training, people will just look at how you were practicing in your previous position and if they are satisfied that you have what it takes, that’s what they consider.

Another head teacher who admitted that he did not receive any training because the openings to do the Education Management Course at NISTCOL had been very limited had this to say;

I have not done any training because at that time there were limited openings at the National In-service College (NISTCOL) to do the Educational Management Course (EMT), but it is very important to train because what we are doing now is job on training, trial and error and sometimes you make a lot of mistakes, you need guiding rules to help you move forward, because sometimes even a teacher you are managing can have more knowledge than you and can control you and then you have conflicts.

The head teachers agreed that training in educational leadership and management was very important in the role of a head teacher. They said that that there should be a course or training specifically tailored to prepare teachers for the leadership role in schools and that the appointments of head teachers should be based on relevant training.

This was echoed by a head teacher who responded

... initial training as a teacher is not enough to prepare teachers for the role of head teachers and the challenges that go with it because it only scratches on the basics and never goes into detail thus the need for further training.

Another head said

.. The Ministry of Education, does not offer further training to teachers when they appoint them as senior teaches or head teachers, there is no course which they undergo; there are only orientation workshops which are not enough. Of course during the practice, you are using your brain and own research, but when one is subjected to a training curriculum, I want to believe that, that very curriculum is tailored in such a way that those gaps are reduced so training still remains a very important component.

The head teachers who had the opportunity to attend training after being appointed head teachers supported the idea of training saying that it gave them an idea of where to start from as a head and enabled them to do their work without too many difficulties. This was revealed through various statements that were made by these head teachers such as, “.....Some heads who are not trained find it very difficult to run schools and some fail lamentably”.

One head teacher who had attended the Education Leadership and Management Course acknowledged the relevance of the training she received;

Just after being appointed head teacher, I was offered an opportunity to attend the Education leadership and Management Course that is being offered by the National in Service Teachers College; the course was very helpful, without the course you can do things haphazardly. The course is all about managing the school; what you learn there is what you do in the school.

The head teacher further added that as a result of the training, she does a lot of things differently. She said that in her training she learnt about “monitoring and evaluation, tracking and analysing pupils’ results in each grade, learned about delegation and school-community partnerships” She

further added that even the performance of her pupils had improved because the teachers were focused more on teaching.

Another added

I was nominated to go and do the Education Management and leadership course and we learnt a lot of things such as managing resources especially finances, record keeping, budgeting and managing people and we also learned about instructional leadership though not in much detail as the questionnaire showed, and the duration too for the course was not much but am happy I did the course”.

Teachers

The teachers equally indicated the importance of training and said that the opportunities for training teachers for leadership positions should be expanded so that all teachers are trained. They added that this will avail the ministry a wider pool of trained teachers from where they could appoint head teachers and other educational leaders. All the teachers interviewed supported the idea of teachers receiving adequate training prior or after being appointed as head teachers. They reiterated what the head teachers stated about the pre-service training they received in such responses;

You know the pre-service training we receive as teachers does not offer much in leadership training, some courses we did especially at diploma level did not offer enough content in management training, there is need to have more institutions that will be training teachers in management courses.

4.8 Data obtained from School Document Analysis

The researcher analysed some documents in some of the schools sampled such as mission statements, vision statements, in some cases minutes of staff meetings and

analysis of grade nine results. The schools had statements on their mottos, vision and mission posted on the notice boards in the staffrooms and head teachers offices. Some of the mottos were such as: “Education for a better future”, “Learn to succeed” among others. The head teachers revealed that they found most of the mission statements and mottos already written and posted on the school walls or notice boards. They further revealed that the statements were hardly ever reviewed let alone discussed with the teachers. They stated that they were just there as routine or to fulfil the requirement of having a mission statement.

Most of the minutes of staff meetings analysed showed that the deliberations in the meetings were mainly to do with administrative issues as compared to academic issues and that usually the meetings were a platform for the head teacher to make announcements to the teachers and not to discuss academic issues. The analysed results showed average or below average performance in the schools, only in four schools was the performance above average while in two schools performance was good ranging between 60% and 70%.

4.9 Data obtained From Observations

As stated earlier in the methodology section, the researcher also used a check list of indicators of instructional leadership to observe the activities in the sampled schools. According to the observations, the majority of the head teachers were not visible; they were often absent or locked up in meetings in their offices. There was little evidence in most of the schools that there was a focus on teaching and learning. There was in most of the schools a high number of pupils roaming about or doing some general cleaning while classes were going on.

The researcher learned that the pupils who would be roaming about would actually be waiting for their turn to get into class due to shortage of classroom space, the pupils learned in sessions. It was revealed too that these sessions had actually led to a cut in the teaching and learning time. It was clear too that in most cases, the school's instructional tasks did not seem to take precedence over all other activities because activities like sports would lead to cancellation of teaching and learning and pupils would spend days without learning.

The observations further revealed that the head teachers did not supervise the teachers or the learners and that this job appeared to have been completely delegated to the senior teachers. In the majority of the schools, the environments did not appear very conducive to teaching and learning, infrastructure was dilapidated especially in the rural schools while in urban areas the location of the schools left a lot to be desired as they were located close to compounds, central business centres and churches and there were lot of disturbances coming from these places such as business activities and playing of loud music.

The head teachers generally did not seem to be in control of what was going on in the schools because from the observations there seemed to have been very little or no collaboration between the head teachers and the teachers. The head teachers appeared not to be accessible to teachers because the teachers were dealing more with the senior teachers and in some rare cases the deputy head teachers.

The researcher also observed that there was a critical shortage of classroom space in most of the schools which led to schools outsourcing classroom space by renting structures such as houses and community buildings for use as classrooms. These structures would be located right in the compounds or business centres and there would be a lot of disturbances and interruptions to the

teaching and learning. The classrooms were generally over crowded leading to teachers handling classes of over 70 pupils.

However, in two schools, the head teachers were available and seemed to be on the ground and familiar with what was going on in their schools. In these schools, even the school premises were quiet and orderly and appeared conducive to teaching and learning. Furthermore, in two schools, the researcher found the head teachers teaching.

Almost all the sampled schools, had big writings on the perimeter walls or in the staff rooms depicting their mottos, mission statements and visions, though when talked to the head teachers indicated that in most cases they had found those things written already and that they hardly found time to review them in order for them to reflect the current trends in education.

4.10 Summary of Findings from the data obtained qualitatively

The responses to the research questions in this study led to several findings that are summarised below:

- The instructional leadership functions of framing school goals, Communicating School Goals and Coordinating the curriculum despite having been rated highly by both the head teachers and teachers on the PIMRS, did not receive much responses from both the head teachers and teachers because they found them to be quite alien and that they were usually dealt with at the national level. An example was given that in Zambian schools, a national curriculum was used and that head teachers were usually not involved its formulation but they were simply required to implement it.
- That despite the instructional leadership function of Supervising and Evaluating Instruction having been rated highly by the head teachers and teachers, the majority of the head teachers did not supervise and evaluate the teaching and learning process in their schools or neither did they monitor their pupils' progress regularly because

they were too busy with administrative work and that academic functions were mostly delegated to the senior teachers or heads of department.

- The head teachers said that they were also rarely available and accessible in the schools due to their busy schedules with office work and other administrative duties such as attending meetings and workshops which they said made it very difficult to be conversant with what was going on in the classrooms. The head teachers said that they did not really protect teaching and learning time because some of the factors that disturbed instructional time were mostly beyond their control as they bordered on instructions and directives from their superiors.
- The head teachers did not teach and that their teachers felt that it would be very motivating to both students and pupils if head teachers taught and this would have a positive effect on the teaching and learning process in the schools.
- The provision of incentives to both teachers and learners was very minimal and that it was usually done in form of awards on teachers' day and Labour Day. Teacher reinforcement for superior performance in form of individual praise, commendation letters and considerations for promotions were not there and that most of the teachers were demotivated which had a negative impact on teacher performance and consequently pupil performance.
- There was Continuous Professional Development in the schools that were sampled in this study and that the most common type of the CPD was the lesson study which originated from the SMASTE programme. Further that this CPD was not an initiative of the head teachers but a policy directive from the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education. It was revealed that the CPD programme impacted negatively on the teaching and learning process because it took away a lot of time. The schools did not seem to have many locally initiated CPD programmes.
- The majority of the head teachers who participated in this study did not receive any training prior or after their appointment as head teachers which prepared them for the role of head teacher and also that there was only one institution (NISTCOL) in the whole country that offered training in Education Management and Leadership

through in-service. Pre-service teacher training programmes on the other hand had very little content on Education Management and school leadership.

- The head teachers were not familiar with the term instructional leadership and that most of them were coming across it for the first time. The head teachers also acknowledged that they were not very conversant with the national policy document on education. The head teachers attributed the lack of knowledge on instructional leadership to lack of sensitization and training. They stated that after going through the PIMRS and the interview questions, they saw that instructional leadership was very good and it would affect the teaching and learning in schools positively.
- The teachers stated that their head teachers were not practicing much instructional leadership because they focused more on administrative issues. They further said that from what they had learned and came to understand about instructional leadership through the PIMRS and the interviews; instructional leadership would definitely have a positive impact on the teaching and learning process and consequently contribute to improvement in pupil performance.
- The performance of the pupils especially at grade nine was not very good and that in most schools it was barely average or below average. Factors that contributed to this low performance were outlined as lack of supervision and focus on the teaching and learning, inadequate teaching and learning materials, absenteeism of both teachers and pupils especially in rural schools and inconsistencies in policies by the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education which interrupt the teaching and learning.
- There was a shortage of infrastructure and this led to overcrowding in classrooms and that the basic schools were not adequate and hence there was usually over enrolment in most schools. The overcrowding in the classrooms made it very difficult for teachers to teach very well and to monitor pupil progress.

