

**SCHOOL-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION IN
SAUDI ARABIAN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

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ABSTRACT

This study was concerned with the lack of information regarding school-based instructional supervision practices in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools, with specific attention paid to the perceptions of instructional supervision held by teachers. Therefore, the main aim of this study was to examine what secondary teachers perceive as effective instructional supervision and to examine the current state of school-based instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools from the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and district education officers.

Specific research questions focused on the respondents' perceptions of and preferences for the focuses and practices of school-based instructional supervision, supervisory personnel, staff development programmes relevant to instructional supervision, and desired changes for improvement supervision practices.

A survey design was utilised for this study. Data for the study were collected through questionnaires and interviews. The questionnaires were completed by 272 teachers and in-depth interviews were conducted with 33 participants (18 teachers, 10 headteachers, and 5 district education officers), thus yielding a total of 305 participants.

The findings reveal supervision practices were marred by questionable practices associated with victimisation, intimidation, inconsistency, confusion, and biases. The supervisors lacked the necessary supervisory skills, were not serious about their supervisory roles, and, consequently, they were not taken seriously by teachers.

In addition, the findings of this study indicate that instructional supervision are characterised by conflicting role expectations that cause stress and mistrust for teachers and instructional supervisors and that the development of clearly written policies on instructional supervision is an area needing the greatest attention.

Among the proposed changes for the improvement of supervision practices, based on the findings of the study, were (a) encouraging supervisors to be objective and teacher-friendly; (b) encouraging headteachers to take the leading role in school-based supervision by developing interest in supervision, allowing themselves to be supervised by other members of the teaching staff, and getting involved in classroom teaching to become acquainted with ongoing classroom events; (c) providing appropriate rewards and incentives to teachers who receive good supervisory reports or take initiatives to facilitate their professional learning; and (d) fostering collaboration and teamwork among teachers and instructional supervisors.

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Author's declaration

The author has not previously presented any of the material contained herein.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Secondary education, in particular, is an important aspect of the education system because it helps to alleviate the manpower constraints of the nation (Al-Salloom, 2003). According to the Ministry of Education (1994), the objectives of secondary education are (a) to provide for all-round mental, moral, and spiritual development; (b) to provide relevant skills to enable a positive contribution to the development of society; (c) to ensure balanced development in cognitive, manipulative, and practical and effective skills; (d) to lay a firm foundation for further education, training, and work; and (e) to lead to the acquisition of positive attitudes and values for the well-being of society. Also, the Ministry of Education (1999) reported that, because the government is committed to making education relevant to economic and social development, secondary education has undergone many changes since establishment: (a) the evolution of a more relevant curriculum based on the requirements of the nation and the individual, (b) increased growth in the number of secondary schools and enrollment, (c) the introduction of more job-oriented courses (e.g., industrial and business education), (d) the consolidation of schools for quality, and (e) the adoption of a new system of categorisation of schools into public and private. A further transformation in secondary education recently receiving a great deal of support and attention in Saudi Arabia is the use of instructional supervision as a vehicle for the improvement of instruction in schools. Glatthorn (1990) describes supervision as all activities in which supervisors engage in order to promote instructional improvement. Sullivan and Glanz (2005) concur with Glatthorn's emphasis on instructional improvement when defining supervision. However, they also add

that in order to achieve instructional improvement, supervision must involve “engaging teachers in instructional dialogue” (p. 27). Beach & Reinhartz (2000) describes supervision as “A complex process that involves working with teachers and other educators in a collegial, collaborative relationship to enhance the quality of teaching and learning within schools and that promotes the career-long development of teachers” (p. 8).

Instructional supervision embraces all activities directed specifically toward the establishment, maintenance, and improvement of the teaching-learning process in schools. Furthermore, it includes improving teaching and learning strategies and providing an atmosphere conducive to teaching and learning.

The need for instructional supervision in schools has been voiced by several writers. For example, Schain (1988) observed that

While colleges can do basic training in the arts and skills of teaching, the actual training of teachers must take place in schools where they teach. That's the real world and that's where teachers will spend most of their working lives. Accordingly, the question becomes, “Who will train our teachers in their schools?” The answer is quite clear—the school supervisors (p. 4).

Also, Pfeiffer and Dunlap (1982) noted that instructional supervision is needed to help teachers improve their instructional performance, motivate their professional growth, and implement their curricular development. They concluded that the ultimate goal of instructional supervision is to improve student development, which may be achieved through changing teacher behaviour, modifying curriculum, or restructuring the learning environment. Oliva and Pawlas (2001) observed that supervision is needed for all kinds of teachers in schools—the new, the inexperienced, and the able. Literature on

instructional supervision (e.g., Hilo, 1987; McElwain, 1989; Patterson, 1990; Rabideau, 1993; Waite, 1995; Zeng, 1993) suggests supervision is needed, is desirable, and plays a valuable role in education. In Saudi Arabia, improving the quality of teaching and learning is of critical importance because of (a) the general low teacher quality; (b) the presence of many untrained teachers in the teaching profession; and (c) the need to implement educational reforms, innovations, and development effectively and successfully (Al-Qurashi, 1994). Along with the need for supervision, there is a need for the study of instructional supervision by researchers in the field to determine the effectiveness of supervisory practices and the need for the changes to improve practices. Also, there is a need to know which practices, if any, in instructional supervision will meet the needs of teachers and headteachers in their schools. Toward this end, an assessment of the perceptions of teachers and headteachers regarding the existing and preferred practices of instructional supervision is desirable. These perceptions can be the basis for the evaluation of the effectiveness of supervisory practices and the need for change.

1.1 Background to the Problem

Supervision in Saudi Arabian secondary schools is a function that has, over the years, been entrusted to the Ministry of Education in accordance with the Education Act (Ministry of Education, 1974), which empowers the Minister for Education to promote the education of the people of Saudi Arabia. The Act specifically states that

The Minister shall promote the education of the people of Saudi Arabia and the progressive development of institutions devoted to the promotion of education, and shall secure the effective co-operation, under the general direction or control, of all public bodies concerned with education in carrying out the national policy for education (p. 5).

To achieve this objective, the Instructional Supervision section of the Ministry of Education has endeavoured to arrange some visitations to schools by supervisors to carry out general supervision or inspection. The following activities are typically conducted during external supervision: (a) checking on educational facilities; (b) monitoring, reviewing, and assessing how well educational standards are being maintained and educational standards implemented by teachers and school administrators; and (c) observing classroom teaching by individual teachers to assess their professional competence for professional guidance (Al-Dhuwayan, Zahrani, and Ghanim, 1998 ; Ministry of Education, 1998). Additionally, arising from supervision, in-service training needs for teachers and headteachers are expected to be identified. According to Al-Mughaidi (1997b), the main purpose of such a legal provision for school supervision is to

enable the Minister for Education as a representative of the government and the people to satisfy himself that educational standards are being maintained or improved, and that the schools and colleges are being conducted in accordance with national aims and policies. Seen from a legal standpoint, therefore, supervision is an instrument with which the political and administrative authorities maintain a necessary contact with schools, teachers, and the community (p. 455).

However, the following constraints have been associated with external supervision by external school supervisors (Al-Mughaidi, 1997a; Al-Hammad, 2000):

1. Inadequate supervisors. The number of school supervisors is quite small and hardly copes with the demand to inspect all the schools and various subjects taught in secondary schools and participate in curriculum development and examinations. Moreover, there exist no clearly defined criteria for determining the number of secondary education supervisors to be recruited

to ensure proper coverage of schools and subjects taught. Ministry of Education (2009) revealed that the Instructional Supervision department of the Ministry of Education currently has about 900 supervisors for a teaching force of over 170,000 spread over about 10,000 public secondary and primary schools.

2. Limited resources, such as funds and equipment;
3. Lack of transportation or flexible mobility;
4. Incompetent supervision personnel who lack training, especially in instructional supervision;
5. Undue delay in providing meaningful feedback to schools; and
6. The poor relationship between school supervisors and teachers.

Other concerns regarding the supervision of schools have been voiced in the literature (e.g., Al-Utaibi, 1998; Al-Tuwaijri, 1985; Alslman, 2003): (a) lack of sufficient teacher support to supervision process; (b) supervisors' general negative attitudes toward supervision and a decided lack of commitment and positive approach to supervision; (c) lack of proper, appropriate, and uniform focuses of supervision; and (d) the tendency of school supervisors to focus their supervision on school buildings and administrative systems rather than on teaching and learning, with minimal attention to the identification and improvement of educational standards.

In view of the above constraints, there has been an urgent need for alternative ways to improve the quality of teaching and learning in Saudi Arabian schools.

Various government statements have proposed school-based supervision to supplement the work done by external supervisors. In Adwani's (1981) view,

school-based supervision is done by the headteacher and staff of the institution in which supervision takes place. For example, the Ministry of Education (1987) recommended the use of school-based supervisors—such as headteachers, departmental heads, and subject heads—in instructional supervision of teaching. Commenting on staff appraisal, Muhammed (Ministry of Education, 1987), noted that

The Ministry of Education is aware of the existence of good quality personnel out here in the field such as . . . heads of schools.... Field officers with administrative responsibilities would be doing this Ministry a good turn if they worked to promote and sustain a vigorous staff-appraisal system because in this way some of that great talent would be tapped and utilised to the benefit of this nation (pp. 28-29).

Later, a report on the progress of education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Saudi Arabia (2001) observed that the “most important supervision and guidance is that given by the head of the school” (p. 34) and recommended that heads of schools be utilised to inspect and guide other teachers to supplement the work done by external school supervisors and that the role of headteachers as “first supervisors” of their schools be strengthened (Saudi Arabia, 2001).

A few Saudi Arabian scholars also believed that headteachers are in a good position to assist their colleague teachers with instructional improvements in their schools. A notable example is Al-Babutain (1993), who reasoned that, “given the fact that many Saudi Arabian schools have unqualified teachers, the headteacher should be able to assist particularly beginning teachers who have just received training and those who have no training at all” (p. 12). Al-Hajadi (1982), who, studied Supervision and its role in the educational process in elementary school in Makkah, Saudi Arabia, also recommended that headteachers supervise incompetent and inefficient teachers. In an earlier study

Adwani (1981) also recommended that more emphasis be placed on school-based supervision.

Therefore, the overall view of the Saudi Arabian scholars and of Saudi Arabian educators in general is that school-based instructional supervision in secondary schools should be promoted, with headteachers taking the major role. According to Al-Quaee (2001), moves toward school-based arrangements relative to supervision of teaching are more cost effective than maintaining a team of external school supervisors who cannot function effectively.

School-based instructional supervision will be expected to address the following major challenges: (a) assisting teachers in the various categories—beginning, qualified, unqualified, underqualified—to better their teaching (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001); (b) helping school administrations in planning the participation of individual teachers in staff development, thus preparing them for different or increased responsibilities (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982; Sergiovanni, 1982); (c) assisting schools in selecting relevant instructional materials and equipment (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000); (d) helping schools to implement government educational curricula (Krey & Burke, 1989); (e) improving the relationship between teachers and headteachers (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001); and (f) leading in curriculum development (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000).

Further, the involvement of headteachers as school-based instructional supervisors has several operational advantages. First, headteachers are most likely to have more time for supervision because they deal with teachers in their own schools, instead of having to travel to different schools as external school supervisors often do; as a result, they may be in a

position to observe both the instructional activity of the teachers and the learning activities of the students (Sergiovanni, 1995) and to evaluate a number of aspects of instructional supervision, such as the process of supervision, the way the supervisory program is school-basedly managed in the school, whether or not the intended objectives are being realised, and to what extent (Lipham, 1981; Lovell & Wiles, 1983). Second, according to Hunter (1984), the headteacher is

continuously on site, unlike external supervisors.... Even though someone else may do in-service or work with teachers in classrooms, unless that person is consistently available when needed, a request for help as well as the validation of subsequent effective performance by the teacher must be met by the headteacher (p. 188).

Third, in Hunter's view the headteacher controls the “reward” system of the school, an opportunity that may constitute a powerful strategy for improving school-based instructional supervision. Fourth, as the headteacher employs a variety of instructional supervision techniques that meet the diverse needs of teachers, there is likely to be a greater chance of public satisfaction with the instructional process (Kelly, 1988). Instructional supervisors may acquire such techniques through their participation in in-service training programs. As Wiles and Bondi (2000) noted, to be effective, instructional leaders must have both the knowledge and skills necessary to change the behaviours of teachers, which they can acquire by attending seminars, conferences, and graduate classes. Fifth, the involvement of headteachers in school-based supervision and their use of appropriate instructional supervision practices will be educators' way of addressing Beach and Reinhartz's (2000) belief that supervisors are educators who are designated as resources for teachers on instructional ideas, issues, and concerns, and who facilitate change

in such a way that teachers are successful in their endeavour to enhance the quality of teaching and learning in schools. The choice regarding the appropriate supervisory practice to employ, especially in developmental supervision, depends on (a) teachers' stages of personal and professional developments, (b) supervisors' competencies, and (c) supervisors' own decision-making abilities. In brief, it is the supervisor who is expected to decide which appropriate supervisory practice to use to facilitate instructional supervision. And, sixth, Al-Qurashi (1994) argued that, because headteachers are expected to be in school throughout the year, they are in a position to discharge many supervisory functions more effectively than are external school supervisors, who may be able to visit schools only occasionally, and that the possibility of schools putting up artificial shows to satisfy external school supervisors becomes irrelevant when headteachers are entrusted with supervision functions in their schools.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Few investigations can be found that depict the realities of instructional supervision. In order to improve instructional supervision, it is necessary to know how it is practiced and perceived and what its current purposes and focuses are. Furthermore, although the Saudi Arabian government is keen in facilitating staff development programs for incumbent headteachers and teachers, there is a lacuna in the knowledge regarding the current barriers to the professional learning of these incumbents and how to address them. Persistent shortcomings are also evident in research regarding the Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education's policy guidelines relevant to school-based instructional

supervision. It is quite evident, given the current state of knowledge in this area, that more research is needed.

An investigation into the current state of school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures as perceived by secondary school headteachers (as school-based instructional supervisors), secondary teachers, and district education officers is the main focus of the proposed study. No other scientific study of this nature has been conducted in the field of instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia.

Although the Saudi Arabian government has strongly recommended that headteachers take the leading role in school-based instructional supervision with a view to improving the quality of teaching in Saudi Arabian secondary schools, it must be emphasised that instructional supervision is a complex and confusing activity fraught with emotional and social overtones. However, supervision of instruction should focus on the teaching and learning that goes on and seek to help teachers and supervisors to provide high quality learning experiences for students. To accomplish this goal, teachers and supervisors must work together to generate understandings regarding the practices of instructional supervision.

Whereas the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education expects that the prescribed school curriculum will be implemented successfully teachers and headteachers, working collaboratively, are the ones who will determine the success or failure of this implementation.

One major issue relating to the current school-based instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian secondary schools needs to be addressed: What are the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and district education officers

regarding the existing and preferred practices of supervision? The degree to which headteachers, teachers, and district education officers perceive the current state of school-based instructional supervision in secondary schools as credible will illuminate the current state of the art. Research into the current and preferred practices by headteachers, teachers, and district education officers could (a) identify ways of proper management of the relationship between headteachers, as school-based instructional supervisors, and teachers; (b) identify areas of supervisory skills needed by headteachers as school-based instructional supervisors; and (c) explore the roles played by headteachers' and teachers' beliefs, values, and attitudes towards school-based instructional supervision. Moreover, to obtain information about school-based instructional supervision, teachers have to be surveyed because they are supervised by and are closest to the headteachers, and any changes affecting the instructional supervision process have to involve teachers. Accordingly, there is a need to ascertain the views of headteachers, teachers, and district education officers regarding the current as well as the preferred practices of school-based instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools.

1.3 Main Aim of the Study

The main aim of this study is to investigate what secondary teachers perceive as effective instructional supervision and to examine the current state of school-based instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools from the perceptions of teachers, headteachers, and district education officers.

1.4 Research Questions

The following will be the major research question in the current study:

How do teachers view the practices of school-based instructional supervision in secondary schools?

The following specific questions will guide the focus of the study:

1. What are the perceptions of teachers regarding the following aspects:
 - a. the purposes of school-based instructional supervision,
 - b. the focuses of school-based instructional supervision,
 - c. the practices of school-based instructional supervision?
2. What are the perceptions of teachers regarding the following aspects:
 - a. the actual and needed skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors,
3. What are the perceptions of teachers regarding the following aspects:
 - a. the major advantages of school-based instructional supervision,
 - b. the problems and issues associated with school-based instructional supervision,
 - c. their degree of satisfaction with current school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures?

These questions were designed to generate information regarding the perceptions of teachers of school-based instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools. The responses to the questions could lead to a greater awareness of the current state of school-based instructional supervision in the schools.

The purposes, focuses, and practices of instructional supervision as identified by Oliva and Pawlas (2001), Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2001), Beach and Reinhartz (2000), and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002)

served as the framework for the examination of instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools.

1.5 Assumptions

The following were the major assumptions underlying the study:

1. Secondary school headteachers have views about desirable instructional supervision practices that can be identified through interviews.
2. School-based instructional supervision is important for secondary schools, pupils, teachers, and the Ministry of Education.
3. The information provided by headteachers and teachers accurately reflects their views, thoughts, and feelings about school-based instructional supervision practices.
4. Instructional supervision programs will be most effective when supervisory practices and procedures are understood by all the major stakeholders in the schools: pupils, teachers, headteachers, and support staff.
5. Headteachers and teachers are qualified to give views about school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools.
6. High-quality instructional supervision leads to improvement in teacher performance and student learning.
7. School-based instructional supervision is a very important strategy for improving instructional performance of school teachers; consequently, it increases their productivity as professionals.

These assumptions provided me with lenses for addressing fundamental questions relating to the instructional supervision process and its implications for practicing teachers and headteachers. Furthermore, the

assumptions directed my approaches to investigating the practices of instructional supervision and in understanding teachers' and headteachers' beliefs and conceptions about supervision practices and procedures and their connections to professional development of these two groups of professionals. Darling-Hammond (1990), Darling-Hammond and Sclan (1992), and Richardson (1996) observed that teaching has to do, in part, with the formation of beliefs and that views regarding supervision depend on beliefs about teaching. For example, when teaching is viewed as a profession, supervision places more emphasis on teacher preparation and ongoing opportunities for learning, on self-evaluation of teaching, and on goals and the context of instruction and student needs (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1992). On the other hand, a bureaucratic conception of teaching emphasises compliance with predetermined standards to which teachers must measure up and involves monitoring the work of teachers to ensure continued compliance with prescriptions and expectations (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002).

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

Instructional supervision: “An artistic, democratic, humanistic, and inclusive, leadership process, which aims to evaluate and improve the educational process from all its aspects” (Ministry of Education, 1999 p.3).

School-based instructional supervision: Supervision conducted by school-based supervisors, such as headteachers, who are based within the institution in which supervision is taking place. It may be for either formative or summative purposes.

Supervisory practices: Practices employed by instructional supervisors as they work with teachers; they include, for example, observing

classroom teaching, holding conferences with teachers, and analysing students' opinions about teachers.

Staff development: The provision of appropriate opportunities for the staff to develop their professional practices, beliefs, and understandings to improve their performance.

Formative evaluation: The process in which a supervisor observes a teacher's classroom performance for the purpose of helping the teacher improve instruction without the necessity of making personnel decisions (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

Summative evaluation: Administrative assessments of a teacher's performance based on data obtained from both within and without the classroom for purposes of making personnel decisions concerning, for example, contract renewal, tenure, merit pay, teaching assignments, and placement on a career ladder (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) have suggested that (a) there should be a clear, formal, described distinction between supervision for formative evaluation and supervision for summative evaluation; (b) where possible, separate personnel should perform the two types of evaluations; (c) where the separation between summative and formative evaluations is not possible, teachers should know beforehand the differences among the various processes and which one is being used at a particular time; and (d) failing to isolate summative and formative evaluations may lead to a lack of trust among teachers or undermine their credibility.