In this chapter, the findings of this study have been presented. The next chapter discusses the findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.0 Overview

The previous chapter presented the findings of this study. This chapter discusses these findings.

The purpose of this study was to establish whether head teachers in selected basic schools in the Central Province of Zambia were instructional leaders as stated in the National Policy on Education (1996); Educating Our Future and to also establish the extent to which these head teachers practiced instructional leadership. In addition, the study sought to assess the effect of instructional leadership practices by head teachers on the teaching and learning process and further to establish whether these head teachers received any training that prepared them for their role either at pre service or in service levels.

As stated earlier, the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) was used in the collection of quantitative data. The researcher used both the principal-self-evaluation and teacher- observer form. The study was guided by Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) conceptual framework and focused on the ten instructional leadership functions that are assessed by the PIMRS. The instrument provided principal performance levels on the job functions associated with principal leadership. Face to face interviews, focus group discussions, observations and document analysis were also used to collect qualitative data from the participants in this study.

The discussion of the findings is guided by the following research objectives:

1. To assess the perceptions of head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the instructional leadership role of the head teacher.
2. To establish the extent to which instructional leadership was being practiced by head teachers in the basic schools.
3. To assess the perceptions of the head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the effect of instructional leadership on the teaching- learning process.
4. To establish whether head teachers in the basic schools received any training that prepared them for this role either at pre service or in service.

5.1 Research Objective 1

- **To assess the perceptions of head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the instructional leadership role of the head teacher.**

In regard to the research objective of assessing the perceptions of head teachers and teachers about the instructional leadership role of head teachers, the data that was obtained through the PIMRS revealed that the head teachers perceived themselves to be instructional leaders more than their teachers did. This is because the head teachers rated themselves much higher in their self-assessments than their teachers did.

The lower ratings by the teachers of the head teachers were further supported by the data that was obtained qualitatively which overwhelmingly indicated that the head teachers were not practising much instructional leadership.

The data obtained through the PIMRS further revealed that the teachers rated their head teachers highest in the job function of Promoting Professional Development (20.45) and rated them lowest in the function of Maintaining High Visibility (16.47) as shown in tables 4.3.1 and 4.3.2

respectively. The data further revealed that overall; the teachers rated their head teachers higher in the job functions of Framing School Goals (19.74), Communicating School Goals (19.36) and Coordinating the Curriculum (19.29).

The data obtained through the PIMRS revealed too that the functions which the teachers scored lowest were Monitoring Student Progress (18.36), Protecting Instructional Time (18.62), Providing Incentives for learning (17.64), and Providing Incentives for Teachers (16.83) and Maintaining High Visibility (16.47) as shown in table 4.3.1. It is important to note that the lowest rating of head teachers by teachers in the function of Maintaining High Visibility seems to suggest that head teachers were not available most of the times in the school. This lower rating on the function of Maintaining High Visibility is also consistent across the three categories of teachers, combined sample and head teachers.

Maintaining High Visibility

The lowest rating of the job function of Maintaining High Visibility is further supported by Independent sample *t* tests which were also run to compare the mean differences in the 10 Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale subscales, or job functions, between the perceptions of teachers and how the head teachers rated themselves, teachers versus head teachers. The statistics were significant in only one situation, Maintaining High Visibility ($t=2.246$; $DF=56.375$; $p=0.029$) at $\alpha=0.05$. For this subscale, head teachers rated themselves more highly ($M = 18.06$, $SD = 3.435$) than they were rated by their teachers ($M = 16.47$, $SD = 4.592$).

This finding suggests that teachers did not feel that their head teachers maintained high levels of visibility in the running of the schools. This subscale asks teachers whether their head teachers Maintained High Visibility by taking time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks, visiting classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students, attending/participating in extra- and co-curricular activities, covering classes for teachers who were late until a substitute teacher arrives, and tutoring students or providing direct instruction to classes.

From the data that was obtained through interviews, it was also evident that the head teachers were not highly visible in their schools. The responses indicated that the head teachers rarely found time to visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and pupils because they were usually busy with office work and attending meetings and workshops. Yet empirical research asserts that principal visibility plays a very important role in instructional leadership as it sets the tone for a conducive environment for teaching and learning. According to Hall (2006) a principals visibility assures students and staff that there is someone in charge, someone they can go to if they are experiencing difficulties, someone they can trust. He goes on to state that being less visible erodes a school's climate.

The head teachers rated themselves higher too on the job function of Supervising and Evaluating Instruction whereas their teachers rated them much lower. This high rating by head teachers presents a contradiction to the data obtained through interviews where both head teachers and teachers revealed that head teachers rarely supervised the teaching and learning due to their busy schedules with office work. The data obtained through observations also showed that the head teachers were hardly available or visible in their schools.

This contradiction is further supported by the low ratings on the function of Maintaining High Visibility where the head teachers rated themselves second lowest and the teachers rated them lowest on the PIMRS (See tables 4.3.1 and 4.3.2).

Pearson correlation tests results showed that all the subscales or instructional leadership job functions were significantly related and that some of them were strongly correlated. This means that a head teacher who is not readily available will not be there to carry out observations in the classrooms and provide feedback to the teachers and the learners. The correlations tests for example showed that Maintaining High Visibility is strongly related to Supervising and Evaluating Instruction as well as Providing Incentives for Teachers and Learners. This implies that the head teachers were not providing incentives for teachers and learners neither were they available to protect instructional time.

Documented literature states that the importance of principal presence and visibility throughout the school has been well established as being a key to successful schools (Black, 1997; Cotton, 2003; Whitaker, 2003). In fact, according to Gentilucci and Muto (2007) students have reported that principals who were highly visible and approachable positively influenced their academic performance.

This is further supported by Cotton and Blum (1985) as cited in Zulu (2004) when they state that principals in high achieving schools create safe and orderly environments where students feel a sense of responsibility for their learning, that the principals are highly visible, visiting classrooms frequently so that they know what is going on and that such principals of effective schools model an academic emphasis by visiting classrooms, talking with teachers about their teaching.

Available literature further supports the positive impact of the head teachers' presence on the teaching and learning process by stating that although a significant portion of the principals' time may be out of their control, they can set priorities on how to spend their time. Brook over et al (1982) asserts that visibility in the school and in classrooms increases the interaction between the principal and students as well as with teachers, and that this can have positive effects on student behaviour and classroom interaction.

It is worth noting that the evidence from the data obtained through the PIMRS showed that the four job functions of Monitoring Student Progress, Providing Incentives for Learning, Providing Incentives for Teachers and Maintaining High Visibility which were rated much lower form the basis of the third dimension, *Promoting School Learning Climate*, of Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) conceptual framework that has guided this study. In view of these low rankings on these job functions, we can say that these functions actually received less attention from the head teachers yet these are functions that are cardinal to the provision of instructional leadership by the head teacher.

Further according to Hallinger (2003) and Leithwood et al (2006) this is the dimension that is broader in scope and intent than the second dimension and overlaps with the dimension incorporated into transformational leadership framework. This dimension conforms to the notion that successful schools create an "academic press" through the development of high standards and expectations, and a culture that fosters and rewards continuous learning and improvement (Bossert et al., 1982, Hallinger and Murphy, 1985; Purkey and Smith, 1983).

It is also important to note that this low rating of the head teachers in this dimension implies that the head teachers are not transformational leaders, yet we have seen through the review of

leadership theories that instructional leadership encompasses transformational leadership and that a head teacher who is an instructional leader increases follower motivation and performance.

Promoting Professional Development

The head teachers, just like their teachers rated themselves highest in the function of Promoting Professional Development (21.03) according to table 4.3.2. This is the function that was rated the highest from all the three categories namely head teachers, teachers and combined. This function involves the head teacher ensuring that in service activities attended by the staff are consistent with the school goals.

The responses from both the head teachers and teachers obtained through interviews revealed that there was Continuous Professional Development (CPDs) in the schools. However, it was evident from the data obtained through interviews that there was only one major form of professional development which was referred to as lesson study. The data obtained further revealed that this professional development programme was actually not initiated by the head teachers but it was a policy from the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education.

Lesson study is a problem solving process of professional development for teachers which was adopted by the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education and was modified in order to contextualize it to suit the Zambian school context and introduced in the Zambian schools.

This type of professional development has been supported by Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) through strengthening Mathematics, Science & Technology Education

(SMASTE) project and strengthening Teachers' Performance and Skills (STEPS) especially for the teachers of Mathematics and Science.

However, in Zambia, the lesson study has been adopted as a major form of professional development and has been introduced to all provinces in the country and it cuts across all the subjects in order to provide the teachers with an opportunity to continuously improve their knowledge and skills in teaching. It was expected that this approach would directly improve the teaching and learning of pupils in schools.

The data obtained through the interviews also indicated that there were very little initiatives on continuous professional development from the schools. This is not in agreement with Sheppard (1996) who laid much emphasis on the promotion of teachers' professional development, which he saw as "the most influential instructional leadership behaviour".

The head teachers' responses revealed major setbacks in this form of professional development' the major one being that of taking away teaching and learning time. The findings obtained through the data from the interviews indicated that this form of professional development impacted negatively on the teaching and learning as teachers spent more time on it leaving the pupils unattended to. These sentiments were also echoed by the teachers. The responses further indicated that the participants found this type of CPD to be quite alien and therefore not beneficial to their teaching.

Despite both the teachers and head teachers rating this function highest, there was also evidence obtained from the interview responses that in most cases teachers attended the lesson study as a formality, and that these lesson study cycles were usually not monitored by the head teachers.

There was also evidence that the lesson study was not well adapted to the Zambian school context due to the high pupil-teacher ratios and that it was more suitable to Mathematics and Science subjects.

This superficially type of professional development is also not supported by available literature. Fullan (2008) noted that professional learning communities were being implemented superficially giving educators involved a false sense of progress, while the deeper cultural changes required for school improvement were not being tackled.

He further states that, learning is also not school improvement plans or individual leadership development but rather a maxim precisely about addressing the day-to-day cultural changes. This means that money spent on sending teachers for further training and courses would be wasted if the school environment does not support and strengthen the learning obtained. Fullan (2008) further states that it is largely through sharing activities that knowledge and skills gained by teachers in courses and workshops can be disseminated to benefit other teachers and schools.

Furthermore, the lack of initiative and supervision in providing professional development by head teachers who participated in this study is not in line with documented literature which includes (Brookover et al., 1982) that state that the principal has several ways of supporting teachers in the effort to improve instruction. He/she can arrange for, provide, or inform teachers of relevant opportunities for staff development. The principal can also encourage certain types of staff development which are closely linked to the school's goals.

This is in line with the findings of Alig-Mielcarek (2003) who stated that principals who promote professional development impact the academic press of the school and have a positive effect on

student achievement. Additionally, Sheppard (1996) and Chrispeels (1992) found that leaders who promote professional development build a culture of collaboration and learning that also fosters innovative instructional strategies through increased use of new resources.

Providing Incentives for Teachers

The data obtained through the PIMRS revealed that the head teachers rated themselves lowest in the job function of Providing Incentives for Teachers (18.03) and the teachers rated them second lowest (16.83), yet providing incentives is very cardinal to the motivation of teachers. It involves reinforcing superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters and complementing superior performance of teachers by writing memos for their personal files. It is evident from literature that head teachers' instructional leadership impacts pupil performance by influencing teacher performance.

This function is also about the head teacher rewarding special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition and also complimenting teachers privately for their efforts. According to Kirby and Blasé (1992) praise is one of the important strategies that can influence teachers' work. They further point out that positive reinforcement is universally accepted as a correlate of effective teaching and that in school where principals use praise as a strategy to motivate teachers, there is a healthy atmosphere conducive to effective teaching and learning.

Supervising and Evaluating Instruction

This is one of the instructional leadership functions where the head teachers rated themselves second highest on the PIMRS, third from the combined ratings with the teachers rating their head

teachers as average. However, from the data obtained through interviews and observations, there was overwhelming evidence that the head teachers did not Supervise and Evaluate Instruction frequently contrary to the high score they gave themselves on this function, because they were usually busy with administrative work. Parkay et al. (2010) posit that the principal is the best individual best positioned within the school to evaluate the curriculum. He further states that school leadership should change from being too focused on managerial duties to curriculum and instruction.

Hallinger (2005) argues that the emphasis on the technical aspect should be in balance with the instructional aspect and strictly requiring principals to be deeply engaged in the school instructional programmes to ensure that teachers implement effective teaching and learning.

Jenkins (2009) warns that if principals are to take their role as instructional leaders seriously, they must free themselves from bureaucratic administrative tasks and direct their efforts more at improving teaching and learning through proactive instructional supervision.

Enueme and Egwunyenga (2008) state that the ultimate goal of schooling is learning on the part of pupils and that what they learn, however, depends on the teachers' performance, which is a product of many factors, such as their commitment, professional growth, school environment, prevailing culture. They further state that all these factors have connections directly or indirectly with the head teachers' actions or inactions.

Supervising and Evaluating Instruction is the function that Hallinger (1982) ties most directly to the classroom level of teaching and learning. It involves providing instructional support to teachers and monitoring classroom instruction through numerous informal visits. It is therefore

imperative that the head teacher can only Supervise and Evaluate Instruction by being highly visible and accessible in order to carry out the numerous class visits and provide the necessary support to the teachers and pupils.

This is supported by the available literature which states that creating a visible presence in the school, implies that the school principal must model behaviour to educators, parents and other staff members and to do this the principal must become an integral part of the daily operations of the school. In improving instruction through supervision, the supervisor and the teacher should develop a shared reality that can become the basis of professional dialogue. (Whitaker, 2003; Bondi & Wiles, 1986)

It is obvious from the ratings obtained through the PIMRS that the head teachers rated themselves higher than their teachers rated them. This is confirmed by the mean scores for both groups, with that of head teachers ranging from 18.03 to 21.03 and that for teachers ranging from 16.47 to 20.45.

The ratings may imply that the head teachers could have overrated themselves and this is supported by Hallinger (1982), when he states that, the principal self-assessment using the PIMRS provides useful comparative results, but when taken alone, may not provide a valid picture of principal instructional leadership because some principals tend to overestimate their role behaviour.

He goes on to say that when used as part of a principal evaluation system, it is essential that the PIMRS be administered to the teaching staff of the principal's school. According to Isik (2000) as cited in Maliwatu (2011) assessments of teachers tended to be more objective. Hallinger et al

(1994) states that current and past studies suggest that greater credence be given to teacher assessments.

The high ratings by the head teachers could have also been due to what is stated earlier in the methodology that they thought that the responses to the questionnaire may in one way or another have influence on their performance if they would be availed to their supervisors. Some teachers on the other hand felt that rating their head teachers lower would have a negative impact on their careers.

The Concept of Instructional Leadership

The responses of the head teachers revealed that almost all the head teachers who participated in this study were not very familiar with the term instructional leadership and neither were they aware that there was a policy statement in the National Education Policy “Educating our Future” that stated that head teachers needed to be instructional leaders if the quality of teaching and learning in the schools had to improve.

The lack of understanding of the concept of instructional leadership was evidenced in the way the head teachers attempted to define the term instructional leadership as stated earlier in the findings of this study.

Generally, the data obtained through the interviews revealed a contradiction between the responses of the head teachers and teachers to their ratings on the PIMRS in almost all the ten job functions of instructional leadership. It was evident from the responses from the interviews that head teachers were not fully instructional leaders. Despite the high ratings on the perceptions

of the head teachers and teachers on the PIMRS on the instructional leadership role of the head teacher, the qualitative data revealed contrary perceptions.

It is important to note that according to the reliability analysis table 4.2.1, the ratings of the teachers on the PIMRS were more reliable and consistent than that of head teachers. The head teachers' ratings exhibited very poor internal consistency by scoring very highly on some subscales and very low on others. This could be due to the fact that the head teachers could have been too subjective in the self- assessments by overrating themselves on some subscales and also underrating themselves on some subscales. This could further be due to the fact that the participants were not very familiar with the leadership style due to lack of training. The validity and reliability of the findings in this study was enhanced by triangulation through using various approaches such as interviews, observations and document analysis.

5.2 Research Objective 2

- **To establish the extent to which instructional leadership was being practiced by the head teachers in the basic schools.**

In regard to this objective, it is important to note that the findings of this study obtained through the PIMRS and also the interview questions suggest that the head teachers in this study were more of administrators and school managers than instructional leaders. The findings also suggested that the head teachers did not practice much instructional leadership and that whatever little they were doing about instructional leadership; they could be doing it unknowingly or using trial and error.

Although, on almost every subscale, the head teachers perceived themselves as practicing more instructional leadership than was perceived by their teachers, their teachers rated them lower

almost on every job function except on the job function of communicating school goals (18.87) where the head teachers rated themselves lower than their teachers (19.36) as shown in table 4.3.2.

The high ratings by the head teachers are consistent with prior research by Hallinger (1994); which concluded that teacher perceptions are more accurate when compared with alternative sources of perceptions on principal instructional leadership such as self-perceptions or supervisor ratings. This supports prior recommendations to utilize the teacher form of the instrument when seeking high levels of reliability and validity. In this study too the teacher ratings have proved to be more reliable and consistent than the head teacher ratings.

It is also very cardinal to note that according to the findings obtained through the responses to the interview questions, there is evidence that the head teachers accepted that they do not practice much instructional leadership because they were overwhelmed with managerial duties and that they were also not aware of what should be done in terms of instructional leadership.

The teachers who participated in this study equally confirmed that their head teachers did not practice much instructional leadership because they prioritised administrative work over instructional matters. Some of the teachers also said that maybe the head teachers did not know what their priorities should be. This is supported by Berlin, Kavanagh, and Jensen (1988) when they assert that, if schools have to progress; principals cannot allow daily duties to interfere with their leadership role in the curriculum.

It is important to note that the highly rated functions on the PIMRS in this study, such as Providing Professional Development, Framing School Goals, Communicating School Goals and

Coordinating the Curriculum do represent areas of relative strength in relation to head teachers instructional leadership functions and these are functions that both the head teachers and teachers acknowledged were mainly based on the national curriculum.

However, as stated earlier, it is interesting to note from the data obtained through responses to the interview questions show that the type of continuous development provided in the schools is not an initiative of the school, let alone the head teacher but it is a policy direction by the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early education. This finding indicates that there were little initiatives from the head teachers on the provision of continuous professional development.

The Zambian Education System just like in many other developing countries follows a top-bottom hierarchical structure where such functions were usually done at the national level and expected to trickle down to the schools through directives. This is supported by available literature by Hallinger et al (1994) where he states that in countries where layers of government administrative bureaucracy overlap and extend all the way down to the local levels often have impractical and inflexible administrative situations. These structural characteristics tend to create decision paralysis in which administrators are fearful of taking the initiative without explicit orders from above.

This finding seems to suggest why this job function could have been rated the highest, because since it is a policy directive to head teachers, then it was a must that it had to be done the way it was being done whether it was beneficial to the teachers and pupils or not.