Principal: In this study the terms *principal*, *headteacher*, *headmaster*, and *headmistress* are used interchangeably to refer to an

individual who occupies the highest official position in the school organisation and whose responsibility, among other things, is to manage the school.

Instructional supervisor: An official of the Ministry of Education who identifies and provides feedback on strengths and weaknesses in educational institutions in general for the purposes of improving the quality of education and the achievements of pupils and providing evidence of educational standards in Saudi Arabia (Saudi Arabia, 1998).

The recruitment of instructional supervisors is the prerogative of the Teachers Service Commission and is done from among serving teachers and headteachers following advertised positions and through interviews. There are two main categories of school supervisors; namely, generalists, who include education officers charged with inspecting all the areas of the school curriculum, especially those in-charge of primary schools; and subject specialists, who have the general as well as specialist areas and who are recruited to provide advisory and consultancy services to teachers and to headteachers on teaching of the various subjects in the schools.

District Education Officers: Chief education officers responsible for managing and administering education matters in the various districts in Saudi Arabia. Their supervisory functions include (a) identifying, planning, implementing, coordinating, and developing educational standards in their respective districts; (b) giving professional advice, guidance, and interpretation of policy matters in education; (c) coordinating curricular activities; (d) inspecting and supervising secondary schools, postsecondary educational institutions, institutes of technologies, and private schools; (e) coordinating staff development matters, including promotion, welfare, and discipline of

teaching and nonteaching staff; (f) planning, coordinating, and supervising all educational institutions in the districts on term dates; (f) ensuring that various resources available to educational institutions, including land, finance, teachers, time, facilities, and equipment, are managed properly and utilised in the most cost-effective manner to effectively provide quality and relevant education; and (g) ensuring that time available to education is used wisely to enhance teaching and learning, to improve standards of education and training, and to increase opportunities for education by utilising the existing educational facilities and equipment for optimal benefits.

1.7 Limitations

The following were the limitations of the study:

1. The varying conceptions of instructional supervision may influence the quality of responses given by the teachers and headteachers.
2. The study is limited to the extent that perceptions of teachers, headteachers, and district education officers are reflective of current and preferred school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures.
3. The study is limited with respect to the instruments used to obtain the necessary data, which include questionnaires (see Appendixes A and B) and interviews (see Appendix D). With mailed questionnaires, direct control over the responses is uncontrollable; the possibility that respondents may provide answers they believe the researcher desires cannot be ruled out. I believe the explanation provided to the participants in the introductory letters about the purpose and nature of the study would alleviate this potential problem.

Because the participants involved in the interviews were volunteers, characterised by their enthusiasm for improving practices of school-based instructional supervision, their responses may have been influenced by their very nature and dedication toward the study. Further to this, draft interview protocols for (a) teachers and headteachers and (b) District Education Officers were designed by me, the researcher, the possibility that interviewees may have had difficulty expressing their thoughts and ideas outside the boundaries imposed by the questions cannot be ruled out. Overall, the limitations inherent in both questionnaires and interviews were acknowledged and recognised by the researcher.

4. The findings of this study apply to headteachers', teachers' and district education officers' perceptions of the state of instructional supervision in selected public secondary schools and may not be generalisable to other populations in the country. There may be considerable variability in the amount and type of instructional supervision that headteachers, teachers, and district education officers have experienced in different schools.
5. The conceptual framework is developed primarily from literature and research in developed countries, especially United Kingdom and the United States, which might be at odds with the supervisory orientations and beliefs of practicing teachers and school-based instructional supervisors in Saudi Arabia. However, I believe that information regarding the supervisory practices of the developed countries would provide “an extra set of eyes” for examining the Saudi Arabia situation. In any case, the increasing interdependence and sharing of knowledge and experiences would result in similarities across countries.

6. The study was confined to 23 randomly selected public secondary schools in Asir region, Saudi Arabia because of limited financial resources and the time available to me.
7. The study was limited to the perceptions of teachers, headteachers and, district education officers employed by the Ministry of Education in Asir region, Saudi Arabia.

1.8 Significance of the Study

This study contributes to research and understanding of school-based instructional supervision. The findings from this study could lead to the identification of gaps in research in school-based instructional supervision and in designing future research in this area. Educators and researchers from educational institutions may profit from such information as they attempt to identify and implement supervisory practices that are deemed more desirable in improving instruction.

The findings of the study do give a clear view of the current state of school-based instructional supervisory practices in secondary schools. This information should enable school administrators to create new instructional conditions under which headteachers and teachers can work more effectively and to identify staff development needs for school heads and teachers. In other words, this information can provide a database for the systematic development and application of schools' inventories of teachers' skills and potentials. Although the study was limited to headteachers and teachers in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools, the findings may have implications for other types of schools in Saudi Arabia. School-based instructional supervision could help institutionalise and concretise improvement efforts by providing feedback

regarding best practices. Furthermore, an analysis of practices of instructional supervision could generate information regarding needed changes for improvement. Understanding the perceptions and preferences of teachers and headteachers can help shape the supervisory process in the schools.

Skills and competencies identified in this study may be used by school heads to enable them to assist secondary school teachers in bettering their teaching and to foster in secondary school teachers a commitment to professional growth and enthusiasm for learning new instructional skills. The overall outcome would be the improvement of the standards of secondary education, the general improvement of the performance of pupils in the final examinations, and the increased number of pupils seeking further education and training or entering the job market.

The study could provide headteachers with another source of information regarding school-based instructional supervisory practices, in addition to that provided by the Ministry of Education. This information may be used by individual teachers to assist secondary school teachers in assessing how instructional resources could be used appropriately and developed for effective teaching.

The results from this study can be used to inform secondary school headteachers about the perceptions of teachers towards the process of supervision. Any differences found between the attitudes of teachers participating in different models of supervision can be used to inform administrators about the most effective model. This information can then be used to improve the teacher supervision process that currently is being implemented.

At the ministerial level, educational leaders may refer to the findings emerging from this study as an educational rationale for developing and adopting guidelines, standards, and regulations concerning effective school-based instructional supervision in secondary schools. The findings can also be used by the Ministry of Education to improve headteachers' performance in school-based instructional supervision by identifying the areas needing improvement. This improvement process may be conducted through training and professional development programs. Finally, this study is also significant in that, based on the record at the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education headquarters, Riyadh, which is responsible for granting permission to conduct research in educational and other institutions, no study of this nature has been conducted in Saudi Arabia.

1.9 Organisation of the Thesis

In chapter one an overview of the study is given. Included in this chapter is the background to the problem, the statement of the problem, the main aim of the study, research questions, assumptions of the study, definition of key terms, and limitations, and significance of the study. Chapter two presents a review of the literature and research. The major topics are the concepts of supervision and instructional supervision, the nature of instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia, the focuses of instructional supervision, instructional supervisors, and supervisory practices. Chapter three deals with the research methods and procedures. Included in this chapter are descriptions of the population for the study, the sampling design, instrumentation, data collection procedures, validity and reliability, and data analysis.

The results of data analysis will be presented in chapter four. Chapter four will provide demographic characteristics of teachers and an analysis of school-based instructional supervision. Chapter five will present the main findings of the study, conclusions, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents a review of the literature related to the study of instructional supervision. It includes literature in eight broad areas: (a) instructional leadership, (b) the supervision and evaluation paradox, (c) the nature of instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia (d) instructional supervisors, (e) supervisory practices, (f) focuses of instructional supervision, and (g) instructional supervision models. A theoretical framework for examining the practice of instructional supervision is included.

The literature reviewed is mostly from Western countries. The experience of instructional supervision in Western countries is an important source of knowledge that could yield useful insights for the improvement of the current practice of instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools. School-based instructional supervision is a relatively “virgin land” that has not been addressed in the field of educational research in Saudi Arabia.

2.1 Instructional Leadership

Instructional leadership has been discussed increasingly in teacher education literature over the years; has been a key subject in many professional development conferences, workshops, and seminars; and has received a great deal of attention and interest among school administrators (Sullivan & McCabe, 1988). The major reason for the increased interest in instructional leadership, as Sullivan and McCabe noted, relates to its central role in determining effective educational programs. Furthermore, the literature regarding effective schools (e.g., Andrews, Basom, & Basom, 1991; Andrews & Soder, 1987; Andrews, Soder, & Jacoby, 1986; Wiles & Bondi, 2000) has

consistently indicated that most effective schools are characterised by, among other things, strong instructional leadership.

A review of the literature indicates varying definitions of the term *instructional leadership*. For example, Smith and Andrews (1989) defined instructional leadership as a blend of several tasks, such as supervision of classroom instruction, staff development, and curriculum development. To Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), instructional leadership focuses on teaching and learning by emphasising the subject matter content, the principles of learning, and the teaching process. Wanzare and da Costa (2001), in synthesising the works of Acheson (1985), Greenfield (1985), De Bevoise (1984, and Keefe and Jenkins (1984), regarded instructional leadership as (a) being directly related to the instructional process whereby teachers, learners, and the curriculum interact; (b) including those activities that the school headteacher undertakes to develop productive and satisfying working environment for teachers and desirable learning conditions and outcomes for students; (c) encompassing those actions that a school headteacher undertakes or delegates to others to facilitate student learning; and (d) including the headteacher's role in providing direction, resources, and support to improve teaching and learning in the school.

Although there are various definitions for instructional leadership, Blase and Blase (2004) support Glickman et al.'s (2001) definition as being most comprehensive. Glickman et al. (2001) observe that prerequisites for successful supervision in schools include a “knowledge base, interpersonal skills and technical skills” (p. 12). Among the knowledge base that administrators must possess is an understanding of adult learning and teacher development. Such

understanding will help administrators take multiple viewpoints into perspective when making a decision (Glickman et al., 2001). Glickman et al.'s (2001) views regarding instructional leadership are that:

For those in supervisory roles, the challenge to improving student learning is to apply certain knowledge, interpersonal skills, and technical skills to the tasks of direct assistance, group development, curriculum development, professional development, and action research that will enable teachers to teach in a collective, purposeful manner uniting organisational goals and teacher needs (p. 11).

Furthermore, Sheppard (1996), in presenting an operational definition of instructional leadership, distinguished between broad and narrow views of instructional leadership. In the narrow view, he argued, instructional leadership refers to those actions that are directly related to teaching and learning and includes observable behaviours, such as classroom supervision. Used in this sense, instructional leadership is viewed as a separate entity from administration. In the broad view, instructional leadership entails all leadership activities that affect student learning. Such activities may include the instructional leader's involvement in routine managerial behaviours as well as in other organisational and teacher culture issues. The distinction between broad and narrow forms of instructional leadership implies that it is possible to differentiate between "direct" and "indirect" instructional leadership behaviours of the instructional leader (Murphy, 1990; Kleine-Kracht, 1993).

In addition, Begley (1995) described instructional leadership as the "clear articulation of educational philosophy, extensive knowledge about effective educational practices and a clear understanding of the policy of schooling and practices" (p. 407).

Therefore, instructional leadership includes the headteacher's myriads of routine job tasks and responsibilities, such as monitoring teaching and learning, facilitating exchange of interaction with teachers and students, facilitating staff development of teachers, and ensuring conducive teaching and learning environment. It could also include the headteacher's functions, such as (a) observing classroom teaching, (b) evaluating teacher performance, (c) helping teachers to identify instructional weaknesses for improvement, and (d) encouraging teachers to focus on student learning.

However, most writers were of the view that there is no single definition of instructional leadership or specific guidelines or direction as to what an instructional supervisor does (Flash, 1989). As Chell (1995) noted, the majority of writers in the area create their own definitions of what this concept entails, and, as a result, meanings vary considerably among practitioners and researchers. Furthermore, there is some controversy regarding the circumstances in which instructional leadership would be appropriate. For example, Sheppard (1996), in crediting the works of Glickman (1991) and Sergiovanni (1991), observed that headteachers of successful schools are not instructional leaders, but coordinators of teachers as instructional leaders and that instructional leadership is not appropriate in circumstances in which teachers are committed, well-trained, and competent.

The components of instructional leadership include: direct assistance to teachers, action research, curriculum assistance, group development, and professional development. Glickman et al. (2001) describe direct assistance to teachers, as a "crucial element of a successful school" (p. 31). Types of direct assistance include clinical supervision and on-going observations. Action

research places the school at the centre of inquiry. It involves key players such as teachers and administrators in joint decision making on issues of instruction. Curriculum development examines curriculum from the viewpoint of the teacher and its relevance in the classroom. It involves the teacher in the development of curriculum, heeding Glickman et al.'s (2001) advice that "Teachers will implement curriculum successfully if they have been involved in its development and can adapt it to their classrooms" (p. 414).

Blase and Blase (2004) and Southworth (2002) view tasks such as conferencing and talking with teachers, promoting teachers' professional growth, and fostering teacher reflection as forms of instructional leadership. Five strategies are often used when working with teachers: making suggestions, feedback, modelling, inquiry and soliciting advice and opinions (Blase & Blase, 2004; Southworth, 2002). Conferencing with teachers requires such skills as knowing how to make the conference reflective and non-threatening, and being able to take into account the myriad factors of teaching methods, skills, stages of development, career state, and teacher background when conferencing with a teacher. Instructional leadership requires high levels of professional knowledge and understanding of pedagogy, student learning and adult interaction. Supervisors must take responsibility for the tasks of instructional leadership if they desire to see growth in effectiveness and improved instruction.

The following section reviews the literature regarding strategies for facilitating instructional leadership.

Fostering Instructional Leadership

Because the headteacher's instructional leadership role is critical to developing and maintaining an effective school, to influencing teachers'

instructional performance, and to attaining the highest academic achievement of students, efforts must be made to foster this type of leadership. A review of the literature and research suggests the following major strategies to facilitate instructional leadership in the schools (Daresh, 2001; Dimmock & Walker, 2005; Gray, & Streshly, 2008; Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2006; Sigford, 2006):

1. Introducing courses regarding the management of curriculum and instruction in pre-service training programs to provide a foundation for developing aspiring headteachers with the knowledge to manage curriculum and instruction successfully;

2. Limiting the headteacher's role to the primary functions of instructional and curricular supervision, program and professional development, and public relations;

3. Encouraging headteachers to teach some classes;

4. Enhancing headteachership by (a) treating the position with high esteem, (b) offering attractive salaries, and (c) facilitating an understanding about the complexities of the roles;

5. Developing and supporting professional development programs for teachers, headteachers, and vice-headteachers;

6. Providing adequate time for instructional leadership; and

7. Making instructional supervision part of an overall and effective leadership practice.

A major component of instructional leadership relates to supervision. This is examined in the following section.

2.2 The Supervision and Evaluation Paradox

A survey of the literature reveals many definitions of supervision that bear some element of uniqueness in focus and purpose. For example, Kosmoski (1997) defined supervision as “that leadership process whose ultimate purpose is to improve instruction, and thereby facilitate and promote successful student learning” (p. 14). Similarly, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) defined supervision as a means of offering teachers specialised help in improving teaching and learning. Furthermore, according to Krey and Burke (1989), “Supervision is instructional leadership that relates perspectives to behaviour, clarifies purpose, contributes and supports organisational actions, coordinates interactions, provides for maintenance and improvement of instructional program, and assesses goal improvement” (p. 22).

The main purpose of supervision is the improvement of instruction by engaging teachers in instructional dialogue and by fostering professional growth of teachers. As Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) noted, “the overreaching purpose of supervision is to help teachers improve. The focus of this improvement may be what the teacher knows, the development of teaching skills, the teacher’s ability to make more informed professional decisions to problem-solve better, and to inquire into his or her own practice” (p. 205).

The purpose of supervising and evaluating teachers has not always been the same. Tracy (1995) describes the specific phases that have characterised supervision and evaluation including: community accountability, professionalisation, scientific, human relations, and human development. Teachers have been rated on a variety of aspects ranging from personal grooming and personality characteristics, to instructional strategies and

methods, class management, and record keeping (Tracy, 1995). The purpose of this type of evaluation was to prove rather than improve. Checklists and ratings “proved” teachers were meeting (or not meeting) a particular standard with little or no regard to teacher growth or improvement (Tracy, 1995). Past criticisms of instructional supervision and evaluation methods include relevance to instruction, fairness, qualifications of the evaluator, and a focus on inspection and control instead of growth and improvement (Tracy, 1995). Ribas (2000) characterises the purpose of supervision as “educational improvement”, elaborating that “evaluation systems are typically designed to improve student achievement and teachers’ professional performance and fulfilment” (p. 86). Kauchak, Peterson, & Driscoll (1985), classify supervision as a critical strand of leadership, stating that there are four dimensions to supervision: (1) a leader must know his beliefs about supervision; (2) a leader must help followers know themselves; (3) a leader must help followers know the task; and (4) a leader must help followers know the situation. Within teacher supervision, Sergiovanni (1995) believes that evaluation plays a major role, defining evaluation as a process which should describe and highlight the teaching and learning that happens each day in the classroom, not a process which focuses on how teachers measure up to the standards.

A major aspect of supervision in teacher education relates to evaluation. As noted by Sergiovanni (2001), “When the focus of supervision is on teaching and learning, evaluation is an unavoidable aspect of the process.... Evaluation is, and will remain, a part of supervision, and this really cannot be ignored” (p. 255). The following section examines different conceptions and functions of evaluation.

Evaluation

The terms *supervision* and *evaluation* are sometimes used interchangeably both in the literature and by practitioners. However, supervision and evaluation are quite distinct from one another. According to Embretson, Ferber, and Langager (1984), supervision is a developmental process that promotes continuing growth and development of staff members in teaching and in staff motivation, and evaluation is a management function designed to maintain organisational effectiveness, establish standards for, and appraise staff performance. To Sergiovanni (2001), evaluation is a process of determining the extent to which teachers measure up to preexisting standards, which may include a program, a goal, teaching intent, a list of “desirable” teaching competencies, or performance criteria. And Gullatt and Ballard (1998) described evaluation as “a function of leadership concerned with improving, enhancing, and reinforcing classroom effectiveness” (p. 15).

Despite the different conceptions of evaluation, several writers seemed to agree on the following definitions: (a) a process of collecting and using information to determine the worth—goodness or badness—of something (Daresh & Playko, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1990); (b) “the reflective process of gathering data through formal and informal means and then making decisions for action” (Drake & Roe, 1999, p. 280); (c) a means of making teachers aware of their practices, challenging them to think about their practices, and encouraging them to analyse and evaluate their practices and implement changes as needed (Gullatt & Ballard, 1998); (d) a way of showing concern for students, faculty, staff, and community (Drake & Roe, 1999); and

(e) a diagnostic role in which teachers seek assistance from inspectors and evaluators in determining his or her performance (Alkhateeb et al,1998).

Therefore, evaluation in the context of teaching is a measure of teacher competence based on data collected formally or informally that may be conducted for several reasons. On the other hand, supervision is a process of working with teachers to help them to maintain and to improve the teaching and learning in the school.

Functions of Evaluation

Review of the literature indicates two competing objectives for evaluation— summative and formative—based on their functions (Harris & Ovando, 1992; Mo, Conners, & McCormick, 1998).

Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation or developmental evaluation (Reynolds & Martin-Reynolds, 1988) helps teachers to diagnose and to solve instructional problems for purposes of making improvements and to further their professional development (Acheson & Smith (1986). Also, as Alkhateeb et al. (1998) explained, “Formative evaluation or supervision is concerned with feedback for the purpose of improvement” (p. 11).

Formative evaluation plays an important role in the promotion of professional growth of teachers (Ovando, & Harris, 1993). Toward this end, according to the National Centre for Education Statistics (1994), formative evaluation serves four main purposes: (a) to guide improvement of teaching skills, (b) to recognise and to reinforce teaching excellence, (c) to help teachers focus on student outcomes, and (d) to plan in-service education activities.

In formative evaluation, information is collected and used to understand, to correct, and to increase the effectiveness of ongoing activity. However, with

respect to teaching, formative evaluation is less concerned with judging and rating teachers than with providing information that helps teachers learn more about their disciplines, about how students learn, and about teaching (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Greene (1992) noted that for teachers to change their teaching practices through formative evaluation, they must believe in the process of change and that educational change depends on what teachers do and think.