This does not seem to be in line with documented literature which suggests that the head teacher as an instructional leader is supposed to find several ways of supporting teachers in the effort to improve instruction. The principal can arrange for, provide, or inform teachers of relevant opportunities for staff development and can also encourage certain type of staff development which are closely linked to the school's goals (Brookover et al., 1982; Clark, 1980; Little, 1982) as cited in Hallinger (2005).

According to data obtained through the responses to the interview questions, the other functions that were rated highly such as framing school goals, communicating school goals and coordinating the curriculum were not really in the domain of head teachers in Zambia as these are usually done at the national level whereas the functions that were rated very low are very cardinal aspects of instructional leadership because they provide the context in which the head teacher would be seen to provide an indicator to teachers and students about his or her priorities.

It is important once again, to note that while the head teachers rated themselves highly on supervising and evaluating instruction, they rated themselves second lowest on the function of maintaining high visibility (18.06) which seems to suggest that the head teachers are weak on this function and this is supported by the results of the t-tests which revealed a significant result on this function.

When further analysed in terms of the three dimensions of instructional leadership, the head teachers seemed to have scored highest on the dimension of *Defining the School Mission* and lowest on the dimension of promoting a *Positive School Learning Climate*.

Drawing on the teachers' ratings, the researcher came up with a threshold mean which was calculated at 18.59. The means of the functions in the dimension of promoting a Positive School Climate other than that of Promoting Professional Development range between 16.47 and 18.62 and this is below the threshold mean.

The functions of Supervising and Evaluating Instruction and Protecting Instructional Time fell at average and slightly above average. This implied that head teachers who participated in this study did not promote a positive learning climate which means most of the instructional aspects that were enhanced by a positive learning climate were limited or non-existent. Yet aspects of a positive school climate were very cardinal to the teaching and learning process. This is in line with Sachs (1995) cited in Enueme and Egwunyenga (2008) who listed a conducive environment as a *sine qua non* for enhancing teachers' performance.

Documented literature further supports the idea of a strong head teacher in the dimension of promoting a Positive School Learning Climate under which this job function falls, because it is the one which enables the principal to create positive learning environments for students (Hallinger and Heck, 1998, 2010; Leithwood et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2008; Witziers et al., 2003) as cited in Hallinger (2012).

As stated earlier in response to research question 1, the data obtained through the responses from the interview questions revealed that head teachers rarely supervised the teaching and learning and as a result teachers hardly got any feedback on their teaching from their supervisors. Available literature indicates that supervision is the key to the principal's role in effective classroom instruction and that this instructional supervision interacts directly with the teaching

behaviour to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of teaching. (Lovell and Willes (1983) as cited in Zulu, 2004)

Generally, the lower and almost average scores on the dimension of promoting a Positive School Climate and Managing the Instructional Program reflect and seem to validate the data that was obtained through the responses from the interview questions and the observations by the researcher that head teachers who participated in this study regarded themselves first and foremost as administrators, rather than instructional leaders. It was evident from the responses that head teachers in the study gave more prominence to administrative work as opposed to teaching and learning.

Many researchers such as (Brookover and Lezotte, 1982; Duke, 1983 [cited in Flath, 1989]; Edmonds, 1979 and Kroeze, 1984, [cited in Flath, 1989] stress the importance of instructional leadership of the principal. However, the consensus in the literature regarding this is that it is seldom practiced. Stronge (1988) further states that 62.2% of the elementary principal's time is focused on school management issues, whereas only 6.2% of their time is focused on academic program issues. He adds that, a typical principal performs an enormous number of tasks each day-but only 11% relate to instructional leadership.

Ubben and Hughes (cited in Findley & Findley, 1992) also state that although the principal must address certain managerial tasks to ensure an efficient school, the task of the principal must be to keep focused on activities which pave way for high student achievement. The findings in this study suggest that the head teachers that participated in this study were not actively practicing the type of instructional leadership assessed by the PIMRS and that the data obtained through the

interview questions clearly stated that the head teachers did not practice much instructional leadership.

This is supported by the evidence from the responses from the interview questions which revealed that the head teachers did not even seem to understand the meaning of instructional leadership and that many of them said that were coming across the term for the first time. The evidence further stated that the head teachers did not even have the policy document implying that they were hardly aware of what the policy statement stated on their role as instructional leaders.

They further acknowledged that the items in the PIMRS were very good and that a head teacher who would implement these items would have an effective school. In a nut shell, the head teachers who participated in this study were not fully instructional leaders and that was because the extent to which they practised instructional leadership was low.

5.3 Research Objective 3

- **To assess the perceptions of the head teachers and teachers in the basic schools about the effect of instructional leadership on the teaching- learning process**

In regard to this objective, the data obtained from the interviews revealed that both head teachers and teachers overwhelmingly agreed that instructional leadership practices by head teachers would have a positive effect on the teaching and learning process. However, there was evidence from the responses to the interview questions that the head teachers who participated in this study did not practice most of the instructional leadership functions as indicated on the PIMRS questionnaire.

The functions of Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers and Learners and Monitoring Student Progresses which are cardinal to both teacher and pupil motivation in teaching and learning were rated much lower in all the three categories of the ratings. This implied that head teachers did not pay much attention to these functions.

This revelation was supported by the responses to the interview questions regarding instructional leadership functions such as Supervising and Evaluating Instruction, Monitoring Student Progress, Protecting Instructional Time, Maintaining High Visibility, Providing Incentives for Teachers, Providing Professional Development and Providing Incentives for Learning.

Supervising and Evaluating Teaching and Learning

Furthermore, from the data that was obtained through interviews, it was evident that the head teachers rarely supervised and evaluated the teaching and learning in their schools. It was evident that the head teachers who participated in this study were mostly busy with office work and that this function was almost wholly delegated to the deputy head and senior teachers.

The finding provides evidence that the head teachers were detached from this function, yet this is the function that Hallinger (1982) ties most directly into the classroom level of teaching and learning.

This is also supported by the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education EQUIP 2 research report (2012) on Factors Affecting Opportunities to Learn and Pupil Achievement that head teachers who regularly monitored teachers presence in the school through maintenance of a log book and who carefully monitor pupils' attendance may be more likely to promote improvements in these aspects. Furthermore the report indicates that head

teachers who monitor their teachers in lesson delivery and hold interactive discussions as a follow up to those observations have promoted effective teaching among their staff and this has impacted positively on pupil performance.

This is also supported by Enueme and Egwunyenga (2008) study which found that there is a significant relationship between the head teachers' instructional leadership and the teachers' job performance. This is also in line with other studies such as Sergiovanni (1996), Leithwood (1994) which linked principals' instructional leadership to improvement in teachers' classroom behaviours, attitudes and effectiveness and consequently lead to high student achievement.

Documented research (which include: Blasé & Blasé, 1999; 1998; Sheppard, 1996; Kruger, 2003,) further support the assertion by head teachers and teachers in this study that supervision and evaluation of teaching and learning would contribute positively to the teaching and learning. Their various researches on teacher perceptions about characteristics of school leaders that influence the teaching and learning process have concluded that behaviours associated with instructional leadership positively influence classroom instruction.

Blasé and Blasé (1998, 1999) further indicate that when instructional leaders monitor and provide feedback on the teaching and learning process, there were increases in teacher reflection and reflectively informed instructional behaviours, a rise in the implementation on new ideas, lessons were prepared and planned more carefully, teachers were likely to focus more on the instructional process. Teachers also indicated positive effects on motivation, satisfaction, confidence and sense of security.

As stated earlier, data obtained qualitatively suggested that head teachers who participated in this study hardly supervised and evaluated teaching and learning and the responses from the teachers indicated that this had a negative impact on the teaching and learning and led to poor performance by pupils in these schools.

This is supported by Blasé and Blasé (1998) when they state that principals that did not engage in monitoring and providing feedback of the teaching and learning process had a negative effect on teachers and classroom practice. Furthermore teachers with non-instructional leaders felt a sense of abandonment, anger, and futility, as well as lower levels of trust and respect for the principal, motivation and self-efficacy.

Monitoring Student Progress

From the data obtained through the interview responses, there was evidence that the head teachers did not have much time to monitor the work of their pupils and just like they did not have time to supervise and evaluate instruction, the head teachers' busy schedules with administrative issues were again cited.

The data revealed that these two job functions were mainly delegated to deputy head teachers and senior teachers. Available literature has shown that although a significant portion of the principals' time may be out of their control, they can set priorities on how to spend their time. Brook over et al, (1982) as cited in Flath (1989) asserts that this can have positive effects on student behaviour and classroom interaction.

Protecting Instructional Time

From the data that was obtained through the interviews, it was also evident that the head teachers did not protect instructional time adequately.

They said that most of the factors that interrupted teaching and learning time such as sports, national holidays, teachers going for further studies and teachers attending residential schools during learning time, schools hosting meetings and workshops due to their central locations and also the continuous professional development programs were beyond their jurisdiction.

This is not in line with Kunkhulis' (1988) study where he stated that in an effective school, management and teachers emphasize the importance of learning, learning is monitored closely and school time is used for more learning other than school assemblies, maintaining order and clearing the school.

Maintaining High Visibility

According to the data obtained through the interviews, there was overwhelming evidence that the head teachers were not highly visible and accessible in the schools. The responses from both the head teachers and teachers suggested that a head teachers' availability in the school would impact positively on the teaching and learning.

The data further revealed that the teachers strongly felt that if the head teachers were available in school, the teaching and learning would improve because teachers would focus on their core responsibility of teaching. The teachers said that the absence of teachers from the schools impacted negatively on teacher performance. Teachers further said that because of the non-

availability of head teachers most of the times in the schools, it was a situation of when “the cat is away”, there would not be much teaching and learning as teachers would be loitering in the staff rooms while pupils would not be attended to.