Linking Teacher Evaluation with Professional Development

Teacher evaluation should be linked to staff development (Iwanicki & Rindone, 1995). As Goldsberry (1997) noted, teacher evaluation “must be done for the kind of progressive professional development we want for our teachers” (p. 53). On this point, the New South Wales Department of School Education (1995) suggested that teacher appraisal should support and recognise individual achievement, provide directions for teacher development, and bring with it the opportunity for teachers to develop new skills or at least the ability to use existing skills in new situations; and the outcomes of appraisal should inform further teacher development, which may take a variety of forms including access to on-the-job and off-the-job learning, formal education, team teaching, networking, research, the writing of journal articles, and the preparation of case studies from action research.

Summative Evaluation

According to Beach and Reinhartz (2000), this type of evaluation serves the purpose of making decisions or judgments about the quality of teachers’ overall instructional performance. Based on the works of Harris and Ovando (1992), who cited Ovando and McCleary (1991), Raths and Preskill (1982), Duke (1995), and Gullatt and Ballard (1998), summative evaluation involves

judgments and actions relating to the following employment concerns: (a) retaining, promoting, and dismissing teachers; (b) validating the selection process; (c) granting teachers with merit pay; (d) giving administrators greater control over teachers job performance; (e) placing teachers on probation or remediation; and (f) certificating and transferring teachers.

However, Glickman et al. (2001), in synthesising the works of McGral (1982) and Stiggins and Bridgeford (1984), argued that, although summative evaluation is necessary for employment decisions, it does not lead to instructional improvement for most teachers, and that summative evaluation can actually discourage instructional improvement by promoting negative feelings about evaluation that, in turn, can lead to a lack of participation and a reduced willingness on the part of teachers to alter classroom behaviours.

Separating Summative and Formative Evaluation

Both summative and formative evaluations have received much attention in the literature as the teaching profession considers evaluation an integral part of staff development and the administration looks to evaluation data as evidence in accountability debates (Barrett, 1986). However, a search of the literature reveals conflicting views regarding the separation of summative and formative evaluations as distinct categories of evaluation. For example, Podolsky (1984) and Airasian (1993) argued that, because evaluation forms a continuum from being purely summative to being formative, and because the functions of the two types of evaluations are complementary, each containing aspects of the other, summative and formative evaluations cannot be separated into two distinct categories of evaluation.

Several writers (e.g., Acheson & Gall, 2003; Cangelosi, 1991; Daresh & Playko, 1995; Glickman et al, 2001; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Popham, 1988) advocated the separation of summative and formative evaluations of teachers because they serve two separate purposes and, consequently, must be performed by different evaluators. As Daresh and Playko put it, “Supervisors should strive to separate formative and summative evaluation as completely as possible, even to the extent of involving different people at each stage” (p. 292). Acheson and Gall, Glickman et al., and Popham proposed that, where possible, summative evaluation should be assigned to school administrators, such as headteachers, and formative evaluation to capable teacher colleagues. Another way of separating summative and formative evaluation, as suggested by Glickman et al., is to perform the two evaluations at different periods during the school year (e.g., summative evaluation in the fall and formative evaluation during the remainder of the year).

However, when such separation is impossible, teachers should be enlightened about the differences among the processes and which one is being used at that time (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Leaving such distinctions fuzzy and indefinite, Sergiovanni and Starratt argued, creates widespread lack of trust among teachers and undermines the formative potential of formative evaluation. Data gathered by formative evaluation must never be shared with summative evaluators unless the teacher being evaluated agrees to this sharing (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Popham, 1988).

2.3 The Nature of Instructional Supervision in Saudi Arabia

The history of instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia, as in many other countries, has been shaped and influenced by the social and intellectual

developments in society. The nature of Saudi supervision has evolved from being one of inspection to being one of supervision, and more recently has evolved into a system of guidance. Each new stage of supervision was given a new title to reflect its purpose or content. Understanding these titles and their content should provide an understanding of the social and intellectual factors that have influenced the theories and practices of Saudi Arabia's system of teacher supervision.

According to the Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia has gone through seven phases (see Figure 2.1): (1) Inspection in the General Directorate of Education, (2) Inspection in the Ministry of Education, (3) Technical Inspection, (4) Educational Direction, (5) Organising and Developing Educational Direction, (6) General Department of Educational Direction, and (7) Instructional supervision. I have placed these stages of supervisory development in the education system into three broad categories: inspection, direction, and instructional supervision.

The Ministry of Education categorised the initial three stages of supervision from 1925 to 1968 under Inspection (Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999). During these three stages of supervision, the inspector verified the teachers' implementation of the Ministry of Education's regulations and rules. This inspection system was largely based on following up on teachers' errors and conducting unexpected visits to their classes.

From 1968 to 1997, there were three stages, which I have classified under Direction. According to the Supervisor's Guidebook (1998), direction was a

technical, organised process used by leaders who had comprehensive educational experience. It was designed to help teachers and to enable them to use opportunities for professional, cultural, and behavioural development, which ultimately was expected to raise the level of education.

Figure 2.1: Stages in the Development of instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia

<i>Supervision Categories</i>	<i>Stage</i>
Inspection 1925-1968	Inspection in the General Directorate of Education 1925-1956
	Inspection in the Ministry of Education 1956-1964
	Technical Inspection 1964-1968
Direction 1968-1997	Educational Direction 1968-1976
	Organising and Developing Educational Direction 1976-1981
	General Department of Educational Direction 1981-1997
Instructional Supervision 1997-present	Instructional supervision 1997-present

The disadvantage of the direction system was that what the director knew, was unknown to the teacher. This system was based on a model of superiority that limited the teacher's activity and reduced his creativity; it also focused on the teacher, ignoring the other participants in the educational process.

Since 1997, supervision has developed into another stage, known as Instructional Supervision. The Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the

kingdom of Saudi Arabia (1999) defines contemporary supervision as “a technical process performed by specialist educators with the intention of improving education processes by previewing teachers’ activities within the available means and potentialities as well as helping them to improve their performance in order to interact more effectively with their students” (p. 523). A more specific discussion of these three stages of supervisory development follows.

Inspection (1925-1968)

1. Inspection in the General Directorate of Education (1925-1956). In 1925, instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia began with the General Directorate, which was established as the government sector responsible for education. Instructional supervision was then known as the “inspection system,” under which a number of people would follow up on what was happening in the schools. There was no administrative division for supervisors until an inspection system developed and formed the Board of Inspecting Lessons and Teaching in the Holy Mosque in Mecca in 1928, pursuant to a Royal Decree. This new board was made a division of the Directorate of Education. The Inspection Board included the first inspector as head.

Due to the limited number of inspectors in the system at that time, the Inspection Board assigned the inspector’s tasks to the headteachers of the elementary schools, who would visit classrooms to observe the work being done by teachers and students, review school records and students’ workbooks, and give advice to the teachers after class. The school headteacher was requested to provide an annual report to the Education Directorate on the

progress of study, also containing his proposals, as well as a performance report on each teacher and their students (Al-Hajadi, 1982).

Because there were a limited number of inspectors, the Education Directorate asked some non-government educators to give assistance and perform inspections in the schools. Also, the Directorate of Education received help from other Arab countries, such as Egypt, which provided inspectors to work in the Education Directorate to compensate for the insufficient number of Saudi inspectors.

Previously, the inspector simultaneously inspected schools both technically and administratively. His comments were verbal at the beginning. Later, they were logged in a special written report. The Education Directorate provided the inspector with a plan by describing the details of the inspection and the schools that he would visit.

That inspection system continued until the Education Directorate was changed to the Ministry of Education in 1954 and King Fahad was appointed the first Minister of Education. At that time, new public schools were opened in various parts of the Kingdom, and interest in education increased. A new phase of education started when this new stage of inspection was initiated (Al-Qurashi, 1994).

2. Inspection in the Ministry of Education (1956-1964). In 1956, the Ministry of Education added a new inspection position, which it called the “division inspector.” Since there were not enough inspectors in Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Education appointed 10 inspectors from several Arab countries, especially from Egypt, because of their experience as division inspectors (Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia,

1999). These division inspectors visited elementary school teachers three times during each school year.

According to The Supervisor's Guidebook (1998), in 1957, after three years of change, the Ministry of Education realised that it would be beneficial to separate technical and administrative inspections. The technical inspectors would be responsible for guiding and instructing teachers in the best methods of education and for solving educational problems, while the administrative inspectors would be involved in the administrative work in the schools, including administrative offenses and disciplinary problems.

After this change, the Ministry of Education recognised the need to identify the division inspector's tasks, and in 1960, identified these tasks as follows:

1. To evaluate teachers of different subjects separately.
2. To follow up on administrative work in the schools.
3. To check study level of each stage and propose means of raising such levels.
4. To hold periodic meetings with the principals of nearby schools in order to study common problems of education and recommend solutions.
5. To contact the Education Director and notify him about problems that required his participation to solve.
6. To offer practical models of teaching and organising schools (p. 528).

When the division inspector experiment proved a success, the Ministry wished to give Saudi nationals the chance to hold leading positions in the field of education. Therefore, it created "assistant division inspectors" and appointed Saudi graduates to these positions; they could become division inspectors after they gained the required experience. In 1964, the ministry of education

generalised the position of division inspector to all educational districts in Saudi Arabia.

With the spread of post elementary education, the ministry of education in 1957 appointed “subject inspectors” to the middle and secondary schools and identified their tasks as follows:

1. To preview the results of examinations at different stages and record the same in reports.
2. To investigate the causes of students’ absences from school and to discuss means of prevention.
3. To inspect the attendance of teachers and record names of absent teachers.
4. To record schools’ needs in terms of books, tools, maps, teaching aids, equipment, and furniture.
5. To discuss causes of weakness in students.
6. To follow up on school activities (The Supervisor’s Guidebook, 1998).

To organise the division inspectors’ work and to find competent authorities on any issues related to inspection, the Ministry of Education had established a section called General Inspection by the end of the 1959 school year. The tasks of the general inspector were to visit school districts to oversee the work performed by the division inspectors, to visit schools to observe the results of the inspections and carry out the instructions issued by the Ministry of Education, and to investigate the technical and administrative needs of the area and report on them (Al-Utaibi, 1998).

3. Technical Inspection (1964-1968). Beginning in 1964, the inspection process developed further, and the Ministry of Education changed its approach

from General Inspection to Technical Inspection to supervise the inspectors' work. These four sections, which specialised in broad areas of study, were established: Arabic language; English language; social studies (e.g., geography, history), and mathematics and sciences (The Supervisor's Guidebook, 1998).

At the end of 1964, the Ministry of Education established "inspectorate offices" in all of the educational districts of Saudi Arabia. The tasks of these offices were to fairly distribute schools of the area among the inspectors, review the inspectors' reports, and solve any educational problems that they encountered.

Direction (1968-1997)

1. Educational Direction (1968-1976). Many studies conducted by the Ministry of Education indicated a cool attitude between inspectors and teachers (Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999). Therefore, in 1968, the Ministry of Education issued a mandate that would be very important in the history of supervision in Saudi Arabia. This mandate included the following four significant functions of the supervisor:

1. Changing the title of the inspector to "director."
2. Strengthening the relationships between director and teachers; focusing on the human aspects and the public interest.
3. Providing administrative and technical advice to the departments of the schools that the director visits.
4. Critiquing curricula and textbooks. (Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999)

Nevertheless, in 1974, the Ministry of Education observed that the directors' tasks had been converted to routine processes, that their visits were

still something like inspections, and that the time that the directors spent in the schools was insufficient for determining the areas in which the teacher needed their expertise and assistance.

There was also insufficient engagement of the central technical bodies within the Ministry in studying reports and the responses to those reports, as well as insufficient time for the development of the educational experience (The Supervisor's Guidebook, 1998).

The Ministry of Education was aware of the necessity of removing the negative element from the work of direction and was determined to continue developing its policy in an educational direction. Therefore, in 1974, it mandated that the tours of educational directors working in the Ministry and in the educational regions stop; that the director's visits to the schools be carried out by invitation from the school or according to the district's or the Ministry's desire to recognise the educational or pedagogical needs of the school; that the headteacher should direct and evaluate the teachers in his school; and that seminars for teachers on various topics should be developed to replace the directive tours.

It should be noted that the ministry did not intend with this mandate to cancel technical direction completely or to exclude the schools from supervision entirely. Instead, the Ministry intended to convert routine visits into a mutual educational experience between directors and school staff, to encourage innovation and problem solving, to provide time for review, research, and study, and to have supervisors visit schools per their request, thus eliminating the sudden and surprise inspections of teachers from the schools.

2. Organising and Developing Educational Direction (1976-1981). The decision to stop the visits of educational directors working in the Ministry and in the educational regions was an offhand decision, however, as the school headteachers were not prepared to take on the director's role. So in 1976, the Ministry of Education re-instituted the previous system of drop-in visits (Encyclopedia of Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999).

The Encyclopedia reports that educational direction became more organised in 1976. The Saudi regions were classified into four main districts, and the Ministry identified the main characteristics and qualifications of a director. The new minimum credentials required a bachelor's degree and sufficient experience in education to develop the ability to evaluate and demonstrate creative skills (Encyclopedia of Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999).

3. General Department of Educational Direction (1981-1997). By 1981, educational direction had entered a new phase as a result of various educational experiences. The Ministry of Education decided to establish a General Department of Educational Direction, into which the Educational Training Department was integrated. This integration was due to the realisation that there was a close link between direction and training and with the belief in the necessity of continuous training of teachers. This department reports to the Assistant Deputy Minister of Teacher Affairs. The educational directors belonged to this new department (Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999).

At this stage, several decisions were made as a result of trying to improve the direction process. The educational directors in all districts began to use a

teacher technical evaluation form that contained all the factors that the directors had to consider when evaluating teachers and that had to be submitted prior to the end of the school year to the Department of Educational Direction in the Ministry. Educational Direction determines the most important tasks of educational directors, such as making field visits, holding meetings, conducting educational studies, and transferring expertise among teachers. Educational directors were also requested to submit a report by the end of each semester (The Supervisor's Guidebook, 1998).

The General Department of Educational Direction was also charged with directing private schools and illiteracy elimination (remedial) schools, Saudi international schools, and institutes for the disabled.

In 1986, centers of educational direction were established in each district to follow up the progress of education in each district and to evaluate it. The educational directors in each district were assigned to Educational Direction Centers so that they could take care of the affairs of their schools and refer problems to the directors who remained in the district to follow up the directors in centers and to do educational research to solve the unexpected educational problems (The Supervisor's Guidebook, 1998).

In 1987, the General Department of Educational Direction conducted a survey to investigate the directors' perceptions of educational direction. The results indicated a lack of quantity and quality of the directors' school visits. The study recommended that the period in which a teacher could become a competent director ranged from six to 10 years. This survey produced some recommendations in connection with training courses, preparing specialist research, and avoiding assigning work to the director outside of his specialty.

Also, the survey recommended that the annual allowable salary of the teacher should be dependent on the evaluation of his performance (Al-Utaibi, 1998).

Instructional Supervision (1997-present)

The Supervisor's Guidebook (1998) reports that, in 1995, the transition to Instructional supervision was a remarkable event in instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia. The Ministry's General Directorate for Educational Direction and Training was renamed the General Department of Instructional Supervision and Training.

The change to instructional supervision was a response to research conducted by the Ministry of Education that revealed the negative aspects of direction represented by the teachers' feelings about the directors' instructions, as well as to the fact that some directional practices prevented teachers from being creative and ignored other participants and components in the educational process, such as students, curriculum, teaching aides, facilities, and environment (Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999). The Ministry of Education aimed at developing instructional supervision in terms of its modern concept of improving the educational process in all its aspects as an organised, technical process designed to be performed in a series of interactions between the participants in the educational process (Abdulkareem, 2001).

Two years after establishing the General Department of Instructional Supervision and Training, the Ministry of Education separated instructional supervision and training. The Ministry attributed the purpose of this separation to the importance of teacher training and explained that it wished to reduce the pressure of work on the supervisors.

Instructional supervision continues to operate today in each district with 17 units: (1) Islamic studies, (2) Arabic language, (3) social studies, (4) sciences, (5) mathematics, (6) English language, (7) drawing, (8) physical education, (9) school administration, (10) administrative sciences and computers, (11) case division, (12) school libraries, (13) primary classes unit, (14) instructional supervision centers unit, (15) civics unit, (16) educational information unit, and (17) measurement and evaluation unit. These units cooperate with the instructional supervision heads in the districts and provinces in planning the visits of supervisors to the schools, in providing them with what they need to carry out their instructional supervision, and in searching for solutions to problems that impede the progress of education (The Supervisor's Guidebook, 1998).

The General Department of Instructional Supervision, located in the Ministry of Education, became responsible for tasks such as (1) determining the districts' need for educational supervisors, (2) participating in personal interviews with candidates to be employed in teaching or instructional supervision, (3) preparing examinations for all grades as required, (4) studying reports on the job performance of educational supervisors in the districts, (5) preparing training programs for teachers and educational supervisors, (6) participating in field studies and research and spreading successful experiences, (7) holding educational seminars and meetings with teachers and educational supervisors, (8) preparing educational bulletins and distributing them to teachers and educational supervisors, (9) providing educational supervisors in the districts with new ideas and methods related to the performance of teachers and their methods of teaching, (10) participating with technical committees in

surveying the curriculum and the results of examinations, (11) serving on committees and conferences inside and outside of the Kingdom, (12) making supervision visits during the school year to district schools to preview the performance of school supervisors in these districts, (13) following up on training programs for teachers and educational supervisors and evaluating them, (14) preparing periodic reports on the activities and achievements of the division and submitting the same to the General Director, (15) organising the papers and files of the division, and (16) performing any other tasks that might be assigned by any department in the Ministry in the field of specialisation (Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999).

The Ministry of Education also identified the tasks of school supervisors in the districts as (1) visiting teachers in the schools and helping those who need it, (2) interchanging experiences among teachers, (3) following up with the headteacher in terms of distributing class schedules to teachers equally, organising records, and verifying the accuracy of student examinations, (4) preparing educational bulletins and distributing them to teachers, (5) evaluating the curriculum, and (6) any other tasks that might be assigned by the General Department of Instructional Supervision or the district to which the supervisor belongs. Trying to change where the supervision occurred, the General Department of Instructional Supervision applied what was called the Mechanism of Instructional supervision, which fulfilled the teacher's need to participate in self-evaluation and in development of the education process within two tracks. The first track aimed to qualify the teacher in terms of his

personality and skills. The second track depended on mutual understanding between the teacher, the headteacher, and the supervisor (Al-Hammad, 2000).

The General Department of Instructional Supervision outlined the steps for implementing the Mechanism of Instructional supervision as follows:

1. To determine the quota of each supervisor for teachers and schools.
2. To divide and distribute schools and teachers into four groups as per geographical status. Four teachers should be selected as representatives for each group to be links for their groups (teachers in each group) on issues of preparation, implementation, and evaluation. A meeting shall be held with the supervisor of each representative group separately one week prior to resuming school. The agenda of this meeting shall include the following:
 - a) Studying the status of the subject, appropriate methods of teaching it, and teaching aids that may be used.
 - b) The supervisor and the representative group will specify the date of the following monthly meeting and agree on its agenda, which will include the following: each teacher's report on his work for the first month, as well as lesson preparation book, models of students' workbooks.
3. The supervisor visits teachers by accompanying other teachers so as to have an idea about the performance of his colleague and to participate in the evaluation of the case.
4. Four education workshops and four model lessons should be held each semester, two of which will be dedicated to inexperienced teachers.
5. One monthly meeting shall be held by only supervisors in every education department, for the purpose of discussing educational issues or field problems in a form of study prepared by many supervisors according to a scientific method that will depend on field studies.

6. School headteachers should be provided with names of supervisors for each subject. Headteachers should provide supervisors, prior to the supervisors' monthly meeting, with a report on their visits to teachers of each subject and the results of student examinations and homework, also outlining the problems in the subject area and proposing solutions. Also, the School Guidance and Activity Section will provide supervisors with information on the students' achievement, behaviour, and activities, as well as the teachers' responsibility in these matters.

7. The supervisors for each subject shall have a meeting with the Guidance and Activity supervisors in order to exchange opinions.

The main features of the Mechanism of Instructional supervision were (1) observing status, diagnosing needs, and planning activities based on common opinion; (2) multiplying communication channels between the supervisor and the teacher, and (3) enhancing and motivating the supervisors' need to read, preview, and follow scientific methods of supervision (Encyclopedia of Education History of Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999).

In 1997, the Ministry of Education approved some important changes in supervision, based on recommendations by the heads of instructional supervision in the districts. These changes included: (1) dedicating one supervisor to primary classes (first, second, and third grades) at the elementary level due to the importance of this level; (2) raising the competency levels of educational supervisors in many skills, through qualifying programs for inexperienced supervisors and exchange visits in nearby areas, provinces, and centers, in the big education departments, as well as (3) holding meetings between supervisors and the Ministry, and (4) coordinating with the General

Department of Training in extending measurement and evaluation programs; (5) developing training programs; (6) preparing the steps that will be necessary to activate the school headteacher's role, and (7) using the "cooperative supervisor." In this respect, supervisors will select an appropriate teacher and decrease the amount of teaching that he has to do so that he can undertake the supervision of neighboring schools and make reports to the Department of Supervision in his district, where he will submit his reports, and send a copy to the school headteacher (Encyclopedia of the Educational History of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, 1999).

Due to the supervisors' demands and the General Department of Instructional Supervision's awareness of the necessity of identifying the tasks that guide school supervisors in their work, this department in 1998 developed a detailed outline of the tasks that supervisors are responsible for in the schools. This outline of supervisory tasks was published in *The Supervisor's Guidebook* (Abdulkareem, 2001).

2.4 Instructional Supervisors

Beach and Reinhartz (2000) defined an instructional supervisor as any individual who functions in a supervisory position in the school and who has the responsibility for working with teachers to increase the quality of student learning through improved instruction, and an instructional supervisor may include the headteacher, assistant headteacher, specialist consultant, and curriculum director. According to Deborah (1990), an instructional supervisor refers to an individual charged with the primary responsibility of providing leadership to teachers for the improvement of instruction. And Oliva and Pawlas (2001) concluded that, "ideally, supervisors provide help to all teachers, experienced and inexperienced, effective and ineffective. In reality,

though, they will need to spend more time with the inexperienced and ineffective” (p. 47). Therefore, an instructional supervisor is an individual who works with teachers closely to facilitate their instructional performance with the object of improving student academic achievement.

The literature suggested that school headteachers are the chief instructional leaders of their schools (e.g., Glickman et al., 2001; Sergiovanni, 1995). The ideal of the headteacher as an instructional leader has also been voiced in the works of other writers (e.g., Kasim, 1995; Koger, 1987; Magnus-Brown, 1988; McEwan, 2001; Patterson, 1990; Ustin, 1990). Other individuals who may serve as instructional supervisors besides the school headteachers include assistant headteachers, instructional lead teachers, departmental heads, and master teachers (Glickman et al., 2001; Patterson, 1990). Glickman et al. noted that schools vary with respect to who carries out supervisory responsibilities; that, whereas some schools assign responsibilities to departmental heads, assistant headteachers, guidance counselors, and lead teachers, in other schools the headteacher is responsible for supervision. The following section examines the headteacher’s role as an instructional leader.

The Headteacher as an Instructional Leader

The school headteacher has been traditionally viewed as the instructional leader whose leadership role is central to establishing and maintaining an effective school. According to Foriska (1994) and Worner and Brown (1993), the headteacher’s instructional leadership is, undoubtedly, the single most important responsibility assigned to the headteacher and is critical to the development and maintenance of an effective school. What is the role of a headteacher as an instructional leader? As a review of the literature and

research indicated, the school headteacher is involved in numerous instructional leadership roles:

1. Managing curriculum and instruction (Krug, 1993; Sheppard, 1996; Weber, 1991) by providing information and direction to teachers regarding instructional methods; by being involved in curriculum development; and by protecting instructional time;

2. Supervising and evaluating teachers (Chell, 1995; Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Heck et al., 1990; Krug, 1993; Murphy, 1990 ; Sheppard, 1996; Terry, 1996; Wildy & Dimmock, 1993; Wiles & Bondi, 2000; Williams, 2000) by (a) guiding and supporting instructional activities, (b) encouraging innovative teaching, (c) helping teachers with special instructional problems, and (d) facilitating communication across classrooms;

3. Monitoring student progress (Cross & Rice, 2000; Heck et al., 1990; Krug, 1993; Murphy, 1990 ; Sheppard, 1996; Terry, 1996) by (a) reviewing test assessment information and evaluating pupil, class, and school levels of performance and progress and using the results to assist teachers, students, and parents in developing strategies to improve instructional programs; (b) providing quality control checks on the preparation of students; (c) leading teachers to analyze student data to evaluate curriculum and instructional approaches; (d) clarifying to teachers that testing, interpretation, and productive response are expected and that the process will be monitored; and (e) using both criterion and standardised testing to diagnose student problems, to evaluate their progress, and to use test results to refine school goals;

4. Promoting an effective instructional climate (Chell, 1995; Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Heck, et al., 1990; Krug, 1993; Murphy, 1990 ; Sheppard, 1996;

Terry, 1996; Weber, 1981) by (a) creating excitement, (b) communicating a message to students that learning has a value outside the classroom, (c) providing a safe and structured environment, (d) facilitating child-centered activities, and (e) establishing positive high expectations and standards for student behaviour;

5. Providing and facilitating the acquisition of the resources needed for learning to occur (Gullatt & Lofton, 1996; Heck et al., 1990; Patterson, 1990; Pont, 2008; Wildy & Dimmock, 1993);

6. Facilitating staff development programs and activities for teachers (Chell, 1995; Sheppard, 1996; Terry, 1996; Wildy & Dimmock, 1993; Wiles & Bondi, 2000) by providing opportunities for teachers to continue engaging in professional development programs; and

7. Monitoring teachers' instructional progress by setting improvement goals (Southworth, 2002; Rosenholtz, 1986) by (a) looking at teachers' weekly plans, (b) visiting classrooms, (c) examining samples of pupils' work, and (d) observing the implementation of school policies.

Also, the headteacher's instructional leadership roles may involve facilitating teaching and classroom practices by (a) formulating and communicating school goals; (b) organising classrooms for instruction; (c) maintaining high visibility; and (d) providing incentives for teachers and students (Heck et al., 1990; Sheppard, 1996, citing both Hallinger, 1992, and Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). In addition, the headteacher's instructional leadership role includes formulating a clear vision of what an effective school for the community would be and recognising student needs (Findley & Findley, 1992; Weindling, 1990; Pont, 2008). A vision is a descriptive

statement regarding what the school should be like at a specified time period in the future. According to Speck (1999), the headteacher must ensure that all the school's stakeholders—teachers, nonteaching staff, students, parents, and the entire community— collaborate in formulating a vision of the school that reflects their hopes and dreams, their interests and needs, and their values and beliefs about schooling. All the stakeholders should sit down, talk about it, and together use data-driven decision making to determine exactly where the school is now and where it wants to be in the future. Teachers, especially, must embrace the school's vision and provide the learning experiences, skills, and knowledge that enable students to achieve high academic performance (Cross & Rice, 2000).

A school vision is beneficial in several ways. For example, it (a) helps school's stakeholders have a sense of what is important in their particular setting, (b) helps school administrators to set priorities, and (c) assists teachers to direct lessons and students to prepare for classes (Robbins & Alvy, 2003).

These instructional leadership roles of the school headteacher are interrelated and provide a framework for planning, guiding, directing, and evaluating supervision. In sum, because effective instructional leadership is the foundation of school improvement efforts (Findley & Findley, 1992), the role of the headteacher, as instructional leader, must involve all the beliefs, decisions, strategies, activities, and tactics that are focused toward high instructional effectiveness for the benefit of students.

Constraints in the Role of the Headteacher as Instructional Leader

Several constraints exist in the area of the role of the headteacher as an instructional leader. As Reitzug (1997) noted, "In practice, headteacher

instructional leadership with respect to supervision has been problematic for several reasons” (p. 325). The following major constraints frustrate the headteacher’s instructional leadership role: (a) lack of a firm knowledge base regarding what instructional leadership entails (Murphy, 1987; Ornstein, 1991); (b) fragmentation of the headteacher’s time devoted to the various roles in the school (Heck et al., 1990; Wanzare & da Costa, 2001); (c) disputed notions of what effective teaching involves (Ornstein, 1991); (d) other pressing organisational demands that are more defined and much more “do-able” than demand for instructional leadership (Murphy, 1987); (e) difficulty in determining the manner in which the headteacher’s instructional leadership fits into an overall view of the headteacher’s role in affecting school processes and outcomes (Heck et al., 1990); (f) ill preparation of the headteachers in the area of instructional leadership, especially at the pre-service training level (Acheson & Smith, 1986; Murphy, 1987; McEwan, 2001); (g) difficulty inherent in implementing all the tasks associated with the headteachership, both management and leadership (Terry, 1996); (h) difficulty associated with determining the parameters of instructional leadership (Heck et al., 1990); (i) shortage of formal rewards associated with instructional leadership, which deemphasises the headteacher’s leadership activities (Murphy, 1987); (j) complexity and ambiguity of instructional leadership role (Firth, 1987); and (k) difficulty in coordinating and fulfilling the sometimes diverse needs and goals of the various sub-groups in the school system, for example parents and communities (Heck et al., 1990).

2.5 Skills and Attributes of the Headteacher as Instructional Supervisor

There is a growing body of research that discusses what attributes or skills are perceived as necessary for a headteacher as instructional supervisor to be effective (Fullan, 2005; Kouzes & Posner, 2003; McEwan, 2003; O'Hanlon & Clifton, 2004; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Sigford, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2005a, 2005b; Wiles & Bondi, 2000).

Communication Skills

Research describes the importance and value of relationship and communication skills in an environment that involves students, parents, teachers and other professionals (Bush, 2008; Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2005a). "Being an effective communicator, acting as a good role model or supervisor and managing time effectively were considered to be the major ways supervisors could fulfill such responsibilities" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 43). When a headteacher demonstrates open and honest two-way communication skills, models effective time management, and provides teachers with an overall positive role model it goes a long way to set the tone and direction of the work climate (Sergiovanni, 2005a).

Communication that is open and two-way can lead to clarity of meaning and building of trust (Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Kouzes & Posner, 2003). Just as communication skills can be learned, so too can interpersonal skills, and both skill sets need to be practiced to create better and more satisfying relationships (Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). In contrast, an unhealthy, negative workplace can be described as being rife with poor two-way communication, divisiveness, conflict, and low teacher's morale (Oliva &

Pawlas, 2001). When teachers are given open, honest, and regular feedback, teachers feel respected and valued (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

Conflict Management

The skills for managing and resolving conflict are essential for supervisory practices to be successful (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). Effective two-way communication through trust, understanding, and valuing another person's perspective, is a necessary component of empathy and managing conflict (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006).

Building Interpersonal Connections

Headteachers who recognise the importance of developing relationships with others and accepting diversity in people are often able to foster teachers' involvement and are more successful with teachers "buying into" an idea or initiative (O'Hanlon & Clifton, 2004; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Wiles & Bondi, 2000). Such headteachers tend to act in an authentic and transparent manner with a view to developing an atmosphere of trust. Building relationships with teachers can help these teachers feel supported and may result in the teachers becoming more involved. Lacking trust, teachers may not be motivated to invest their time.

Collaboration

The importance of creating a climate of collaboration in the workplace is highlighted in the available literature (Fullan, 2005; Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; McEwan, 2003). McEwan argues that a support network of peer coaching and a mentor system is beneficial for teachers and administrators. While other studies on professional collaboration indicate the importance of establishing a climate of trust and helping teachers to develop proficiency in consensus-building, decision-making, and to deal with conflict

resolution (Fullan, 2005; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001), issues such as a lack of a lifelong learning edict, lack of co-operation, time constraints, and isolation were noted to impede collaboration (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005).

Self-Awareness

Oliva & Pawlas (2001) suggest that great supervisory practice works through the emotions. Their research suggests that self-awareness is required to demonstrate resonant or positive supervisory practice. Self-awareness is the building block for social awareness, for without self-awareness we are poor at managing our own feelings and less capable of understanding feelings in others (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

Self-Reflection

The value of having a headteacher who employs reflective practice skills is reinforced in the extant research (McEwan, 2003; O'Hanlon & Clifton, 2004; Ramsey, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2005a, 2005b; Wiles & Bondi, 2000). Through the use of reflective practice, teachers can better understand their leadership roles (Sigford, 2006). By examining perceptions, inherent biases, and world views, headteachers have the opportunity to understand and enhance their effectiveness as instructional supervisor. Ramsey (2006) found that experienced headteachers demonstrated a higher level of reflection and competence in their supervisory roles. In the available literature there are many self-reflective frameworks or checklists to identify the various stages and components of a good headteacher (Gray, & Streshly, 2008; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005). Self-reflective process helps headteachers examine strengths and limitations, set professional goals, and plan professional

development experiences. The importance of reflection in teaching is particularly useful because learning is grounded in reflection, the purpose of reflection is to improve practice to become better teachers and set the stage for "lifelong learning" (Kouzes & Posner, 2003; Ramsey, 2006).

Trustworthiness

Supervisory relationship is possible only if headteachers are trusted to have their own emotions under control (Byrk and Schneider, 2003; Sergiovanni, 2005b). If a headteacher does not act ethically and build trust through their own reliability and authenticity, then teachers will learn to mistrust (Hargreaves and Fink, 2006). Trust is valuable in establishing that teachers are "on board" with the vision and generating involvement of the group (Byrk and Schneider, 2003; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006). The mistakes that leaders tend to make are usually classified under the category of poor human relations skills (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). What separates effective leaders from the other leaders seems to involve the ability to value and nurture relationships through the ranks (Fullan, 2005; Sergiovanni, 2005b). Trust and rapport appear to be necessary for development of cultures of learning (Fullan, 2005; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2005b; Wiles & Bondi, 2000).

Vision

The ability to be forward-looking and to communicate a clear vision contributes greatly to a headteacher's effectiveness in their role (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005; McEwan, 2003; O'Hanlon & Clifton, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2005b; Sigford, 2006). While having a vision is considered to be an important leadership trait, research appears to indicate that it is optimal for a headteacher to combine vision

with excellent communication skills that work toward a common and shared goal with teachers (Bush, 2008; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

2.6 Supervisory Practices and Procedures

This section reviews practices and procedures of instructional supervision that have received a great deal of treatment in the education literature. The major ingredients and relevant perspectives associated with these practices and procedures are highlighted and discussed.

A survey of the literature reveals a variety of practices and procedures that instructional supervisors, such as school headteachers, may employ as they work with teachers. According to Beach and Reinhartz (1989), *supervisory practices* refer to

Specific procedures and techniques that [instructional] supervisors use when working with teachers.... these procedures and techniques are essential to supervisors in the observation and documentation of teaching-learning behaviours and contribute to the overall effectiveness of the instructional supervision process (p. 183).

Glickman et al. (2001) suggested that supervisors should use different supervisory practices that come from their own philosophies and beliefs. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), concurring with Beach and Reinhartz (2000), noted that the choice of particular supervisory practices will depend on the kinds of teachers with whom supervisors work in their schools. In their view, instructional supervisors should match their supervisory practices with teachers' stages and levels of concerns, abilities in abstract thinking, level of cognitive complexity, learning styles, and motivational needs.

Instructional supervisors may work with teachers in the following two broad ways that significantly affect teacher instruction and, as a result, student learning (Kleine-Kracht, 1993; Liu, 1984; Peterson, 1989):

1. Direct Supervision Practices

Direct instructional leadership practices include the immediate interactions with teachers and other personnel to address classroom, teaching, and student performance and curricular concerns. Direct supervisory practices can be grouped into two broad categories relative to supervision: curriculum supervision and instructional supervision (Jesse, 1989; Ornstein, 1991). These are examined in the following section.

(i) *Curriculum Supervision*

According to Oliva and Pawlas (2001), curriculum includes (a) all in-school experiences, including classroom, learning experiences, student activities, use of the learning resource center, assemblies, use of the cafeteria, and social functions; and (b) out-of-school learning experiences directed by the school, including homework, field trips, and the use of community resources.

The following are the major direct instructional leader's responsibilities associated with curriculum supervision (Murphy, 1990; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Robbins & Alvy, 2003): (a) providing the forum or setting to facilitate teacher curriculum and program discussions, either individually or in groups; (b) ensuring curriculum implementation; (c) facilitating curriculum needs assessment involving parents, teachers, and students; (d) coordinating the curriculum (e.g., by translating the curriculum knowledge into meaningful curricular programs, by matching instructional objectives with curriculum materials and standardised tests, and by ensuring curriculum continuity; and (e) promoting the coverage of syllabus content (e.g., by ensuring that the content

of specific courses is covered in class and extended outside of class by developing and conforming homework policies.

(ii) ***Instructional Supervision***

Drake and Roe (1999) defined supervision of instruction as the process through which the headteacher attempts to work with teachers and other staff members cooperatively to improve teaching and learning in the school. Used in this sense, supervision of instruction, by design, is a developmental process through which instructional leaders can reinforce teaching practices that improve student learning.

The following are the major direct instructional supervisory functions of the instructional leader (Murphy, 1990; Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1991): (a) making frequent visits to classrooms, observing, soliciting and giving feedback to teachers on instructional methods and materials; (b) assessing the instructional program; (c) promoting quality instruction by ensuring and coordinating instructional programs and defining recommended methods of instruction; (d) supervising and evaluating instruction (e.g., by ensuring that school goals are translated into practice at the classroom level and monitoring classroom instruction); and (e) allocating and protecting instructional time (e.g., by providing teachers with uninterrupted blocks of instructional time and ensuring that basic skills and academic subjects are taught).

2. Indirect Supervisory Practices

According to Kleine-Kracht (1993), indirect supervisory activities are concerned with the school's internal and external environments, physical and internal contexts of the classrooms, teaching, curriculum, and the meaning of

the instructional supervisor's actions for teachers. Instructional supervisors involved in indirect supervisory practices facilitate leadership in other personnel in the schools (e.g., teachers and departmental heads) in the following major ways (Daresh & Liu, 1985; Little & Bird, 1987; Nothern & Bailey, 1991; Peterson, 1989): (a) improving teaching and learning conditions (e.g., by ensuring clean, safe, healthy, and productive learning environments, being aware of and dealing with minor problems and issues before they become major problems, and providing teaching and learning resources, materials, and incentives to pursue new ideas and create new options); (b) helping them to set school-level instructional standards; and (c) understanding teachers' instructional concerns and classroom conditions and offering needed assistance to address them.

2.7 Focuses of Instructional Supervision

The literature suggests instructional supervisors may focus on a variety of issues and concerns during their supervision process. The focuses of the supervision process may vary from one supervisor to another, depending on the purposes that supervision is expected to achieve. For example, during classroom observation the supervisor may focus on (a) the aspects of the teaching-learning process, such as contributions of students, individually and collectively, in answering questions, listening, performing tasks, and helping each other (Bollington, Hopkins, & West, 1990; Poster & Poster, 1993); (b) the teacher's movement in the classroom; and (c) the use of classroom artifacts of teaching, such as overhead transparencies, illustrations, demonstration set-ups, and unit and lesson plans (Pyle, 1998)

Other focuses of instructional supervision, according to Stoops and Johnson's (1967) and Thacker's (1999) work, include (a) teachers' knowledge of the subject matter; (b) teaching techniques and instructional skills; (c) teachers' work habits, dependability, and record-keeping; (d) teachers' personal characteristics, such as personality, tact, voice, cooperation, sense of humor, initiatives, enthusiasm, and good grooming; (e) teachers' personal fitness; (f) teachers' human relationship with pupils, parents, and other members of the staff, administration, and the community; (g) teachers' professional conduct and ethics; (h) classroom environment; (i) teachers' involvement on noninstructional activities; (j) teachers' management of instructional time; and (k) teachers' management of student behaviour.