This non availability of head teachers in the teaching and learning process was also confirmed by the data that was obtained through the PIMRS, where the instructional leadership function of Maintaining High Visibility was rated the lowest by the teachers, and the head teachers rated themselves second lowest, further more even on the combined ratings, this function was still rated the lowest.

Yet available literature asserts that it was in this context that the head teacher was expected to be highly accessible in order to carry out numerous visits and provide the necessary instructional support to the teachers. Blasé and Blasé (1998) state that principals who possess instructional leadership qualities show concern for students and what teachers do by being visible, walking around the school to observe how teaching and learning were occurring and when there was something positive occurring, they will tell the teachers that they are doing well.

This goes down very well with what is documented in literature by Cotton (2003) and Whitaker (2003) when they state that the importance of principal presence and visibility throughout the school has been well established as being the key to successful schools.

Similarly, Blasé and Blasé (1998) concluded that the example of principals who walk around the school supporting the teachers’ instructional efforts surpasses that of principals who abandon teachers because walking around the school reinforces good teaching.

Instructional leadership and Teaching and Learning

Another aspect of the instructional leadership function Protecting Instructional Time documented in literature is that the head teacher should be a practicing teacher and that existing research has established that a teaching principal influences the teaching and learning process positively. The results obtained through interviews in this study regarding this aspect revealed that the head teachers did not teach apart from one or two who would teach once in a while. Once again, the data obtained from the interview responses revealed that the reason cited for head teachers not to be engaged in teaching was lack of time due to administrative work and managerial duties.

The results further revealed that both the head teachers and teachers acknowledged the positive effects that a teaching head teacher would have on teacher performance and consequently student achievement. They stated that a teaching head teacher would be a motivating factor to both teachers and students.

Literature has shown that the quality of the leadership of the head teacher matters in determining the quality of teaching which takes place in the classroom and that effective school heads are knowledgeable about teaching and learning and serve as instructional leaders. Not only do effective school heads believe and understand what good teaching is, they also recognize that their primary goal is to improve the effectiveness of their teachers (Erant, 1994; Hageaves and Fullan, 1998; McEwan, 2003; Whitaker; 2003)

Weinding (1990) state that head teachers in the United Kingdom indicated that the most important thing that contributed to instructional leadership was the fact that all principals continued to teach for an average of about 20 percent of the week.

Providing incentives for Teachers and Learners

The findings on these two functions provide evidence that incentives for both teachers and learners were provided at a very minimal level and that these were mostly provided in form of awards only during celebrations for Labour Day and teachers' day. From the evidence obtained through the interviews, the head teachers acknowledged that they did not reinforce teachers' superior performance through writing memos in order to reinforce superior performance.

The low levels of providing incentives to both teachers and learners was also supported by the data obtained through the PIMRS , where the head teachers rated themselves the lowest on Providing Incentives for Teachers and third lowest on Providing Incentives for Learners and the teachers too rated them second and third lowest on the same functions respectively. Even in the combined statistics, these two functions appeared almost at the bottom. This was confirmed by the evidence from the interviews which established that these two functions did not receive much attention from the head teachers.

The findings further showed that both teachers and head teachers agreed that Providing Incentives for Teachers would motivate them to work even harder. This also applied to the pupils; the findings revealed that pupils would also be motivated to perform better through provision of incentives for learning.

However, the low ratings in these two categories suggest that head teachers did not adequately provide incentives for teachers and pupils and thus implying that the teachers were quite demotivated. Yet these job functions according to Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) conceptual framework related to the principal's ability to create a learning environment in which academic

achievement is highly valued by students by providing frequent opportunities for students to be rewarded and recognized for their academic achievement and improvement. The rewards needed not be fancy or expensive; the recognition before teachers and peers was key (Brookover et al, 1978; Hallinger, 1994) as cited in Hallinger (1998).

This was further supported by Rossouw (1990) who states that teacher motivation can be an important element in the principal's success as a leader. This view is also supported by Sergiovanni (1997) when he contends that because of his position as a leader, the principal is best suited for staff motivation and that the principal is the focal point person of staff motivation and is also a staff morale booster.

Documented literature also states that other than material recognition, even acknowledging the teachers' superior performance through praise is enough to motivate a teacher. According to Blasé and Kirby (1992), praise is one of the important strategies that can influence teachers' work and that positive reinforcement was universally accepted as a correlate of effective teaching. They further state that praise is vital for instructional leadership.

In summary, we can conclude that the non-performance by head teachers who participated in this study of many of the instructional leadership functions impacted negatively on the teaching and learning process and consequently led to poor or average performance of pupils in most of the selected basic schools ranging from as low as 28% to slightly above average. It is also clear in this study from the responses received on the question on the performance of pupils that pupil performance in the selected basic schools has not been very good usually fluctuating from poor to below average and to barely above average.

It is clear from the above discussion that the head teachers who participated in this study were not performing most of the instructional leadership functions as measured by the PIMRS and that this had a negative effect on the teaching and learning process. This is contrary to documented research such as (Hallinger, (2011); Hallinger and Heck, (1998); Leithwood et al., (2008); Leithwood et al,(2004); Louis et al, (2010); Robinson et al, (2008) which has shown demonstrable progress in establishing how the role of the head teacher as an instructional leader contributes positively to the quality of student learning.

5.4 Research Objective 4:

- **To establish whether head teachers in these basic schools received any training that prepared them for their role either at pre service or in service.**

In regard to this research objective, the data that was obtained through the interviews revealed that the majority of head teachers that participated in this study did not receive training to prepare them for their role as head teachers prior to the appointment or after. The data obtained from the interviews further showed that the training that the teachers received at pre-service offered very little and inadequate content on school leadership and also that the training in education management and leadership was available mainly through in-service.

The findings further revealed that most of the head teachers did not receive training even through in-service courses and therefore depended on the experience of working under what they referred to as “experienced head teachers” and also that there was a lot of trial and error in doing their jobs.

The responses further revealed that the education system in Zambia did not have much provision for training head teachers. This is further supported by Mebrahtu et al (cited in Mwanza, 2004)

when he states that in Zambia, as indeed like elsewhere in Africa, the overwhelmingly majority of inspectors, school heads and educational officers in the field have never had either pre-service or in-service training in education management prior to their appointment.

As earlier stated from available literature obtained from the National Education Policy on Education in Zambia; “Educating Our Future” (1996) which states that head teachers in Zambia were appointed based on their seniority in the ministry and that as a result they led and managed their schools based on trial and error. The available literature also indicated that that among the reasons cited for less emphasis on instructional leadership was the lack of in depth training for their role as instructional leaders. (Flath, (1989); Fullan, (1991) This finding is in line with the expectation that head teachers that have received training in education management and leadership were more likely to be instructional leaders.

All the head teachers who were interviewed in this study agreed that training would enhance their leadership practices. The five head teachers who had taken training said that they did things differently after their training and this was evidenced by the researcher through observations. This is supported in the literature by Bhagwan and Bhushan (2006) when they stated that no matter how well grounded an employee may be in the general subject to which his work relates, there was much need for him to learn in respect to the particular duties of his position.

The available literature regarding the training of school leaders in developed countries such as the United States of America (USA) according to Maliwatu (2011) showed that people who were aspiring to be school leaders were required to take training in educational leadership and management and that there were various programmes that were designed to prepare people who

included heads of departments, assistant principals and principals for various programmes that were designed to prepare people for various administrative positions.

Documented literature according to Alkin (1992) and Fullan (1991) further reveals that to become principal, candidates were typically required to take advanced degrees or courses, usually in educational administration and more recently specific training and experiences in leadership academies and leadership centres. Haller et al (1994) also added that the United States of America is one of the few countries in the world where prospective public school administrators were required to take substantial amounts of graduate training in order to become certified in their profession.

The head teachers' responses further revealed that most of the head teachers did not receive training because the openings to do the Education Management and Leadership Course at NISTCOL which is the major and only college that offers in service training to head teachers in Zambia were limited. While research asserts the need for training for school leaders if they have to be instructional leaders, the findings in this study revealed that very few head teachers got the opportunity to be trained in Education Administration and Leadership.

This is supported by data from the literature reviewed in this study where researchers point out that the major reason for the deficiencies among school leaders is that training whether pre-service or in-service is often unavailable, inadequate, or inappropriate and that additionally , opportunities and incentives for advancement, clearly defined career paths, and systems for assessing performance are absent. (Chapman, (2000); Lockheed and Veerspoor (1991).

Many researchers too such as Fuller, (1987); Heyneman and Loxley (1983); Sembiring and Livingstone, (1981); as cited in Sandhivad (2009) also argue that school principal training before appointment is virtually non-existent among developing countries except for the on-the-job training for a teacher who has served as a deputy or assistant principal. They also state that studies in Egypt, Indonesia and Paraguay have found that a principal's teaching experience and instructional leadership training are related to higher student achievement .Lockheed &Verspoor (1991) go on to state that only a handful of developing countries such as China, Ethiopia, Kenya, Malaysia, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines and Thailand, have addressed the need to improve school management, primarily by establishing institutions to train school principals.

It has been seen from the reviewed literature in this study that some of the studies on principal instructional leadership were carried out in some of the countries mentioned above which have institutions that train head teachers in school management and leadership. These include such studies by (Musungu&Nasongo, (2008); Kenya, Enueme and Egwunyenga, (2008); Nigeria, Sindhivad, (2009); Phillipines and Hallinger, (1994) in Thailand. The results of these studies revealed that head teachers who participated in these studies exercised high levels of instructional leadership. These researchers further state that the lack of such inputs through training not only hinders the professional development of school leaders but also dampen their motivation to perform well. There is evidence from many studies (such as Leithwood, (1994); Sheppard, (1996); Derelg, (2003); and Bhagwan and Bhushan, (2006) that state that training plays a pivotal role in improving an individual's leadership role.