2.8 Instructional Supervision Models

Whereas there is a general agreement regarding the goal of instructional supervision, compelling views exist on (a) how this goal can be better realised, and (b) what effective strategies can be employed to conduct supervisory functions more effectively. The practice of instructional supervision has been influenced by different theoretical perspectives. As Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) noted, it is very difficult to engage in supervisory practices without being theoretical.

The field of supervision is full of models that explain supervisory practices and behaviours in which instructional supervisors and teachers are involved and constitute an essential part of school programs. To understand fully the concept of supervision of instruction, several models of supervision, as defined in the literature, are presented in this section. Supervision models that have received a great deal of attention in teacher education literature are

those associated with developmental, clinical, self-, and peer supervision. These supervision models “give supervisors options as they implement and apply specific skills when working with various constituencies in schools” (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000, p. 125). Instructional supervisors could benefit from training in the use of the various supervisory models in order to use the most effective models for specific contexts. The following section examines developmental, clinical, self-, and peer supervision models and their associated practices.

(i) Developmental Supervision

The Developmental Supervision model (Glickman et al., 2001) recognises teachers as individuals who are at various stages of development. Glickman et al. asserted that instructional supervisors must foster thinking skills in teachers to help them diagnose classroom instruction, become aware of the many options for change, and think in more abstract terms. They further enumerated three major positions underlying developmental supervision: (a) teachers function at different levels of professional development; (b) because teachers operate at different levels of abstract thinking, ability, and effectiveness, there is a need to supervise them in different ways; and (c) the long-range goal of supervision should be to increase teachers’ abilities in higher stages of thought.

Several practices may be associated with developmental supervision. Glickman et al. (2001), in describing the developmental process of supervision, identified three primary, interpersonal communication practices associated with developmental supervision that instructional supervisors may employ: (a) directive supervision, in which a supervisor engages primarily in the

behaviours of clarifying the teacher's problems and asking the teacher for confirmation, presenting his or her own ideas on what information should be collected and how it will be collected, directing the teacher after collecting and analyzing the actions that need to be taken, demonstrating for the teacher appropriate teaching behaviour, setting the standard for improvement based on the preliminary baseline information, and reinforcing by using materials or social incentives for carrying out the plan; (b) collaborative supervision, which includes the behaviours of listening, presenting, problem solving, and negotiating and in which the supervisor and teacher propose alternative actions for improvement (problem solving), and discuss and alter actions until a joint plan is agreed upon; and (c) nondirective supervision, in which the supervisor invites teachers of high abstraction to define instructional problems themselves, generate actions, think through consequences, and create their own action plans.

Several studies relating teacher and supervisor preferences for developmental supervision practices have revealed interesting findings. For example, in a survey of teachers and supervisors in Catholic high schools, Rossicone (1985) examined teacher preferences for and perceptions of directive, nondirective and collaborative supervisory styles in Brooklyn Diocese, Jamaica, New York. Seventy-six percent of the teachers preferred their supervisors to use a collaborative style, 20% preferred nondirective, and 4% preferred a directive style of supervision.

In a similar study Akinniyi (1987) sought to determine the relationship between a headteacher's perceptions of his/her supervisory behaviour and the teachers' actual perceptions and preferences for supervision in the state of

Wisconsin, US. Seventy-five percent preferred collaborative practices, 22% preferred the nondirective practice, and 3% preferred the directive approach. These studies indicate that, in general, teachers prefer a collaborative approach to supervision.

(ii) *Clinical Supervision*

A model for instructional supervision that has received a great deal of attention in recent years is clinical supervision. The use of the term *clinical supervision* dates back to the works of Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1973). The concept was developed to help teachers and supervisors together resolve classroom teaching problems (Tracy & MacNaughton, 1989). Goldhammer defined clinical supervision as “that phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face . . . interaction between the observer and the teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviours and activities for instructional improvement” (pp. 19-20). Cogan defined clinical supervision as follows:

The rationale and practice designed to improve teacher’s classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve students’ learning by improving the teacher’s classroom behaviour (p. 3).

According to Cogan, the principal data of clinical supervision relate to classroom events, “what the teacher and students do in the classroom during the teaching-learning process” (p. 9). Also, Acheson and Gall (2003) explained that in a supervisory context, the term “*clinical* is meant to suggest a face-to-face relationship between teacher and supervisor and a focus on the teacher’s actual behaviour in the classroom” (p. 9), that the primary emphasis of clinical supervision is on professional development, and that the primary goal of this

practice of supervision is to help the teacher improve instructional performance.

Practices of Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision is normally regarded as a structure supervisory model consisting of certain stages or a cycle of phases. Throughout, models for the phases of clinical supervision are quite similar. For example, although Cogan (1973) originally had eight stages in this “cycle of supervision,” Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1993), in agreement with Beach and Reinhartz (2000), have condensed the original phases into a more inclusive five-step model of clinical supervision: (a) pre-observation conference, (b) observation and collection of data, (c) analysis of data, (d) post-observation conference, and (e) post-observation analysis or evaluation. Therefore, it is clear that clinical supervision has, as its central goal, the improvement of instruction. This goal can be pursued through classroom observation, followed by analysis of classroom events and a teacher-supervisor conference.

(iii) *Self-Assessment Supervision*

A model of instructional supervision that involves teachers in self-evaluation is called *self-assessment supervision* (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000), *self-analysis* (Schain, 1988), *self-help explorative supervision* (Gebbard, 1990), or *self-directed supervision* (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Beach and Reinhartz defined self-assessment supervision as “the process of reflection that engages teachers in a variety of activities (e.g., inventories, reflective journals, and portfolios) for the purpose of instructional improvement by rethinking past instructional episodes and generating alternatives” (p. 145). They further explained that this supervisory strategy shifts the responsibility for change

from supervisors to teachers and that teachers themselves are expected to evaluate their own performance to identify strengths and weaknesses associated with classroom instruction.

Several methods may be employed in self-assessment, each of which may be used alone or in combination with other methods: (a) videotaping, which may be done with the assistance of either an instructional supervisor or peers (Gebbard, 1990; Schain, 1988); (b) audiotaping (Harris, 1985); and (c) using live observers (Harris, 1985). Barber (1990) recommended the use of hybrid techniques because “no single type of evaluation can adequately meet the needs of all people involved in any evaluation process” (p. 224).

(iv) Peer Supervision

Peer supervision or peer coaching is a vital part of professional development that enables teachers to make changes in their instructional practices and procedures for the purpose of improving student performance (Acheson & Gall, 2003). Other terms that have been used to refer to peer supervision include *peer coaching* (Daresh & Playko, 1995; Sergiovanni, 1995), *co-operative professional development* (Harris & Ovando, 1992), and *peer assistance* (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2001).

The next section reviews the literature and research on peer supervision. It focuses on the following major aspects: (a) definitions of peer supervision, (b) justification for peer supervision, and (c) peer supervision practices.

Definitions of Peer Supervision

There are many definitions of the phrase *peer supervision*. For example, according to Daresh and Playko (1995), this term refers to a process by which two or more teachers supervise each other for their own professional growth by

observing each other's classes and by sharing feedback. Also, James, Heller, and Ellis (1992) regarded peer supervision as "a process of professional guidance, help and growth" (p. 100).

Therefore, peer supervision or peer coaching is a reciprocal partnership in which colleague teachers examine and analyze each other's instructional work, share feedback about their teaching, and seek alternative solutions for their professional growth with the ultimate purpose of improving student learning.

Justification for Peer Supervision

Peer supervision is an important practice for enhancing teacher professional growth. Commenting on teacher involvement in peer supervision, Glickman et al. (2001) and Anderson and Pellicer (2001) observed that, because teachers naturally turn to each other for help more often than to supervisors and because supervision is concerned primarily with instructional improvement, (a) teachers helping teachers has become a formalised and well-received way of assuring direct assistance to teachers, (b) teachers are arguably the best and most abundant source of instructional leadership available in the schools, and (c) peer assistance and review have the potential to provide the alternative recognition of the expertise of teachers in critical areas of teaching and learning.

Therefore, because teachers normally prefer to have their colleagues' advice and assist them with instructional work, peer supervision is a necessary vehicle for teachers to work jointly and to learn from one another toward a common goal: professional growth. Feedback from peer teachers, especially in a collegial model of assessment, can provide valuable and valid insights into

teacher performance, professional growth opportunities, and encouragement for teachers.

Peer Supervision Practices

Peer teachers may be engaged in a variety of practices toward their professional growth as follows: (a) by forming teams of two or more colleagues that work jointly to improve performance (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Wiles & Bondi, 2000); (b) by using demonstration teaching by expert teachers as guest speakers, demonstrating new teaching models or methods for other teachers (Glickman et al., 2001; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001); and (c) by co-teaching, in which an expert peer and the teacher seeking assistance together plan, teach, and evaluate a lesson (Glickman et al., 2001; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

2.9 Theoretical Framework

Instructional supervision is an important component of the instructional leadership role of the school headteacher that is primarily concerned with improving teaching and learning and creating an environment in which teachers' contribution to the achievement of organisational goals is possible and valued. This section presents a theoretical framework for conceptualising instructional supervision, a major component of instructional leadership, and for understanding how supervision of instruction contributes to students' academic success.

The theoretical framework for studying school-based instructional supervision (Figure 2.2) was adapted and expanded from the frameworks developed by Krey and Burke (1989), West and Bollington (1990), Cousins (1995), and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002). This framework also draws from

the knowledge gained through an analysis of multidimensional nature of instructional leadership and the researcher's interpretation of relevant literature on supervision of instruction.

Basic components

The following are the basic components of the instructional supervision framework:

Purpose

The purposes for which instructional supervision is undertaken are important in shaping supervisory practices and procedures. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), "the form supervision takes depends in part on the purposes envisaged" (p. 220). For example, Sergiovanni (2001) highlighted three broad purposes of supervision and evaluation and the corresponding supervisory practices as follows. If the purpose of supervision is quality control, the supervisor will monitor teaching and learning, visiting classrooms and students. On the other hand, if the purpose of supervision is professional development, the supervisor will concentrate on helping teachers grow, improve basic teaching skills and expand knowledge and use of teaching repertoires. And if the purpose of supervision is teacher motivation, the supervisor will endeavour to build and to nurture teachers' commitment to teaching and to school's educational platform.

Inputs

Inputs relating to supervision can be provided in several ways: employing standards for determining teacher effectiveness, information from research and best practices, policy guidelines relating supervision of instruction, and resourcing.

Standards

Instructional supervisors, as pointed out by Oliva and Pawlas (2001), may use a set of standards or evaluation criteria to judge teacher effectiveness. The purpose of evaluation criteria, according to Oliva and Pawlas, “is to assure fulfillment of a set of minimal standards and to provide a systematic procedure for studying and improving all phases of a school program” (p. 344). In their view, a possible source of supervision or evaluation standards is research. However, there is some controversy regarding the existence and adequacy of research based on supervision and evaluation for formative purposes. For example, whereas Duke and Stiggins (1990) noted that empirical research on the use of teacher evaluation systems for the purposes of promoting professional growth is lacking, Cousins (1995), observed that empirical research and reviews of practice concerning the nature and impact of performance appraisal systems has developed sufficiently to offer a clear picture of what exemplary practices look like. Also, Cousins, contributing to teacher supervision-standard debate, suggested that a variety of research-based criteria or explicit dimensions of performances, should be made available for teachers to consider in advance of the process of appraisal.

There are several benefits regarding the use of supervision standards. To Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), standards as frameworks have the following major advantages: These are to: (a) help define what is good practice; (b) help show how indicators of good teaching practice relate to each other; (c) help teachers and supervisors to talk about the indicators of good practice in meaningful ways; (d) help teachers use the indicators of good practice to study their own teaching; and (e) provide an overview of effective teaching with

within which teachers can locate the problems, issues, and practices with which they deal in their own classrooms.

Instructional leadership is associated with complex problems that require fresh approaches to address them. Information from research and best practices can help instructional supervisors make strides forward with supervisory programs and meet organisational challenges. Instructional supervisors should endeavour to base their supervisory practices on a foundation of well-established and researched beliefs related to supervision of instruction. As Wiles and Bondi (2000) and Oliva and Pawlas (2001) noted, active and dynamic instructional supervisors are ones who take charge of many areas related to teaching and learning; who demonstrate new instructional techniques to teachers; who keep up with overall research in education; who apply research findings in supervisory practices; who translate research findings for teachers and other administrators; who alert teachers of research studies that may be significant to them; and who are knowledgeable about the sources of research-based information.

Policy on instructional supervision

Instructional supervisors must base their supervisory practices on well-established policies and guidelines governing the practice of supervision and which specify the general methods, practices, and procedures of instructional supervision. Caldwell and Spinks (1988) defined a policy as a set of guidelines which provide a framework for action in achieving an intended purpose or purposes. The potential for achieving substantive success in the practice of instructional supervision will depend on the extent to which supervisory policies clearly delineate expected supervisory behaviours without being so

rigid that it disallows local implementation flexibility. The policies must make sense in the context of other school policies that are in operation and must be practical in terms of implementability.

Resourcing

Effective supervisory programs do not just happen; they require the necessary resources. Drawing on the available resources for school improvement should be the instructional supervisor's major responsibility. Instructional supervisors must, therefore, endeavour to acquire the resources they need to carry out effective supervision of instruction. As Glickman et al. (2001) noted, a vital component of supervisory activity is providing, explaining, and demonstrating instructional resources and materials. Many teachers, they argued, would benefit greatly from supervision practices supported by adequate resources and materials.

Process

The process of instructional supervision may involve a variety of practices for collecting information about teachers, for example, the practices associated with developmental, clinical, self, and peer supervisions. These were covered earlier in this chapter.

Evaluation

Evaluation is a critical component in the process of school-based instructional supervision and in the professional development of teachers. An effective evaluation system should contribute to the professional growth of the teachers of the various categories, including beginning, marginal, and experienced teachers.

Instructional supervisors should be regularly involved in evaluation efforts as they assess the success of supervision programs, processes, and teachers. As Wiles and Bondi (2000) concluded, evaluation is (a) the “bottom-line” activity in all school improvement initiatives (p. 173); (b) crucial to both school and classroom improvement efforts; (c) the basic means by which success can be measured; and (d) the moving force in educational improvement.

Instructional Supervisors

Successful instructional supervision and evaluation depends on the quality of what happens between teachers and instructional supervisors. The quality and quantity of supervisors’ supervisory skills gained through professional training and experience, and the trust between supervisors and teachers are the two main determiners of success in supervision of instruction. Instructional supervisors must be trained and competent to conduct instructional supervision.

To help teachers to be at their professional best, instructional supervisors need to provide several forms of support: (a) facilitating classroom observations and teacher conferences based on observations; (b) recommending professional literature (e.g., journals) to teachers; (c) sharing articles with teachers; and (d) facilitating forums for sharing of professional development issues and concerns; (e) developing honest, caring, and tactful relationship with teachers; (f) encouraging teachers to reflect on their classroom events in relation to instructional and curricular decisions.

Outcomes

Instructional supervision must be seen as one part of a total school operation geared to producing certain outcomes. Supervisory endeavours, such

as conducting classroom observation, selecting instructional resources and materials, and conducting in-house in-service training of teachers, may have direct impact on instruction, for example, by facilitating teaching effectiveness, improving teaching strategies, and enabling teachers to make superior instructional decisions. These impacts may, in turn, indirectly contribute toward increased student achievement, which, in fact, is the ultimate goal of any instructional supervisory program.

School Contexts

Instructional supervision must be conceptualised as a set of reasonably distinctive endeavours within the total context of the school functions. Because the school is the focal educational unit and quality teaching, school contexts are critical to the supervision function in improving teaching and learning and in maintaining effective instructional programs. It is at the school level that immediate results occur in terms of effective teaching, improved learning, and increased student achievement and positive attitude toward teaching and learning.

Instructional supervision practices are not employed in isolation; they are affected by other aspects of, or variables within, the organisation in which they are set. The practices should be considered in the context of the total school organisation. Such consideration may assist supervisors and teachers to assess whether a particular supervisory approach will suit their purpose, conceptions of education and organisational characteristics.

Cousins (1995) identified these organisational and individual factors and conditions that may determine the choice of supervisory practices and, consequently, the process of supervision or appraisal: (a) the supervisor (e.g.,

time available for supervision, training); (b) the teacher (e.g., desire for constructive feedback, growth, objectives, experience, knowledge of self); and (c) the organisation (e.g., administrative support, policy history, culture). Also, West and Bollington (1990) identified additional organisational factors, such as objectives, values, developmental strategies, structure, human relations, learner characteristics, and material resources. The conceptual framework for examining the practice of instructional supervision presented portrays that a dual-directional relationship exists between and among organisational variables, suggesting that they cannot be treated as mutually exclusive in a program for the supervision of instruction.

The importance of organisational contexts in the practice of instructional supervision cannot be overemphasised. McKenna (1981), commenting about organisational characteristics and their influence on teacher evaluation, observed that

unless all of these factors are considered as mediators in judging the performance of teachers, whatever judgments (favorable or unfavorable) are made may be attributed to teachers when the compelling forces underlying teacher performance reside in places quite apart from the transactions that take place between teacher and student (p. 36).

However, based on Holloway's (1995) work, "the influence of organisational variables on supervision has rarely been investigated or discussed in the professional literature" (p. 98).

Ongoing Debate

Earlier research (e.g., McGreal, 1988) indicates that the more teachers and supervisors talk about teaching and learning the better they get at teaching quality. Talks, especially during pre- and post-conferences, for example in clinical and developmental supervision, as well as informal sharing of

professional concerns, encourage this behaviour. To facilitate effective teaching, teachers must engage in ongoing formal and informal conversations among themselves and between them and instructional supervisors.

In sum, the proposed instructional supervision framework would support the notion that supervision of instruction involves maintaining or changing school operations in ways that directly influence the teaching-learning processes employed to promote student achievement. The framework should be responsive to the contexts of the Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education's school supervision policy which puts a great deal of emphasis on the role of school-based instructional supervisors, especially headteachers (supervisors at the school site) in facilitating teaching and learning.

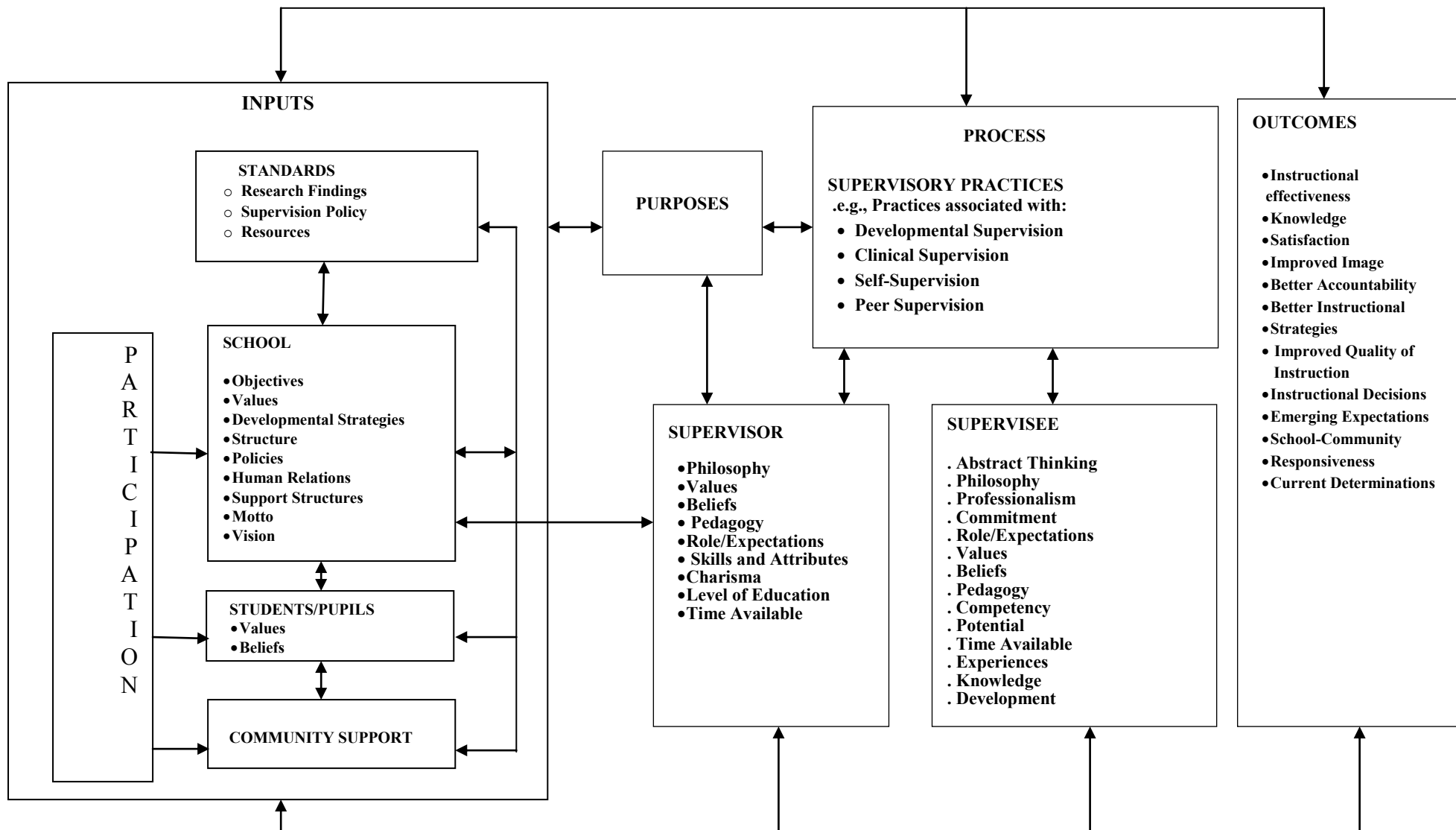


Figure 2.2: Conceptual Framework: Instructional Supervision and Related Variables
 (Adapted From: West & Bollington, 1990, p. 18; Burke & Burke, 1989, p. 89; Cousins, 1995, p. 202, and Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002, p. 7.)

2.10 Summary

A review of the literature and research relevant to developing the conceptual background of the study was presented in this chapter. The main areas covered include instructional leadership, concepts of supervision and evaluation, instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia, instructional supervisors, supervisory practices, focuses of instructional supervision, and instructional supervision models. A conceptual framework for examining the practice of instructional supervision was also presented.

The literature shows that instructional leadership is associated with numerous functions, such as monitoring teaching and learning, facilitating interaction between teachers and students, enhancing staff development of teachers, and ensuring conducive teaching-learning environment. The literature revealed that instructional supervision improves teaching and learning, fosters teacher development, and provides instructional support to teachers.

The literature also showed that headteachers should be the instructional leaders of their schools and should be involved in a variety of functions relating to supervision of instruction. However, the research literature revealed that instructional supervision is not being carried out well or even at all by headteachers because of multiple problems that they face in schools. The literature further suggested that instructional supervisors such as headteachers should be equipped with the necessary skills to enable them to perform their supervisory role more effectively. These include interpersonal, communication, human relations, pedagogical, technical, and managerial skills.

The literature search clearly indicated that there is no single “right” practice of carrying out the functions of a supervisor, unless it is a combination

of several practices. The practices that have received high priority are those relating to developmental, clinical self-assessment, and peer-supervision models. The literature indicated that instructional supervision may address numerous focuses relevant to the teaching and learning process, such as students' contributions in their learning, teaching portfolios, teachers' knowledge of the subject content, instructional strategies, and classroom management. The literature clearly showed that instructional supervision is an important means of facilitating staff development for teachers. The research literature also showed that there is a need to enhance the professional development of teachers and school headteachers for the benefit of students, especially in the current era of reforms.

The literature search revealed that there is a paucity of information from reported research focusing specifically on instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian secondary schools. Most of the local research has focused on general supervision. As a result, this study relied extensively on Western concepts to reframe the problem of the study, as well as to assist in the design of data collection and analysis procedures.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of this study is to examine what secondary headteachers, teachers, and district education officers perceive as effective instructional supervision practices and to examine the current state of school-based instructional supervisory practices and procedures in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools from the perceptions of headteachers, teachers, and district education officers. This chapter describes the research design, the selection of a sample, the survey instruments, and the procedures used in the collection and analysis of data. The chapter consists of four major subsections: (a) population and sample, (b) research design and instrumentation, (c) data collection procedures, and (d) data analysis.

3.1 Population and Sample

The data collection for this study took place in Asir region, Saudi Arabia between March and August 2010. The population for the study included secondary teachers, secondary headteachers, and district education officers. According to the Ministry of Education (1994), “all secondary schools which are developed, equipped, and provided with staff from public funds by government are public schools” (p. 49).

A sample of 305 participants representing 23 public secondary schools in Asir region, Saudi Arabia was selected randomly to participate in the study. A list of the public secondary schools in Asir region was obtained from the website of the Asir Education Department. The schools' names were entered into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). SPSS then was used to generate a random sample from the complete list.

Asir region was chosen because of its location and the availability of information from the Asir Education Department. The researcher is familiar with the locations of the schools and the road system in this region. This is important in terms of a strategic plan for the administration of the questionnaires. It is more important for the interviews that were conducted since it involves a total of 33 interviews that had to be completed in a limited time of about six weeks.

Random sampling was used with teachers, headteachers and district officers in an effort to provide a study group reflecting the opinions of the population from which they were drawn. As Fink and Kosecoff (1985) noted:

The point is that the people who are selected are believed to be just like the people who are not. If you survey a probability sample, you will get an accurate view of the whole group, and in survey terms, your sample will be representative of the general population (p. 54).

The sample consisted of 272 teachers surveyed through questionnaires and 18 teachers, 10 headteachers, and 5 district education officers surveyed through interviews, for a total of 305 participants. The participants surveyed through questionnaires employed by the Ministry of Education at the time of the study. Personal, in-depth interviews were conducted with three groups of professionals: (a) 18 teachers, (b) 10 headteachers, and (c) 5 district education officers. Therefore, the total number of interviewees in the study was 33. The interview participants were selected by convenience sampling in which, as explained by Merriam (1998), the researcher selects “a sample based on time, money, location, availability of sites or respondents, and so on” (p. 63). In addition, the selection of district education officers was based on following three criteria: (a) currently employed by the Saudi Arabia Ministry of

Education; (b) willingness to participate in the study; and (c) at least four years of experience in the current or equivalent position.

3.2 Research Design and Instrumentation

Questionnaires and interviews were used as instruments to gather information from teachers, headteachers, and district education officers regarding school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures. The researcher developed the questionnaire by conducting a literature review. Interviews were used to get an indepth view of the sample perceptions of school-based supervision based on the sections that were used in the study. Interviews helped to enhance, supplement, illustrate and clarify results from the questionnaires (Greene & McClintock, 2003). Interview protocol was constructed by the researcher as a guide for interviewing selected teachers, headteachers, and district education officers. Therefore, the tri-angulation method was applied since this method allowed the researcher to be more confident in the results (Jick, 2001). It also added breadth and depth to any investigation (Flick, 1999). Brewer and Hunter (2006) promote the use of the multimethods approach because it reduces the research weaknesses and complements strengths. Moreover, a combination of quantitative and qualitative data can provide more information regarding a phenomenon than either one of them alone (Gall et al., 2003).

Development of the Questionnaire

In developing the questionnaire, the researcher reviewed the literature on supervision, and particularly studies that been conducted on the subject. From this review the researcher identified six variables of school-based supervision for study which might prove to be applicable to Saudi Arabia. The six variables were: (1) purposes of school-based instructional supervision, (2) focuses of school-based instructional supervision, (3) practices of school-based instructional

supervision, (4) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors, (5) types of instructional supervisors, and (6) degree of satisfaction with practices of instructional supervision. Based on these six variables, the researcher constructed the item statements that reflect the variables that were studied. Items for each scale were developed from the theoretical and empirical evidence on effective instructional supervisory practices (Beach & Reinhartz, 1989; Blase & Blase, 1998; Glickman et al., 1997; Goldhammer et al., 1993; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001).

After constructing the draft questionnaire, the researcher sent twenty questionnaires to Saudi Arabia in January 2010 for the purpose of exploring the response and to get comments from teachers and headteachers, especially with regard to the contents and terms used in the item statements. Also, 8 sample questionnaires were sent to his colleagues at the Faculty of Education, King Khalid University. There were two purposes for sending the questionnaires to them. Firstly, the respondents were asked to check on the contents of the questionnaire and to gather their expert reviews on the questionnaire. This was to insure clarity and appropriateness to establish content validity. Secondly, it was to get comments from the respondents about the translation and terms used to ensure that the translation and the terms used were correct. The questionnaires were written both in Arabic language and English.

The questionnaire consisted of three parts. Part I of the instrument consisted of demographic questions of which the items included: (a) age, (b) sex, (c) academic qualification, (d) length of service as teacher, (e) length of service in present school, and (f) number of pupils and teachers in the current school. The researcher used these variables to determine whether or not teachers report the same kind of information based on the same variables about instructional

supervision. In Part II, there were 67 statements that asked the respondents to respond on a 5-point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly agree) (Appendix A). The measure of effectiveness was based on the six variables: (1) purposes of school-based instructional supervision, (2) focuses of school-based instructional supervision, (3) practices of school-based instructional supervision, (4) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors, (5) types of instructional supervisors, and (6) degree of satisfaction with practices of instructional supervision. Each variable had a number of items in the form of statements that elaborated on the variable. The numbers of item statements for each variable are as follows: (1) purposes of school-based instructional supervision (10 items), (2) focuses of school-based instructional supervision (22 items), (3) practices of school-based instructional supervision (16 items), (4) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors (15 items), (5) types of instructional supervisors (6 items), and (6) degree of satisfaction with practices of instructional supervision (10 items).

Part III of the survey consisted of three open-ended questions to solicit personal comments from teachers regarding the perceived advantages and problems of the present school-based instructional supervision system. These written comments were analyzed to determine whether any pattern or themes were identifiable, or whether any responses could be discerned that supported the statistical data or added further insight into the perceived strengths or weaknesses of the current school-based instructional supervision system.

The researcher decided to use the questionnaire for the following reasons:

(a) It enabled hem to include a large number of subjects (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 1990; Gall et al., 2003); (b) it guarantees confidentiality (Ary et al., 1990); and (c) it is efficient in that it requires less time and money to administer

(Gall et al., 2003). Furthermore, the researcher used teacher questionnaires to discover what practices of instructional supervision and are actually like for teachers and to determine whether or not teachers report the same kind of information based on the same variables about instructional supervision.

Interviews

In this study, interviews were also utilised to gather information about the five variables that were studied (purposes of school-based instructional supervision, focuses of school-based instructional supervision, practices of school-based instructional supervision, skills and attributes of instructional supervisors, and types of instructional supervisors). Two similar semi-structured interview protocols for teachers and headteachers and for district education officers were developed. (Appendix D). The interview protocols consisted of open-ended questions to gather more in-depth and complex information, especially as it related to respondents' perceptions on the specific variables. The techniques of in-depth interviewing were drawn from several sources (e.g., Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Burns, 1997; Gurr, 1996; Seidman, 2006).

The use of open-ended questions offers two main advantages: It allows a free response from respondents that is based on their own frame of reference (Ary et al., 1990), and it allows the respondents to say what they think and to do so with greater richness and spontaneity (Oppenheim, 1992).

Interviews were used to obtain in-depth perceptions about supervision for the following reasons:

1. The use of the interviews guaranteed confidentiality. This may well have elicited more truthful responses from the respondents. They were free to

respond to unpopular or sensitive subjects because these points could not be used against them later (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).

2. They allow specific questions to be repeated or items that are unclear to be explained (Ary et al., 1990; Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).

3. They allow follow-up questions to be addressed for additional information on incomplete or not entirely relevant responses (Ary et al., 1990).

4. They allow in-depth follow-up of particular questions of interest or value (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).

5. They permit personal contact, which increases the likelihood that the individual respondent will participate and provide the desired information (Ary et al., 1990).

6. They produce rich data that reveal the respondents' perspectives (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992).

7. They enable respondents to reveal information that they would not otherwise reveal under any other circumstances (Gall et al., 2003).

8. They help to enhance, supplement, illustrate, and clarify results from the questionnaire (Greene & McClintock, 2003).

Also, as explained by Bogdan and Biklen (2003), "the interview is used to gather descriptive data in the subjects' own words so that the researcher can develop insights into how they interpret some piece of the world" (p. 95).

Furthermore, inherent in the philosophy of one-to-one interviewing is the belief that an understanding is achieved when people are encouraged to describe their world in their own terms (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Additionally, interviews

permit the researcher to collect considerable data quickly and to seek clarification or amplification immediately or later on.

3.3 Validity and Reliability

A good research study is one in which the instruments used for measuring the variables under study are valid and reliable. Validity and reliability are the factors on which good research relies. The work involved in determining these properties may be considerable, but must be undertaken.

Questionnaires

To ensure that the items of the questionnaires were relevant and clear and to enhance the school-based reliability of the questionnaire, the researcher did a pilot test with the purpose of improving the results of the main study by receiving important information on the following items: (a) checking the appropriateness of the developed measures, (b) preliminary testing of the research questions, (c) relevance of the survey to the subject of the study, (d) clarity of directions on the survey instruments (Wiersma, 2000), (e) visual appeal of the survey package (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003), and (f) appropriate length of time the survey will take to complete.

In this study the researcher pilot-tested the instruments in two ways. First, he presented the survey instruments to a group of fellow students. Wiersma (2000) supported the involvement of graduate students in a pilot test: “A class of students, possibly graduate students, can often serve effectively as a pilot-run group” (pp. 171-172). Drafts of the questionnaires were examined by colleagues in the Department of Educational Policy Studies, King Khalid University, who were knowledgeable about the literature on instructional supervision and who had had direct experience in supervision. They were

requested to review the instruments for clarity, bias, length, convenience in responding, and relevance of the questions to the phenomena under study. Colleagues were requested to give feedback regarding the appropriateness and relevance of specific questions in the various sections of the questionnaires. Respondents to the pilot test indicated that (a) the instruments were relevant to the study, (b) the design of the instruments was appropriate for the study the researcher envisaged, and (c) the questions contained in the instruments were comprehensive enough to obtain adequate information regarding the variables under study. However, the pilot test participants expressed three major concerns regarding the instruments: (a) They were fairly long; consequently, they were likely to take a considerable amount of the participants' time to complete; (b) some questions were not worded clearly; and (c) there was a need to increase the Likert-scale from a 4-point to a 5-point scale.

Second, the questionnaires were further pilot-tested in eight public secondary schools in Saudi Arabia selected by convenience sampling based on the researcher's knowledge of their locations and his familiarity with their headteachers. Each headteacher and teacher in the selected schools received a copy of the instrument and was asked to review the instrument to check for ambiguity, comprehensiveness, and appropriateness to the Saudi Arabia context, and to complete and to return it to the researcher.

After the pilot test, the researcher reviewed the participants' concerns and recommendations and modified the instruments according to the suggestions received. These modifications were limited to the following areas: (1) two items were removed for lack of clarity and lack of fit with the practice of instructional supervision. These items were: "The headteacher offers

opportunities for me to implement well-researched ideas" and "The headteacher encourages teachers to identify and reflect on the relationship between teaching and outcomes". Additionally, the question relating to providing data for salary decisions was removed from the survey items because it bore no applicability to the sample for this study. (2) The phrase "*school examinations*" in item twenty of the original instrument in focuses of school-based supervision section was changed to "*national examinations*" in the modified instrument for this study, to fit with the Saudi Arabia context. (3) Based on feedback from the pilot study, three items, "The headteacher gives teachers choices in addressing instructional issues during post-observation conferences", "The headteacher provides helpful feedback in a non-evaluative manner", and "The headteacher empowers teachers to identify instructional concerns," were rewritten to better capture headteacher roles when providing direct instructional assistance. (4) The instrument used in this study was reformatted to employ a five-point modified Likert-type scale (strongly agree to strongly disagree) to obtain more descriptive and comparative data regarding school-based supervision. However, in the main, these changes were semantic and did not involve overhauling the instruments.

The final draft of the questionnaire (see appendix A) consisted of 7 sections: (a) demographic data, (b) purposes of school-based instructional supervision, (c) focuses of School-based instructional supervision, (d) practices of school-based instructional supervision, (e) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors, (f) types of instructional supervisors, and (g) general questions.

Interviews

To enhance the validity of the interviews, the researcher used semi-structured interview protocols (Appendix D). As Best and Khan (1989) noted, “Validity is greater when the interview is based upon a carefully designed structure, thus ensuring that the significant information is elicited (content validity). The critical judgment of experts in the field of inquiry is helpful in selecting the essential questions” (p. 203). The researcher pilot-tested the original drafts of the interview protocols with one former Saudi Arabia public secondary teacher and one headteacher. Each of the respondents to the pilot test indicated that most of the interview questions were clear in terms of understanding and responses. However, the participants felt that the protocols were too long to be managed within the intended one hour for each interview and that some of the questions appeared irrelevant to the subject of the study. Feedback from the pilot test enabled the researcher to adjust the interview protocols accordingly.

The final interview protocol frameworks reflected the following data collection focuses: (a) the purposes of school-based instructional supervision, (b) the role of headteachers as school-based instructional supervisors, (c) the in-service preparation of headteachers relative to their instructional supervisory roles, (d) the desired changes in school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures, and (e) the use of information obtained from the instructional supervision process conducted by school-based instructional supervisors, such as headteachers. Also, to facilitate the validity of the interviews, the researcher endeavoured to ask probing, expanding, and clarifying questions to solicit as much contextual information as possible from

the interviewees and to build a good relationship with participants during face-to-face interviews.

To increase the credibility of qualitative data, the researcher employed the following two strategies. First, the researcher mailed interview transcripts to the participants to be sure that the researcher recorded accurately what they actually said, a process known as “member check” (Bloor, 1997; Gall et al., 2003; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Guba & Lincoln, 1997; Langenbach et al., 1994; Maxwell, 1996). According to Gall et al. (2003), member check is “the process of having [participants] review statements made in the researcher’s report for accuracy and completeness” (p. 575). The use of member checks with participants has the following six major advantages (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Maxwell, 1996): (a) It verifies the participants’ perspectives; (b) it alerts the researcher of potential problematic areas from personal or political viewpoints; (c) it helps the researcher to develop new ideas and interpretations; (d) it may reveal factual errors that are easily corrected; and (e) it may provide participants with the opportunity to recall new facts or to have new perceptions of the situation; and (f) it is an important way of ruling out the possibility of misinterpretations of the meaning of what the participants say and the perspectives they have regarding what is going on.

And, second, the researcher asked other people, including colleagues in the Department of educational Policy Studies, King Khalid University, to read his transcripts, to listen to his audiotapes, and to comment on emerging findings (Glesne & Peshkin, 1992; Guba & Lincoln, 1997; Maxwell, 1996; Merriam, 1998). According to Maxwell (1996), soliciting feedback from a

variety of people is a useful strategy for identifying validity threats and the researcher's biases, assumptions, and flaws.

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

Before research data were collected, the researcher applied for ethics approval from the University of York and for a research permit from the Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education. Once the approval to conduct the research had been given, the researcher sent letters to the headteachers and teachers of the schools in the sample and to district education officers, informing them about the dates that the researcher intended to conduct the study and inviting them to participate. The description of data collection procedures is based on the instruments used; namely, questionnaires and interviews.