It was clear from the evidence obtained through the interviews that very few head teachers in Zambia receive training to prepare them for their role and that the opportunities for such training

were limited. It was also evident that the Zambian education system does not have specific institutions that offer preparatory roles for leadership positions and that even where there were a few opportunities, the training was usually concentrated more on managerial than instructional components. It has been revealed through the literature available in this study that the Education Management Course at NISTCOL had to be reviewed in order to incorporate the instructional leadership component.

According to Hallinger et al (1994) there has been relatively little emphasis in the training programmes offered to the Thai principals in either effective schools processes or instructional leadership functions, especially when compared with the North American and Malaysian contexts. Hallinger et al (1994) study further revealed that studies done on instructional leadership in the United States of America and Canada usually revealed that principals there exhibited high levels of instructional leadership.

In summary, it is clear that there is a relationship between training and the level of instructional leadership a head teacher exercises. Inadequate training or lack of it negatively affects the levels of instructional leadership. The findings obtained regarding this objective conforms to what is stated in literature that most head teachers in developing countries were usually appointed to their positions of leadership with inadequate training or without any training at all that prepared them for this role. As a result the head teachers performed their duties using trial and error. Bhagwan and Bhushan (2006) asserted that learning by trial and error has its pitfalls and may impair efficiency of administration.

Barriers to Instructional Leadership

This study would be incomplete without mentioning and discussing the barriers to instructional leadership that were faced by the head teachers who participated in this study. In as much as it has been found that head teachers who participated in this study did not exercise so much instructional leadership, they were also faced with a number of structural challenges that affected their work and thus contributed to the low levels of instructional leadership.

The data obtained from the interviews revealed that there were factors that contributed to the limited instructional leadership practices by head teachers which might be beyond their control such as:

Education System Expectations

- The hierarchical structure of the education system in Zambia follows a top-down arrangement where instructions and directives on what has to be done in the school come from the top. The education system in Zambia traditionally placed a higher priority on managerial administrative functions by head teachers. The data obtained from interviews in this study has revealed that as a result of this traditional norm, head teachers who participated in this study were concentrating more on managerial duties and the role of supervising the teaching and learning was mainly delegated to senior teachers. The data has further revealed that at one time the name of head teachers actually changed to that of school managers and that to date some head teachers still considered themselves as managers despite the education officials having discouraged this after observing that it brought negative repercussions.
- The findings have further revealed that promotion of teachers to positions of school leadership have not been based on their qualifications and instructional leadership potential. Consistent with these findings, is the observation by (Cuban, 1988) as cited in Hallinger (2011) that states that promotions into administrative positions are just as often associated with gender and political clout as compared to performance and qualifications.

- Thus, the administrative norms in most school systems still reinforce the informal negotiations of treaties with teachers concerning domains of practice, further inhibiting instructional leadership (Barth and Deal, 1982; Cuban, 1988; Marshall, 1996, 2004) as cited in Hallinger (2012) this is because the majority of the head teachers are detached completely from the teaching and learning that goes on in their schools.

Lack of training in Educational leadership and Management

- The findings in this study have revealed that one of the major obstacles to head teachers practicing instructional leadership was lack of in-depth training for head teachers in educational leadership and management. This seems to have led to head teachers having very little or no knowledge at all of instructional leadership. This is contrary to the assumption in documented literature that principals have the tools to provide instructional leadership because they were once teachers themselves.
- Hallinger (2012) supports this when he states that preparation as a teacher neither ensures that a prospective principal is capable of leading others nor that they have the specific expertise in curriculum and instruction. University based preparation programmes have not generally developed these capacities in depth required for principals to engage teachers productively in changing their teaching practice, and thus upon assuming their administrative role, many principals lack the expertise and confidence to focus on this part of the job. This leads to a head teacher shunning the instruction role for fear of being embarrassed by a teacher who may be more knowledgeable.
- Both head teachers and teachers who participated in this study acknowledged the fact that they did not receive adequate training in school management and leadership in their pre-service training.

Lack of time to execute instructional leadership functions

- The findings in this study have revealed and confirmed what is documented in literature that the head teachers concentrated more on managerial and administrative duties and had

very little time to execute instructional functions. It is well documented that the principal's workday comprises many brief, fragmented interactions with different actors (Dwyer, 1986; Lee & Hallinger, (in press), Marshall, 1996 as cited in Hallinger (2012). This makes it often difficult for principals to schedule the uninterrupted blocks of time necessary for planning and assessing the curriculum, observing lessons and meeting with teachers. In addition, teachers, parents, students and central office staff hold widely varying expectations of the principal (Marshall, 1996, 2004 as cited in Hallinger, (2012)

Structural Challenges

- The findings in this study also revealed that the head teachers who participated in this study were faced with structural challenges such as inadequate funding from government to schools to purchase teaching and learning materials which has led to critical shortages of text books and other resources, also supervising highly demotivated teachers due to poor conditions of service such as lack of accommodation, basic social amenities like electricity and proper water supply. Furthermore there was a challenge of over enrolments in their schools due to limited classroom spaces. Inadequate supervision from education standards officers who were limited due to lack of resources to conduct large scale monitoring and evaluation of schools.

These barriers were worth noting because they reflect both structural and professional challenges such as lack of expertise in curriculum and instruction that head teachers must strive to overcome if they have to improve their role as instructional leaders and that also other stake holders in particular the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education need to help the schools to overcome some of the barriers which are beyond their control.

As noted earlier in the literature reviewed, the construct of instructional leadership is a practical one; Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) conceptual frame work offered the researcher a research informed approach to an understanding and assessment of the instructional leadership role of the

head teachers who participated in this study. The conceptual framework further helped define what is signified by the concept of instructional leadership by delineating it into ten job functions which were easier to understand and measure. These instructional job functions were further linked and used in the collection of the qualitative data through the interview questions and this enriched the findings of the study.

The leadership theories reviewed provided an overview and historical understanding of the concept of instructional leadership and showed how instructional leadership combines many traits and leadership styles embedded in the various leadership theories.

The review of the leadership theories further exemplified that in order to be an instructional leader, a head teacher needs to exhibit a combination of different behaviours or practices which were explained in the leadership theories. This is supported by Alig-Mielcarek (2003) when she states that effective instructional leaders demonstrate behaviour theory as they initiate structure through behaviours that develop and communicate shared goals with staff, students and community.

Alig-Mielcarek (2003) goes on to state that instructional leaders provide consideration for staff as they monitor and provide feedback on the teaching and learning process, as well as working closely with staff when promoting school-wide professional development and that the very essence of instructional leadership is to transform a school organization into an environment where teachers and pupils may reach their full potential.

In this chapter, the findings from the study have been discussed. The next chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.0 Overview

This chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations of the study.

6.1 Conclusion

In regard to the question on the perceptions of the head teachers and teachers about the role of the head teacher as an instructional leader, the study concluded that the head teachers who participated in this study perceived themselves to be more instructional leaders than their teachers perceived them. However, contrary to the perceptions of the head teachers and the high ratings on the PIMRS, the study concluded from the perceptions of the teachers and data obtained from the interviews that the majority of the head teachers were not fully instructional leaders.

On the question as to what extent head teachers practiced instructional leadership in the selected basic schools, the study concluded that the head teachers who participated in this study were not actively practising instructional leadership functions as stated on the PIMRS. The data obtained through the responses to the interview questions clearly revealed that the head teachers did not practice much instructional leadership due to the non-performance of most of the key instructional leadership functions.

The findings also revealed that the head teachers did not really understand the term instructional leadership and that the majority of them indicated that they were coming across it for the first time. There was evidence too from this study that the head teachers were not even aware of the

policy statement in the National Education Policy, Educating Our Future (1996) on the role head teachers had to play as instructional leaders in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning in their schools.

Furthermore, the results from the interviews indicated that head teachers who participated in this study were detached from academic tasks of the school, because issues concerning teaching and learning were mainly delegated to deputy head teachers and senior teachers and that this was because the head teachers were hardly available in the schools and mostly too busy doing administrative work.

On the research question about the perceptions of the head teachers and teachers on the effects of instructional leadership on the teaching and learning process, the study concluded that the non-performance of the many instructional leadership functions by the head teachers who participated in this study affected the teaching and learning process negatively. The study further concluded that both the head teachers and teachers said instructional leadership practices by head teachers would positively affect the teaching and learning in the schools and consequently lead to high pupil performance.

The findings further revealed that the inadequate provision of instructional leadership by the head teachers impacted negatively on the teaching and learning and that performance in the schools was generally average or below average.

There was consensus too in this study that head teachers did not teach, yet this is a requirement for a head teacher who is an instructional leader. Participants in this study stated that head

teachers should teach at least a class because a teaching head teacher would motivate both teachers and students and thereby affecting the teaching and learning process positively.

In regard to the research question whether head teachers who participated in this study received training that prepared them for their role as head teachers and as instructional leaders; the study concluded that the majority of the head teachers that participated in this study did not receive relevant training that prepared them for their role as head teachers. The findings further revealed that the head teachers were using the trial and error approach in doing their work and also relying on the job experience gained from working under their former head teachers. The findings further indicated that the Zambian Education System did not have much provision for training of head teachers and that training was not a pre requisite for a teacher to be appointed as a head teacher.

There was evidence too from the data obtained in this study that Zambia basically has only one major institution, the National In-Service Training College (NISTCOL) which had the provisions of training serving head teachers in Education Management and Leadership, and that this contributed to less head teachers being trained because opportunities were limited.