Questionnaire Data

The data collection by questionnaires followed a two-step procedure. Step 1 included mailing questionnaires, explanatory cover letters (Appendix C) and stamped, self-addressed envelopes to 400 teachers in Asir region, Saudi Arabia public secondary schools sampled randomly to seek their perceptions regarding school-based instructional supervision. The participants were asked to respond to the questions and statements in the questionnaires and to return them in the self-addressed, stamped envelopes that were provided. An explanation regarding the study as well as directions for completing the questionnaires were provided. The explanation provided to the participants via introductory letters was intended to ascertain the level of accuracy of collecting data. Assurances were made that all surveyed information would be kept confidential. Also included was an advance "thank you" for the participants' time and participation. The envelopes were marked to enable me to monitor the

questionnaire returns, to identify those in the sample who had returned the questionnaires, and to avoid duplication in a follow-up mailing.

Step 2 involved sending follow-up questionnaires and appropriate cover letters with stamped, self-addressed envelopes to those teachers who had not returned the original questionnaires (non-respondents) within three weeks. These persons were identified in my records based on the questionnaires mailed earlier and those returned. Also, telephone follow-up calls were made to non-respondents, especially in urban schools, regarding the questionnaires. Furthermore, the researcher made efforts to visit schools within his research area to collect the questionnaires personally from the participants. As Wiersma (2000) noted, follow-ups are a must for almost all questionnaire surveys, and the follow-up mailing should be done a few days after the deadline specified in the cover letters for return.

Interview Data

Once the potential interviewees were identified, the researcher arranged to meet them to explain the purpose, mode, and process of the interview and to get their consent to be interviewed. Eight headteachers and fifteen teachers were interviewed during school hours, and two headteachers and three teachers were interviewed outside school hours in the evenings. Four education officers were interviewed in their offices, and one education officer was interviewed outside office hours in the evening. The researcher conducted the interviews on the dates and times mutually agreed upon with the potential interviewees. To get maximum cooperation and good responses from the interview participants, the researcher (a) assured them of their confidentiality and anonymity, (b)

explained to them the method of the interview, and (c) solicited their permission to tape the interviews by using an audiotape recorder.

The researcher recorded the interviewees' responses with an audio recorder for those who agreed. For those respondents who disallowed tape recording (i.e., two cases), their responses were handwritten. The taping of interviews increased the accuracy of the data collection and allowed the researcher to be attentive to the interviewees. The researcher also took brief notes during the interviews (a) to assist him in formulating later questions, (b) to facilitate later analysis of data, and (c) to help the researcher pace the interviews. The researcher pursued anticipated subjects of interest that emerged during the interviews at the end of the interview sessions.

The researcher transcribed the interview tapes fully as soon as he returned from the field, coded the tapes, labeled the transcripts appropriately to ensure the participants' confidentiality, and sorted the transcripts according to the major groups of interviewees—teachers, headteachers, education officers.

The researcher explained to the interviewees that the recording would be transcribed and number codes would only be used for the purpose of reference. After the transcriptions were completed, the recording would be deleted completely. Therefore, confidentiality was assured. In order to get the full cooperation and good responses from the interviewees, the researcher instructed them that all information provided by them would be treated as confidential. They were assured that no reference to them was made during or after the study.

Therefore, triangulation (questionnaires and interviews) methods were employed to collect data to allow the researcher to be more confident in the results (Jick, 2001). It also adds breadth and depth to any investigation (Flick,

1999). Furthermore, according to Brewer and Hunter (2006), the use of a multi-methods approach reduces the research weaknesses and complements strengths. In addition, a combination of quantitative and qualitative data can provide more information regarding a phenomenon than either one of them alone (Langenbach, Vaughn, & Aagaard, 1994). Charles (1998) emphasised the value of qualitative research, in particular, in the statement that such research can yield information not readily available.

3.5 Data Analysis

Data analysis is “the process of systematically searching and arranging data... to enable you to come up with findings” (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003, p. 147) and is “what researchers do to answer their particular research question (s)” (Langenbach et al., 1994, p. 237). “Which data to code, which to pull out, which patterns summarise a number of chunks, what the evolving story is, are all analytic choices” (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 21). The information obtained from this study was analyzed in various ways using several different procedures.

Data Analysis from the Questionnaire

Descriptive statistics were used in this study to classify and summarise the data collected from questionnaires (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2009). It was also used to describe the data that had been collected (Borg & Gall, 2003). The percentages, relative frequencies, mean, ranks, and standard deviations were the main descriptive statistics used to explain the characteristics of the sample in the study and participants’ responses regarding (a) purposes, focuses, and practices of school-based instructional supervision; (b) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors; (c) personnel involved in instructional supervision;

and (d) degree of satisfaction with practices of instructional supervision. Frequency was also used to analyze the comments that were received through the questionnaires. It was used to indicate the number of responses from each element that were derived from the comments that could be fitted into each of the six variables based on whether it represented effective or less effective element.

The descriptive statistics were treated in tabular form to show the responses of the participants to the questionnaire items. Comparisons were made of the responses of teachers of their perceptions of present and preferred school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures in Saudi Arabia public secondary schools.

A major advantage of descriptive statistics is that they enable the researcher to use the mean and standard deviation to represent all the individual scores of participants in the sample (Babbie, 2002; Gall et al., 1996).

The researcher searched the data to determine the extent and patterns of omissions. There were a few notable cases of missing data. For example, 38 teachers did not address questions 1 to 3 in section 7 (general questions) in their respective questionnaires, seemingly due to time constraint. However, cases of missing data were excluded from the analysis of questionnaire data.

Content Analysis

In this study, data collected through qualitative interviews and responses from the open-ended sections of the questionnaires were analyzed for content. Cohen and Manion 1985) explained that content analysis “is a multipurpose research method developed specifically for investigating a broad spectrum of

problems in which the content of communication serves as the basis of inference” (p. 120).

Through inductive analysis the researcher searched for regularities and patterns, identified themes emerging from the data, and constructed coding categories, based on the purpose of the study and the research questions (Babbie, 2002; Bogdan & Biklen, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994). Concepts from the literature on supervision were used to organise the qualitative data and to compare responses from teachers, headteachers, and education officers. As Miles and Huberman (1994) noted, qualitative studies ultimately aim at a pattern of relationship that can be identified only with a set of conceptually specified analytic categories, and quantitative data have to be reduced to ideas, themes, or meanings that can be managed so that conclusions can be derived.

Therefore, the major goal of the researcher’s endeavour in organising the qualitative data was to reduce the volume of the data without losing track of the essential characteristics and meanings contained (Smith & Glass, 1987).

In treating the information gathered by the interview, the researcher decided to follow the tactics recommended by Miles and Huberman (1994) to draw meanings and make conclusions. According to them, there are thirteen tactics to draw meanings that can help in drawing and verifying conclusions: (1) noting patterns, themes; (2) seeing plausibility; (3) clustering; (4) making metaphors; (5) counting; (6) making contrasts/comparisons; (7) partitioning variables; (8) subsuming particulars into the general; (9) factoring; (10) noting relations between variables; (11) finding intervening variables; (12) building a logical chain of evidence; and (13) making conceptual/theoretical coherence. Themes from the interview were noted and then clustered according to the six

variables. The six variables were: (1) purposes of school-based instructional supervision, (2) focuses of school-based instructional supervision, (3) practices of school-based instructional supervision, (4) skills and attributes of instructional supervisors, (5) types of instructional supervisors, and (6) degree of satisfaction with practices of instructional supervision. Quotations from the participants were selected to capture the context in which they were used, to support conclusions, and to enable the readers to judge the transferability of the meaning and interpretation of the data.

3.6 Ethical Considerations

While the researcher was guided by his thesis supervisor in the process of this research study, the researcher endeavoured to adhere strictly to the ethical procedures of the University of York. The purpose of the study was explained to each of the participants in understandable terms. The promises the researcher upheld to the participants included: not jeopardising the participant in terms of any stress, fulfilling the promise of confidentiality and trying to safeguard anonymity (Merriam, 1998; Patton, 2002; Seidman, 2006) and being honest and fair in dealing with the researcher's participants. The researcher told the participants verbally and in written form that they could refuse to answer any question or withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty whatsoever.

CHAPTER 4

SCHOOL-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

This chapter reports the findings derived from the analysis of the questionnaires and interviews data regarding school-based instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools as perceived by teachers, headteachers, and district education officers.

The researcher has presented the findings in nine major component areas based on the questionnaires and interviews data : (a) demographic characteristics of teachers; (b) meaning of instructional supervision(This component presents the findings based on interviews with participants.), (c) purposes of school-based instructional supervision, (d) focuses of school-based instructional supervision, (e) practices of school-based instructional supervision, (f) skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors, (g) personnel involved in school-based instructional supervision, and (h) the degree of satisfaction with school-based instructional supervision. The researcher has attempted to compare the findings from the questionnaire-based data with those from the interview data. A discussion of the major findings is included.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of Teachers

There were 272 teachers out of 400 teachers asked to participate in the study. The 272 responses represented a 68% return rate. A profile of teachers was developed in terms of the following major aspects: (a) age, (b) sex, (c) professional/academic qualification, (d) length of service as teacher, (e) length of service in present school, and (f) number of pupils and teachers in the current school. The researcher used these variables to determine whether or not teachers report the same kind of information based on the same variables about

instructional supervision. Demographic data were analyzed frequencies and percentages. The data are presented in detail in Tables 4.1 to 4.5.

The frequency and percentage distributions of the respondents by age were determined. Ten percent of the teachers surveyed were under 30 years of age, about 74% were between 30 and 40 years of age, and only 2% were over 50 years of age (see Table 4.1). Of the total number of participants surveyed through questionnaires (n=272), 62% were male and nearly 38% were female (see Table 4.2). The teachers surveyed by questionnaire had either Diploma certificates or Bachelor of Education degrees as their highest professional qualification (see Table 4.3). Table 4.3 also shows that only about 4.2% of the questionnaire participants had qualifications such as Postgraduate Diploma in Education. The data related to length of service suggest very few (0.8%) of the questionnaire participants had served for less than 1 year in their present position, whereas substantial numbers of them had 5 to 6 years (16.1%), 9 to 10 years (24.2%), or over 10 years (41.1%) of experience in their present position (see Table 4.4). Data regarding teachers' length of service in present schools show that 7.9% of the questionnaire participants had been in their present school for less than 1 year, 43% of them had served for either 3 to 4 years or 5 to 6 years in their present school, and only 9.4% of them had worked for over 10 years in their present school at the time they responded to the questionnaires (see Table 4.5).

In this study school size was measured by the total number of full-time teachers deployed at each school and by the total number of pupils enrolled at each school. The mean number of teachers in the sampled schools was 29.5 while the mean number of pupils in the schools sampled was 461.3. In all, a total of 23 schools were surveyed.

Table 4.1: Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers by Age

	Teachers	
	f	%
Under 30 years	26	9.6
30-40	200	73.5
41-50	42	15.4
Over 50	4	1.5
Total	272	100.0

Table 4.2: Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers by Sex

	Teachers	
	f	%
Male	164	62.1
Female	100	37.9
Total	264	100.0

Table 4.3: Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers by Academic Qualifications

	Teachers	
	f	%
Diploma	73	29.3
Bachelor of Education	165	66.3
Bachelor of Arts/Science	-	-
Postgraduate Diploma in Education	8	3.2
Other	3	1.2
Total	249	100.0

Table 4.4: Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers by Length of Service in Present Positions

	Teachers	
	f	%
Less than 1 year	2	0.8
1 - 2 years	-	-
3 - 4 years	18	7.3
5 - 6 years	40	16.1
7 - 8 years	26	10.5
9-10 years	60	24.2
Over 10 years	102	41.1
Total	248	100.0

Table 4.5: Frequency and Percentage Distributions of Teachers by Length of Service in Present Position in Present School

	Teachers	
	f	%
Less than 1 year	20	7.9
1 - 2 years	38	15.0
3 - 4 years	46	18.1
5 - 6 years	64	25.2
7 - 8 years	36	14.2
9 - 10 years	26	10.2
Over 10 years	24	9.4
Total	254	100.0

4.2 Meaning of Instructional Supervision

One of the questions addressed in this study centered on respondents' views regarding the meaning of instructional supervision. This section presents the findings regarding the meaning of instructional supervision based on interviews with participants.

The analysis of the data obtained from interviews with teachers, headteachers, and education officers revealed mixed understandings of what instructional supervision entailed. According to the teachers interviewed, instructional supervision is a process by which headteachers and heads of departments facilitate teaching and learning in the schools by monitoring teachers' work. On the other hand, headteachers and education officers interviewed perceived instructional supervision as a process of ensuring that students are actually taught by their teachers as mandated by the school authority. Further to this, headteachers regarded instructional supervision as a process of checking how instruction is conducted in the school.

The statements below typify respondents' views of instructional supervision. A teacher shared:

It simply means devices put in place to enhance proper learning process and the monitoring process as I understand. Monitoring here would involve checks put by the headteacher to ensure that teachers carry on with their teaching-learning process. They give assignments to students; they test the students; they mark the same; and they release the results and maybe they end up carrying out certain duties which relate to their work, like supervising the games activities and the like.

Supporting the view shared above, a headteacher stated:

Finding out generally what is taking place within the school in terms of the curriculum and extra-curriculum activities. For example, it is very important to know how the teachers attend their lessons, those that are not attending, or the general attendance of coming to school, and also to find out whether the students are being taught all the subjects.

Finally, a headteacher saw instructional supervision as “the kind of supervision that is carried out by either the head of the institution or the deputy headteacher to check the way the teaching process goes on and the way day-to-day instructions are given”

Synthesis and Discussion of Meaning Instructional Supervision

The interview data revealed a considerable discrepancy among teachers, headteachers, and district education officers regarding the meaning of instructional supervision. However, the three groups of professionals agreed that instructional supervision includes strategies put into place by the headteacher, deputy headteacher, or head of department to monitor the teaching and learning process in the school, and it is a way of checking other people’s work to ensure that bureaucratic regulations and procedures are followed and that loyalty to the higher authorities is maintained. Such strategies include ensuring that teachers carry out the following major activities: (a) attending scheduled lessons; (b) giving assignments and tests to students; (c) marking students’ work and providing feedback; (d) assisting students with extracurricular activities; (e)

preparing the necessary artifacts of teaching, such as schemes of work and lesson plans; and (f) implementing instructions from school administration.

Supervision as Inspection

The participants seemed to equate instructional supervision with inspection, which involves overseeing, directing, controlling, reporting, commanding, and other activities that assess the extent to which particular objectives have been accomplished as required by the higher authority. Indeed, one particular headteacher described his own experience in the following way:

I'm confused about the term, " instructional supervision " and exactly what it means. To start of with, it was called " inspection " and I think under the regulations it's still called " inspection "... And " inspection " was something that I understood in kind of a more holistic way. It wasn't just about results, it was about teacher development. It wasn't linked to pupil results either when it was just " inspection " - before the instructional supervision system came in... What's happening now - I think - because of the emphasis on pupil results, unfortunately, the teachers' personal development side of it is being lost. Pupil results seem to be the driving forces - not teacher development.

Murphy (1990); Oliva & Pawlas (2001); Robbins & Alvy (2003) have noted that the supervision process conducted as inspection may have several negative consequences: (a) It may not be effective in improving teaching and learning in educational institutions, (b) it may result in a lack of sufficient teacher support, (c) there is no guarantee that teachers will recognise and accept any shortcomings identified by school-based supervisors, (d) there may be a lack of professional commitment on the part of teachers, (e) teachers are likely to be stressed by this mode of supervision, and (f) a harsh and unfriendly relationship is likely to develop between teachers and school-based instructional supervisors, especially when teachers are not given a chance to disapprove inappropriate policies imposed on them by school-based supervisors. Also, because of the

varying interpretations of instructional supervision, there may be no uniformity regarding the practices of school-based instructional supervision across the Saudi Arabian public secondary system.

Therefore, it is concluded that teachers, especially, might see instructional supervision as a strategy aimed at policing their work. Teachers' and headteachers' perception of instructional supervision is an important area because it is closely linked to students' academic performance. The success of the instructional supervision program depends on teachers' and supervisors' understanding of the meaning of supervision. Only then can these professionals have productive supervisory relations.

4.3 Purposes of School-Based Instructional Supervision

One set of sub-problems of the study addressed the views of teachers, headteachers, and district education officers on the purposes served by school based instructional supervision. This section presents the analysis of the data obtained by the questionnaire and interviews with teachers, headteachers, and district education officers and presents the findings relating to the purposes of school-based instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Ten statements describing the purposes of school-based instructional supervision were included in the teacher questionnaire instrument (Table 4.6 and Appendix A). The statements focused on the following major aspects relating to the purposes of instructional supervision: (a) assessment of teachers' instructional abilities; (b) making administrative decisions about teachers regarding promotion, demotion, and dismissal; (c) assessment of government

policies; (d) collaborative decision making regarding the establishment of teaching objectives; (e) discussions about classroom teaching; (f) analysis and judgments regarding teaching; (g) collegial confrontation of instructional techniques; (h) identification of teaching and learning resources; (i) information about professional development opportunities; and (j) improvement of teaching effectiveness. For details regarding specific statements of purposes of instructional supervision, see Appendix (A).

The respondents were requested to indicate their level of agreement with each statement by choosing from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The respondents were also requested to indicate the level of importance attached to each purpose by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*no importance*) to 5 (*very great*). The percentage and frequency distributions, mean scores, and standard deviations were computed for each of the purposes.

The findings regarding teachers' views about the purposes of school-based instructional supervision are reported in this section in terms of teachers' level of agreement with the purposes and the degree of importance they attached to the purposes of school based instructional supervision. To do this effectively, I highlighted the purposes with which the teachers either (a) strongly agreed or agree (b) disagreed or strongly disagreed. Similarly, I have included only the purposes that received the highest and lowest rating in terms of level of agreement or degree of importance.

The data collected regarding teachers' perceptions of the purposes of school-based instructional supervision shows that about 83% of the teachers agreed or strongly agreed that school-based instructional supervision helped

them to improve their teaching effectiveness, nearly 90 % agreed or strongly agreed that instructional supervision gave headteachers and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives, almost 88% agreed or strongly agreed that school-based instructional supervision gave teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching, nearly 84% agreed or strongly agreed that school-based instructional supervision helped teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources, and approximately 88% agreed or strongly agreed that school-based instructional supervision gave the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching (Table 4.6).

At the other extreme, 14% of the teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed that school-based instructional supervision enlightening teachers about professional development opportunities, 11% of the teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed that school-based instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding promotion, demotion, and dismissal. just over 1% of the teachers either disagreed or strongly disagreed that school-based instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers, and less than 1% strongly disagreed that school-based instructional supervision enabled the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction were being realised. Interestingly, a large majority of teachers just over 80% had no idea about the purposes of school-based instructional supervision, especially with respect to the headteacher's administrative decisions regarding promotion, demotion, or dismissal (Table 4.6).

Over 80% of the teachers perceived that great or very great importance was attached to giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to work together in establishing teaching objectives, about 71% believed that helping teachers improve their teaching effectiveness was of great or very great importance, and about 76% perceived that giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching was of great or very great importance in school-based instructional supervision (Table 4.7).

At the other end of the scale, 17% of the teachers perceived that enabling the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding promotion, demotion, and dismissal was either of some or of no importance in instructional supervision, about 12% of the teachers perceived that enlightening teachers about professional development opportunities was of some or no importance, nearly 4% of the teachers perceived that enabling the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realised was either of some or of no importance in instructional supervision, about 3% reported that giving teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching was of some or no importance, and about 3% perceived that helping teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources was of some or no importance in school-based instructional supervision (Table 4.7).