There was further evidence that even this available training was mainly concentrated on management and that it was only a few years ago that the programme was reviewed to include the leadership component.

The validity and reliability of the findings and conclusion of this study have been enhanced by triangulation through using various approaches such as quantitative, qualitative, observations and document analysis the researcher was able to compare and contrast the various categories.

6.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings and the conclusion, the following recommendations are made.

A. Recommendations to the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education in Zambia

As stated earlier this study was based on what is stated in the National Policy document on education in Zambia (1996): “Educating Our Future”

The findings of this study have implications for policy and practice. Therefore the study makes the following recommendations:

1. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MOESVTEE) should review the national policy on education to see whether its policy objectives on instructional leadership are being implemented and the extent to which they are.
2. This study further recommends that the policy makers in the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should revisit the policy statement on effective schools and the role of head teachers as instructional leaders and ensure that it is implemented.
3. The Ministry should provide the policy document to the schools and head teachers in particular and ensure its utilization.
4. The head teachers and teachers should ensure that they acquire and familiarize themselves with the policy document and utilize it.

5. Head teachers could tap from this study to help them reflect on their leadership practices and this may help them see their weaknesses and strengths to help them improve.
6. Teachers could also draw inferences from the study and develop themselves academically in the area of school leadership training.
7. The Ministry of Education should sensitize the head teachers, teachers and other stakeholders on the importance of instructional leadership because the benefits of instructional leadership on the teaching and learning process have been established through research by sensitizing them through workshops and seminars.
8. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should also review the pre-service teacher training programmes to ensure that they incorporate training in education administration and leadership. Furthermore, in cases where such programmes exist; the courses should be enhanced and strengthened to include content on school leadership.
9. The Ministry should further strengthen and expand the in-service training programme offered at NISTCOL and also create more institutions that will specifically offer preparatory school leadership training to teachers who aspire to be head teachers as is the case in countries like the United States of America, Canada and even in some developing countries which exhibit higher levels of instructional leadership.
10. The training programmes both at pre-service and in-service levels should be enhanced too to include information and communication technologies in order to have head teachers who will be able to use data driven evidence in making decisions especially concerning results analysis by schools.

11. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational, Training and Early Education should improve funding to schools and provision of teaching and learning materials in order to improve the teaching and learning.
12. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and early Education should strengthen the monitoring and evaluation of the teaching and learning in schools which seem to be relaxed in the urban schools and almost non-existent especially in the rural schools, in order for head teachers not to work in isolation.
13. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education should review the work structures of head teachers so that they include shared leadership strategies. This will help head teachers build teacher leadership and enable them not only to delegate instructional functions but also administrative and managerial tasks. This will further help head teachers to overcome some of the structural and administrative to their role as instructional leaders.
14. The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education also needs to review its policy on the appointment of teachers to school leadership roles and that the appointments of head teachers should no longer be based on age or long service but on qualifications and performance and that preparatory training for this role should be a prerequisite.
15. The head teachers could use the PIMRS and the list of indicators of instructional leadership synthesized by the researcher in this study to evaluate and refine their instructional leadership practices.

B. Recommendations for future Research:

1. This study has focused only on head teachers of 32 basic schools in one province out of 10 provinces in Zambia and therefore the possibility of generalization may be limited. There is need therefore for an in-depth study with a bigger sample or a comparative study of different provinces in order to enhance the generalizability, validity and reliability of the conclusion reached. A similar study could be done based on secondary schools.
2. A similar study can be carried out using a simplified version of the questionnaire (PIMRS) with the permission of the publisher. Further research may also consider using a different instrument or method of assessing the instructional leadership practices of head teachers in Zambia.
3. Furthermore studies can also be done taking into consideration variables such as gender, length of service of the head teacher, the size of the school, and the geographical location of the school. Future research can also explore the perceptions of students about their head teachers' instructional leadership practices using an age-appropriate survey instrument. Perceptions of education officers such as education standards officers can also be explored by including the supervisor form.

C. Implications for Policy, School Leadership and Research

This study:

1. Has established that 18 years since the Zambian National Policy on Education, Educating Our Future (1996) was enacted in which instructional leadership was identified as a premise to the improvement of the teaching and learning in schools,

very little if any research has been carried out to see if this has been implemented, this study therefore has activated the policy statement on instructional leadership and brought out the benefits of instructional leadership and set a stage for further research on the topic.

2. Has brought new and immense knowledge on instructional leadership by the introduction of the conceptual framework (PIMRS) that could be used by the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE) and the directorate of standards and curriculum development to draw out a protocol model for monitoring and assessing leadership practices of head teachers.
3. Has brought out the linkage between training and school leadership and its relevance in the work of head teachers and further that training should be a prerequisite to the appointment as head teacher not just age, experience or length of service.
4. Has brought out the linkage between the head teacher, teacher performance and pupil performance which could further be explored by future research.
5. Has brought out the need to review the Zambian National Education Policy.
6. Using the PIMRS as a questionnaire became a learning process for the head teachers and teachers who participated in this study as they acknowledged that they had learned a lot from responding to the questionnaire and responding to the interview questions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A – AUTHORITY FROM PUBLISHER

LETTER FROM THE PUBLISHER AS PERMISSION TO USE THE PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT RATING SCALE

December 16, 2011

Rachael Mabuku
Zambia

Dear Rachael:

As copyright holder and publisher, you have my permission as publisher to use the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)* in your research study. In using the scale, you may make unlimited copies of any of the three forms of the PIMRS.

Please note the following conditions of use:

1. This authorization extends only to the use of the PIMRS for research purposes, not for general school district use of the instrument for evaluation or staff development purposes;
2. *The user must include a reliability analysis in the study if suitable quantitative data has been collected;*
3. The user agrees to send a soft copy of the *completed study* to the publisher upon completion of the research.
4. The user agrees to send a soft copy of the *data set* to the publisher upon completion of the research.

Please be advised that a separate *permission to publish* letter will be sent after the publisher receives a soft copy of the completed study, the dataset, and I have confirmed that you included a reliability analysis.

Sincerely,



Professor Philip Hallinger
7250 Golf Pointe Way
Sarasota FL, 34243
Hallinger@gmail.com

APPENDIX B – AUTHORITY FROM PEO

**LETTER FROM THE PROVINCIAL EDUCATION OFFICER- CENTRAL PROVINCE
AS PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT DATA COLLECTION IN THE SAMPLED
SCHOOLS**

PEOC/101/1/1

20th September 2012

To : All District Education Board Secretaries
All Head teachers of Basic Schools
CENTRAL PROVINCE

**RE: FIELD WORK FOR PHD STUDENT : MRS. RACHAEL MABUKU
KABETA**

This serves to introduce Mrs. Rachael Mabuku Kabeta, a PhD student at the University of Zambia.

She is conducting her research as part of her PhD programme. The research is on Instructional Leadership Practices of Basic School Headteachers in Central Province.

Any assistance rendered to her will be greatly appreciated.



Enita Hamatumbika
Provincial Education Officer
CENTRAL PROVINCE

APPENDIX C – PRINCIPAL FORM

**PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT
RATING SCALE**

Principal Form

Published by:

Dr. Philip Hallinger

7250 Golf Pointe Way
Sarasota, FL 34243
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Principal Form 2.0

**THE PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT
RATING SCALE**

PART I: Please provide the following information if instructed to do so by the person administering the instrument:

- (A) District Name: _____
- (B) Your School's Name: _____
- (C) Principal's Name: _____
- (D) Number of school years you have been principal at this school:
___ 1 ___ 5-9 ___ more than 15
___ 2-4 ___ 10-15
- (E) Years, at the end of this school year, that you have been a principal:
___ 1 ___ 5-9 ___ more than 15
___ 2-4 ___ 10-15

PART II: This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of your leadership. It consists of 50 behavioral statements that describe principal job practices and behaviors. You are asked to consider each question in terms of your leadership over the past school year.

Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that best fits the specific job behavior or practice as you conducted it during the past school year. For the response to each statement:

5 represents *Almost Always*

4 represents *Frequently*

3 represents *Sometimes*

2 represents *Seldom*

1 represents *Almost Never*

In some cases, these responses may seem awkward; use your judgement in selecting the most appropriate response to such questions. Please circle only one number per question. Try to answer every question.

Thank you.

To what extent do you . . . ?

	ALMOST NEVER		ALMOST ALWAYS		
I. FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS					
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS					
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g., posters or bulletin boards emphasizing academic progress)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g., in assemblies or discussions)	1	2	3	4	5
III. SUPERVISE & EVALUATE INSTRUCTION					
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school	1	2	3	4	5
12. Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
IV. COORDINATE THE CURRICULUM					
16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, vice principal, or teacher-leaders)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions	1	2	3	4	5
18. Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives	1	2	3	4	5
19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5
V. MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS					
21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress	1	2	3	4	5
22. Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
23. Use tests and other performance measure to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME					
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
28. Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
VII. MAINTAIN HIGH VISIBILITY					
31. Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students	1	2	3	4	5
33. Attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities	1	2	3	4	5
34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS					
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER		ALMOST ALWAYS		
38. Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files	1	2	3	4	5
39. Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition	1	2	3	4	5
40. Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school	1	2	3	4	5
IX. PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT					
41. Ensure that inservice activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during inservice training	1	2	3	4	5
43. Obtain the participation of the whole staff in important inservice activities	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lead or attend teacher inservice activities concerned with instruction	1	2	3	4	5
45. Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from inservice activities	1	2	3	4	5
X. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING					
46. Recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in the principal's newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
47. Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work	1	2	3	4	5
49. Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions	1	2	3	4	5
50. Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class	1	2	3	4	5

ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Professor Dr. Philip Hallinger, author of the *Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale* (PIMRS), received his doctorate in Administration and Policy Analysis from Stanford University. He has worked as a teacher, administrator, and professor and as the director of several leadership development centers. He has been a consultant to education and healthcare organizations throughout the United States, Canada, Asia, and Australia. He is currently Professor and Executive Director of the College of Management, Mahidol University, in Thailand.

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APPENDIX D – TEACHER FORM

**PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT
RATING SCALE**

TEACHER FORM

Published by:

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Teacher Form 2.0

**THE PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT
RATING SCALE**

PART I: Please provide the following information about yourself:

- (A) School Name: _____
- (B) Years, at the end of this school year, that you have worked with the current principal:
___ 1 ___ 5-9 ___ more than 15
___ 2-4 ___ 10-15
- (C) Years experience as a teacher at the end of this school year:
___ 1 ___ 5-9 ___ more than 15
___ 2-4 ___ 10-15

PART II: This questionnaire is designed to provide a profile of principal leadership. It consists of 50 behavioral statements that describe principal job practices and behaviors. You are asked to consider each question in terms of your observations of the principal's leadership over the past school year.

Read each statement carefully. Then circle the number that best fits the specific job behavior or practice of this principal during the past school year. For the response to each statement:

- 5 represents *Almost Always*
- 4 represents *Frequently*
- 3 represents *Sometimes*
- 2 represents *Seldom*
- 1 represents *Almost Never*

In some cases, these responses may seem awkward; use your judgment in selecting the most appropriate response to such questions. Please circle only one number per question. Try to answer every question. Thank you.

To what extent does your principal . . . ?

	ALMOST NEVER				ALMOST ALWAYS
I. FRAME THE SCHOOL GOALS					
1. Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals	1	2	3	4	5
2. Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities for meeting them	1	2	3	4	5
3. Use needs assessment or other formal and informal methods to secure staff input on goal development	1	2	3	4	5
4. Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals	1	2	3	4	5
5. Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school	1	2	3	4	5
II. COMMUNICATE THE SCHOOL GOALS					
6. Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community	1	2	3	4	5
7. Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty meetings	1	2	3	4	5
8. Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
9. Ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school (e.g., posters or bulletin boards emphasizing academic progress)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Refer to the school's goals or mission in forums with students (e.g., in assemblies or discussions)	1	2	3	4	5
III. SUPERVISE & EVALUATE INSTRUCTION					
11. Ensure that the classroom priorities of teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school	1	2	3	4	5
12. Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
13. Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (informal observations are unscheduled, last at least 5 minutes, and may or may not involve written feedback or a formal conference)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Point out specific strengths in teacher's instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback (e.g., in conferences or written evaluations)	1	2	3	4	5

IV. COORDINATE THE CURRICULUM

16. Make clear who is responsible for coordinating the curriculum across grade levels (e.g., the principal, vice principal, or teacher-leaders)	1	2	3	4	5
17. Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions	1	2	3	4	5
18. Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives	1	2	3	4	5
19. Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests	1	2	3	4	5
20. Participate actively in the review of curricular materials	1	2	3	4	5

V. MONITOR STUDENT PROGRESS

21. Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress	1	2	3	4	5
22. Discuss academic performance results with the faculty to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses	1	2	3	4	5
23. Use tests and other performance measure to assess progress toward school goals	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
24. Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (e.g., in a memo or newsletter)	1	2	3	4	5
25. Inform students of school's academic progress	1	2	3	4	5
VI. PROTECT INSTRUCTIONAL TIME					
26. Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements	1	2	3	4	5
27. Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
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29. Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practicing new skills and concepts	1	2	3	4	5
30. Limit the intrusion of extra- and co-curricular activities on instructional time	1	2	3	4	5
VII. MAINTAIN HIGH VISIBILITY					
31. Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks	1	2	3	4	5
32. Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students	1	2	3	4	5
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34. Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives	1	2	3	4	5
35. Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes	1	2	3	4	5
VIII. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR TEACHERS					
36. Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters, and/or memos	1	2	3	4	5
37. Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance	1	2	3	4	5

	ALMOST NEVER			ALMOST ALWAYS	
38. Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personnel files	1	2	3	4	5
39. Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition	1	2	3	4	5
40. Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school	1	2	3	4	5

IX. PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

41. Ensure that inservice activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals	1	2	3	4	5
42. Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during inservice training	1	2	3	4	5
43. Obtain the participation of the whole staff in important inservice activities	1	2	3	4	5
44. Lead or attend teacher inservice activities concerned with instruction	1	2	3	4	5
45. Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from inservice activities	1	2	3	4	5

X. PROVIDE INCENTIVES FOR LEARNING

46. Recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honor roll or mention in the principal's newsletter	1	2	3	4	5
47. Use assemblies to honor students for academic accomplishments or for behavior or citizenship	1	2	3	4	5
48. Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work	1	2	3	4	5
49. Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions	1	2	3	4	5
50. Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class	1	2	3	4	5

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APPENDIX E - INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEAD TEACHERS

1. Please give me a little background in regard to your education? What are your qualifications and which institution did you obtain them from?
2. How many years have you served as a head teacher? How many years did you teach before you became a head teacher?
3. Did you receive any further training before or after you became a head teacher? If so, what kind of training did you receive?
4. Did the training you received prepare you for your job as a head teacher? Do you think head teachers should be trained before they take up this role? And why do you think so?
5. How do you spend your time each day from the time when you arrive in the school until you leave?
6. What is your school's mission and motto and how was it arrived at? Is this mission shared by the teachers as well?
7. Do you involve your teachers in framing and setting the academic goals for the school at the beginning of the year or term?
8. How often do you supervise and evaluate instruction or the teaching and learning in your school? Do you walk through your teachers classrooms? Do you discuss your lesson observations with your teachers and provide them with feedback?
9. Do you coordinate and monitor the school curriculum and draw upon the national results when making decisions based on the curriculum?
10. How do you monitor student progress? Do you meet with teachers to discuss student progress and are teachers and students informed of school's performance results?
11. What are some factors that disturb instructional time in your school? What measures do you put in as a head teacher to protect instructional time?
12. Do you maintain high visibility in the school and take time to visit classrooms and to discuss school issues with teachers and students?
13. What has been the performance of your pupils like for the past 2 to 3 years? To what do you attribute the good or poor performance of your pupils?

14. What is the policy of your school on staff development or continuous professional development? What do you do in order to facilitate continuous development programs for your teachers?
15. What kind of continuous development programs do your teachers attend and how do they impact on their teaching?
16. How often do you hold staff meetings with your teachers to discuss and review academic issues? To what extent do you involve them when making decisions that affect teaching and learning?
17. What kind of incentives do you provide to your teachers when they perform very well and how do you reinforce this superior performance?
18. What kind of incentives do you provide to students in order to reinforce their learning and how is it done?
19. The 1996 policy on education, "*Educating our Future*" identifies the head teacher as the focal person in the delivery of quality education. Are you familiar with this policy document? It further stresses that head teachers need to be instructional leaders. What is your understanding of the term instructional leadership? Are you an instructional leader? What do you think are the effects of instructional leadership on the teaching-learning process?
20. Do you have a class that you teach? If so; what kind of influence do you think this has on your teachers? And if not; what are the reasons that makes you not to teach?

APPENDIX F - INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

1. Please give me a little background in regard to your education? What are your qualifications and where did you obtain them from?
2. How many years have you been a teacher and what are your core responsibilities? How many years have you taught at this school?
3. As a teacher did you receive any training either at pre service or in service that could have prepared you for an administrative role like that of deputy head or head teacher? Do you think training in educational management and leadership is important to a teacher?
4. How do you perceive the role of your head teacher? Briefly outline his or her responsibilities and describe what you perceive as his core responsibility in the school.
5. Describe briefly how your head teacher generally spends his/her time from the time they arrive in the school until they leave the school.
6. Does your school have a motto or mission? How was it arrived at? Does your head teacher communicate the school mission effectively to teachers and students?
7. Does the head teacher involve you teachers in planning and setting the academic goals for the school say at the beginning of the year or term? Does the head teacher use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals?
8. How has been the performance of your pupils at grade 9 examinations for the past 2- 3 years? To what do you attribute the good or poor performance of the pupils?
9. How often does your head teacher supervise and evaluate the teaching and learning in your school. Does he conduct informal observations on a regular basis?
10. Does the head teacher coordinate the curriculum and participate actively in the review of the curriculum?
11. Does your head teacher monitor student progress and meet with you teachers to discuss student progress?
12. What are the factors that disturb instructional time in your school? What measures does the head teacher put in place to protect instructional or learning time?
13. Does your head teacher maintain high visibility in the school and take time to visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students?

14. What is the policy of your school on staff development or continuous professional development? Does your head teacher encourage and facilitate continuous professional development programmes for all teachers?
15. What kind of continuous development programs do you attend; do they help you improve on your teaching?
16. Does the school hold staff meetings where you review and discuss academic issues; if so how often are these meetings held? Does your head teacher involve you in making decisions that affect teaching and learning?
17. In what ways does your head teacher motivate you in terms of teaching? For example if a teacher performed well, what kind of incentives does the head teacher give to teachers and how does he reinforce superior performance?
18. The 1996 policy on education, "Educating our Future", identifies the head teacher as the focal person in the delivery of quality education. It further says if this has to be achieved, head teachers need to be instructional leaders. What is your understanding of the term instructional leadership? Is your head teacher an instructional leader? What do you think are the effects of instructional leadership on the teaching-learning process?
19. Does your head teacher teach and if so, how does this impact on you as a teacher?