A comparison between teachers' level of agreement with the purposes and degree of importance attached to the purposes of school-based instructional supervision was conducted (Table 4.8). The purposes have been ranked from highest to lowest level of agreement with the purposes and degree of importance attached to the same purposes by the teachers. The following three purposes of school-based instructional supervision were ranked first, second, and third,

respectively, in terms of teachers' level of agreement: (a) giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to work together in establishing teaching objectives, (b) giving teachers opportunities to analyze and make judgments about their teaching, and (c) helping teachers improve their teaching effectiveness (Table 4.8). With respect to teachers' perceptions of the degree of importance scale, the following were ranked from most to least important: (a) giving the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives, (b) giving the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching, (c) giving teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching and (d) helping teachers improve their teaching effectiveness (Table 4.8).

At the other extreme, based on the teachers' level of agreement, Table 4.8 indicates that the following purposes ranked lowest: (a) enabling the headteacher to make administrative decisions regarding teachers' promotion, demotion, dismissal; (b) enabling the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realised, and (c) enlightening teachers about professional development opportunities. These three purposes also ranked lowest on the degree of importance scale.

Table 4.6
Teachers' Perceptions of Purposes of School-based Instructional Supervision
(N=272)

	5 Strongly agree		4 Agree		3 Uncertain		2 Disagree		1 Strongly disagree		no answer		Mean	S.D.
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
1.gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching	150	55.1	90	33.1	16	5.9	10	3.7	-	-	6	2.2	4.43	0.77
2.provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	116	42.6	112	41.2	20	7.4	8	2.9	-	-	16	5.9	4.31	0.75
3.helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	138	50.7	90	33.1	32	11.8	4	1.5	2	0.7	6	2.2	4.35	0.81
4. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	102	37.5	100	36.8	22	8.1	32	11.9	6	2.2	10	3.7	3.99	1.08
5.helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	158	58.1	68	25.0	26	9.6	10	3.7	4	1.5	6	2.2	4.38	0.92
6.gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	158	58.1	88	32.4	10.0	3.7	8	2.9	4	1.5	4	1.5	4.45	0.83

Continued

Table 4.6(continued)

	5 Strongly agree		4 Agree		3 Uncertain		2 Disagree		1 Strongly disagree		no answer		Mean	S.D.
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
7.gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	130	47.8	110	40.4	16	5.9	6	2.2	2	0.7	8	2.9	4.36	0.76
8.enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	30	11.0	30	11.0	6	2.2	2	0.7	2	0.7	202	74.3	4.20	0.93
9. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding promotion, demotion and dismissal	4	1.5	2	0.7	16	5.9	14	5.1	16	5.9	220	80.9	2.31	1.19
10. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realised	18	6.6	30	11.0	6	2.2	-	-	2	0.7	216	79.4	4.11	0.88

Table 4.7**Teachers' Perceptions of Importance Attached to Purposes of School-based Instructional Supervision
(N=272)**

	5 Very great		4 Great		3 Moderate		2 Some		1 no importance		no answer		Mean	S.D.
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
1.gives teachers an opportunity to analyse and make judgments about their teaching	116	42.6	86	31.6	34	12.5	4	1.5	4	1.5	28	10.3	4.25	0.88
2.provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	100	36.8	78	28.7	36	13.2	16	5.9	8	2.9	34	12.5	4.03	1.07
3.helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	110	40.4	84	30.9	42	15.4	4	1.5	4	1.5	28	10.3	4.20	0.90
4. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	110	40.4	66	24.4	36	13.2	14	5.1	18	6.6	28	10.3	3.97	1.23
5.helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	144	52.9	50	18.4	26	9.6	16	5.9	8	2.9	28	10.3	4.25	1.10
6.gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	150	55.1	72	26.5	16	5.9	6	2.2	10	2.2	22	8.1	4.42	0.90

Continued

Table 4.7 (continued)

	5 Very great		4 Great		3 Moderate		2 Some		1 no importance		no answer		Mean	S.D.
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
7.gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	134	49.3	74	27.2	26	9.6	10	3.7	4	1.5	24	8.8	4.31	0.93
8.enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	32	11.8	16	5.9	2	4.4	6	2.2	-	-	206	75.7	4.12	1.02
9. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding promotion,demotion and dismissal	-	-	4	1.5	8	2.9	16	5.9	30	11.0	214	78.7	1.76	0.95
10. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realised	16	5.9	20	7.4	8	2.9	4	1.5	6	2.2	218	80.1	3.67	1.30

Table 4.8
Comparison between Teachers' Level of Agreement with Purposes and Degree of Importance Attached to Purposes in School-based Instructional Supervision

	Level of Agreement				Degree of Importance			
	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching	266	4.43	0.77	2	244	4.25	0.88	3.5
2. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	256	4.31	0.75	6	238	4.03	1.07	7
3. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	266	4.35	0.81	5	244	4.20	0.09	5
4. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	262	3.99	1.08	8	244	3.97	1.23	8
5. helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	266	4.38	0.92	3	244	4.25	1.10	3.5
6. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	268	4.45	0.83	1	250	4.42	0.90	1

Continued

Table 4.8 (continued)

	Level of Agreement				Degree of Importance			
	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank	n	Mean	S.D.	Rank
7. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	264	4.36	0.78	4	248	4.31	0.93	2
8. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	70	4.20	0.93	7	66	4.12	1.02	6
9. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding promotion, demotion and dismissal	52	2.31	1.19	10	58	1.76	0.95	10
10. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realised	56	4.11	0.88	9	54	3.67	1.30	9

Interview Findings

The analysis of the data obtained during interviews with teachers, headteachers, and district education officers revealed three major themes relative to the purposes of school based instructional supervision: student performance, teacher performance, and curriculum implementation.

(i) Student Performance

Thirteen teachers, four headteachers, and two education officers agreed that school-based instructional supervision was conducted for the purposes of facilitating student performance, especially in the national examinations.

The academic success of students was commonly mentioned as one of the major concerns of schooling that needed to be addressed through supervision of instruction. In general, the participants agreed that instructional supervision (a) contributed to academic excellence, especially in the national schools; (b) contributed to students' high academic achievement in the national examinations; and (c) improved students' academic results.

(ii) Teacher Performance

Six participants explained that instructional supervision was done to ensure that teachers performed their instructional duties as mandated by the higher authorities. As one teacher stated:

The purpose is basically to see that we are working. The headteacher would do that supervision for the purposes of appraisal of staff performance because I am sure he has a duty to be writing reports, confidential reports about the performance of staff.

Several participants noted that school based instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, had the responsibility of ensuring that, through instructional supervision, teachers taught their lessons well.

(iii) *Curriculum Implementation*

Five participants took the view that instructional supervision was done in order to facilitate curriculum implementation in the schools. One teacher, in a general remark, commented that

A school has its mission, may be as a center of learning. So the school has been given what to teach in learning-teaching process. The curriculum we follow is not ours. We have been given it by the Ministry of Education. Syllabuses are there which must be accomplished within a certain period of time. At the end of each period, the national exams are set to evaluate if that implementation of the syllabuses has been done correctly.

Many of the comments made in relation to curriculum implementation were prefaced with comments regarding subject and syllabus coverage and preparation for national examinations. However, there were some differences in the beliefs of three groups of professionals regarding what purposes school-based instructional supervision served in the schools. Whereas a few teachers believed that instructional supervision was done for the purposes of appraising teachers, some headteachers and deputy headteachers felt with what took place in the school organisation. On the other hand, a few education officers agreed that the major purpose of instructional supervision was to identify teachers' instructional strengths and weaknesses. As one education officer stated:

I think the major purpose of this type of supervision is basically to find out about the strengths and weaknesses of teachers in the school. Where there are weaknesses, the teachers concerned can be advised to improve their performance accordingly.

It is clear that, whereas the findings from the questionnaire data suggested that, in the main, school-based instructional supervision facilitated collaboration between the headteacher and teachers to address various professional concerns, information from the interview participants indicated that school-based instructional supervision served four major purposes: (a) to ensure

quality teaching, (b) to appraise teachers, (c) to enhance student performance, and (d) to facilitate curriculum implementation.

Synthesis and Discussion of the Purposes of Instructional Supervision

The findings relating to the purposes of school-based instructional supervision based on the questionnaire data indicated that the majority of teachers agreed that school-based instructional supervision gave headteachers and teachers opportunities to work together in establishing teaching effectiveness and to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching. Further to this, the findings from the interview data revealed three purposes of school based instructional supervision: (a) to facilitate student performance, (b) to ensure that teachers perform their instructional duties as mandated by the higher authorities, and (c) to facilitate curriculum implementation.

It is noteworthy that both questionnaire and interview findings address the following perspectives of instructional supervision:

Teacher Development

The concept of teacher development includes working with teachers to improve and to work on their practice with their students and to build a collaborative culture in the school in which teachers are encouraged and supported to lead and to learn from one another.

That supervision is geared toward teacher development has been supported by Robbins and Alvy (1995) and Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), who concurred that the key to successful supervision is the extent to which teachers are learning and the extent to which this learning influences their teaching practice positively so they become the best they can be and that

supervision for teacher development should promote the learning and growth of teachers as persons and as professionals.

Student Development

The participants agreed that the practice of school-based instructional supervision in the schools was student oriented. This finding supports the view held by Harris (1985) and Kosmoski (1997) that the ultimate purpose of supervision is to improve teaching and thereby promote successful student learning. Similarly, this finding supports Sergiovanni and Starratt's (2002) belief that the purpose of supervision is to help increase teachers' instructional performance as well as instructional quality in ways that contribute more effectively to students' academic success.

Curriculum Development

The participants regarded curriculum development as an important concern in the instructional supervision programs in the schools. This finding supports the belief that instructional leadership in effective schools has a high priority in the areas of curriculum and instruction (Hallinger & Murphy, 1987). Further to this, Muhammad et al. (1999), in highlighting the curriculum-development perspective of instructional supervision, explained that supervision may be geared toward the development of new courses, the implementation of existing ones, and the improvement of the learning environment to suit the needs of teachers and pupils and to cater for the changing aspects of education.

4.4 Focuses of School-based Instructional Supervision

A further sub-problem in the study was to explore participants' perceptions about the focuses of school-based instructional supervision. This

section reports the findings regarding the focuses of school-based instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Twenty-two statements describing the focuses of instructional supervision were listed in each questionnaire instrument (Appendices A and B). The statements addressed the following major aspects regarding instructional supervision focuses: (a) organisation of lessons, (b) subject matter, (c) pupils' academic development, (d) school curriculum, (e) lesson plan, (f) pupils' individual inquiry, (g) teaching guides, (h) course objectives, (i) teacher's personality, (j) pupils' character development, (k) pupils' progress records, (l) records of work covered, (m) teacher's dress and appearance, (n) pupils' sense of responsibility, (o) instructional course, (p) teacher's questioning style, (q) classroom management, (r) extracurricular activities, (s) pupils' performance in national examinations, (t) teacher self-evaluation, and (u) teacher-pupil relationship. For details about specific statements regarding supervision focuses, see Appendixes A.

The respondents were requested to indicate their (existing) and (preferred) extent of examination of each aspect by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*never examined*) to 5 (*very frequently examined*). The percentage and frequency distributions as well as mean scores and standard deviations were determined for each of the focuses.

The findings on teachers' perceptions of the focuses of school-based instructional supervision are presented in this section in terms of existing and preferred frequency of examination of the focuses. I have included only the

focuses that ranked highest and lowest in terms of frequency of examination as perceived by teachers.

Teachers' perceptions of the frequency of examination of existing and preferred focuses of school-based instructional supervision were explored (Table 4.9). The focuses have been ranked from highest to lowest frequency of examination based on mean responses for existing and preferred focuses of school-based instructional supervision (see Table 4.10). The data collected suggest that availability of properly organised pupils' progress records ranked first in terms of existing frequency of examination, teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations ranked second, and availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered ranked third (Table 4.10). At the other extreme, three focuses ranked lowest in terms of existing frequency of examination: teacher's dress and appearance, teacher's use of teaching aids, and the manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class (Table 4.10).

In terms of preferred frequency of examination, the focus that ranked first was teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations, followed by availability of properly organised pupils' progress records, and, finally, availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered (Table 4.10). The focuses that ranked lowest in terms of preferred frequency of examination included preparation of an appropriate lesson plan, the manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class, and teacher's dress and appearance (Table 4.10).

Table 4.9
Teachers' Perceptions of the Frequency of Existing and Preferred Focuses of School-based Instructional Supervision
(N=272)

		5		4		3		2		1		No answer		Mean	S.D.
		Very frequently examined		Often Examined		Sometimes examined		Rarely examined		Never examined					
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
1. Teacher's overall organisation of lessons	E	50	18.4	72	26.5	96	35.3	30	11.0	18	6.6	6	2.2	3.40	1.12
	P	90	33.1	102	37.5	36	13.2	12	4.4	4	1.5	28	10.3	4.07	0.93
2. Teacher's organisation of the subject matter	E	30	11.0	64	23.5	84	30.9	38	14.0	44	16.9	12	4.4	2.99	1.24
	P	76	27.9	88	32.4	46	16.9	10	3.7	20	7.4	32	11.8	3.79	1.18
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter	E	36	13.2	48	17.6	48	17.6	54	19.9	58	21.3	28	10.3	2.80	1.39
	P	72	26.5	64	23.5	68	25.0	6	2.2	20	7.4	42	15.4	3.70	1.19
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development	E	94	34.6	102	37.5	42	15.4	20	7.4	12	4.4	2	0.7	3.91	1.10
	P	148	54.4	72	26.5	26	9.6	4	1.5	4	1.5	18	6.7	4.40	0.86
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum	E	50	18.4	56	20.6	72	26.5	40	14.7	36	13.2	18	6.6	3.17	1.31
	P	96	35.3	70	25.7	62	22.8	18	6.6	4	1.5	22	8.1	3.94	1.03
6. Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan	E	52	19.1	50	18.4	40	14.7	58	21.3	66	24.3	24	8.8	2.93	1.51
	P	76	27.9	70	25.7	52	19.1	18	6.6	26	9.6	30	11.0	3.63	1.29
7. Teacher's concern with the pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry	E	48	17.6	62	22.8	64	23.5	59	21.3	32	11.8	8	2.9	3.14	1.29
	P	92	33.8	80	29.4	58	21.3	14	5.1	4	1.5	24	8.8	3.98	0.99
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids	E	24	8.8	34	12.5	68	25.0	60	22.1	68	25.0	18	6.6	2.55	1.28
	P	92	33.8	80	29.4	58	21.0	14	5.1	4	1.5	24	8.8	3.98	1.20

continued

Table 4.9 (continued)

		5		4		3		2		1		No answer		Mean	S.D.
		Very frequently examined		Often examined		Sometimes examined		Rarely examined		Never examined					
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
9. Achievement of course objectives	E	76	27.9	78	28.7	48	17.6	36	13.2	26	9.6	8	2.9	3.54	1.30
	P	130	47.8	82	30.1	28	10.3	8	2.9	2	0.7	22	8.1	4.32	0.86
10. Teacher's personality	E	44	16.2	46	16.9	80	29.4	38	14.0	32	11.8	32	11.8	3.13	1.27
	P	66	24.3	64	23.5	74	27.2	8	2.9	14	5.1	46	16.9	3.71	1.12
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development	E	76	27.9	64	23.5	66	24.3	44	16.2	18	6.6	4	1.5	3.51	1.25
	P	126	46.3	84	30.9	30	11.0	6	2.2	6	2.2	20	7.4	4.26	0.93
12. Availability of properly organised pupils' progress records	E	148	54.4	80	29.4	28	10.3	10	3.7	-	-	6	2.2	4.38	0.82
	P	166	61.0	72	26.5	6	2.2	2	0.7	2	0.7	24	8.8	4.60	0.66
13. Availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered	E	134	49.3	64	23.5	48	17.6	14	5.1	12	4.4	-	-	4.08	1.13
	P	168	61.8	56	20.6	20	7.4	6	2.2	2	0.7	20	7.4	4.52	0.81
14. Teacher's dress and appearance	E	28	10.3	44	16.2	62	22.8	38	14.0	60	22.1	40	14.7	2.75	1.35
	P	60	22.1	68	25.0	60	22.1	18	6.6	22	8.1	44	12.2	3.55	1.23
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility	E	80	29.4	64	23.5	58	21.3	40	14.7	24	8.8	6	2.2	3.51	1.31
	P	122	44.9	90	33.1	28	10.3	6	2.2	4	1.5	22	8.1	4.28	0.88
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting	E	44	16.2	58	21.3	62	22.8	44	16.2	42	15.4	22	8.1	3.07	1.34
	P	90	33.1	98	36.0	34	12.5	6	2.2	8	2.9	36	13.2	4.08	0.97

continued

Table 4.9 (continued)

		5		4		3		2		1		No answer		Mean	S.D.
		Very frequently examined		Often Examined		Sometimes examined		Rarely examined		Never examined					
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class	E	16	5.9	36	13.2	48	17.6	58	21.3	74	27.2	40	14.7	2.41	1.27
	P	56	20.6	74	27.2	60	22.1	16	5.9	18	6.6	48	17.6	3.60	1.17
18. Teacher's classroom management	E	52	19.1	68	25.0	58	21.3	36	13.2	44	16.2	14	5.1	3.19	1.37
	P	96	35.3	86	31.6	52	19.1	8	2.9	8	2.9	22	8.1	4.02	1.01
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities	E	30	11.0	32	19.1	96	35.3	50	18.4	26	9.6	18	6.6	3.04	1.14
	P	64	23.5	92	33.8	54	19.9	6	2.2	8	2.9	44	17.6	3.88	0.97
20. Teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations	E	156	57.4	58	21.3	48	17.6	6	2.2	-	-	4	1.5	4.36	0.85
	P	180	66.2	54	19.9	14	5.1	-	-	2	0.7	22	8.1	4.64	0.66
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities	E	48	17.6	60	22.1	76	27.9	30	11.0	36	13.2	22	8.1	3.22	1.29
	P	84	30.9	94	34.6	42	15.4	8	2.9	6	2.2	38	14.0	4.03	0.96
22. Teacher-pupil relationships	E	98	36.0	80	29.4	56	20.6	12	4.4	14	5.1	12	4.4	3.91	1.12
	P	138	50.7	70	25.7	32	11.8	6	2.2	2	0.7	24	8.8	4.35	0.86

E=Existing extent, P=Preferred extent

Table 4.10
Comparison between Teachers' Perceptions of the Frequency of Examination of Existing and Preferred Focuses of School-based Instructional Supervision

Focuses of school-based instructional supervision	Existing Extent			Preferred Extent		
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. Teacher's overall organisation of lessons (n=242)	3.40	1.10	9	4.08	0.93	9
2. Teacher's organisation of the subject matter (n=236)	2.98	1.23	17	3.81	1.19	16
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter (n=222)	2.79	1.35	19	3.71	1.20	19
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development (n=254)	3.88	1.11	4.5	4.40	0.86	4
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum (n=238)	3.13	1.29	12	3.94	1.03	14
6. Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan (n=230)	2.94	1.53	18	3.64	1.29	20
7. Teacher's concern with the pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry (n=244)	3.09	1.29	13.5	3.98	0.99	13
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids (n=234)	2.50	1.26	21	3.74	1.18	17
9. Achievement of course objectives (n=246)	3.50	1.31	7	4.33	0.85	6
10. Teacher's personality (n=220)	3.09	1.25	13.5	3.73	1.09	18
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development (n=250)	3.46	1.25	8	4.26	0.93	8
12. Availability of properly organised pupils' progress records (n=246)	4.37	0.81	1	4.60	0.66	2

continued

Table 4.10 (continued)

Focuses of school-based instructional supervision	Existing Extent			Preferred Extent		
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank
13. Availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered (n=252)	4.06	1.15	3	4.52	0.81	3
14. Teacher's dress and appearance (n=212)	2.76	1.34	20	3.62	1.17	22
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility (n=248)	3.52	1.32	6	4.27	0.88	7
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting (n=226)	3.07	1.34	15	4.07	0.97	10
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class (n=210)	2.44	1.27	22	3.63	1.13	21
18. Teacher's classroom management (n=238)	3.14	1.37	11	4.02	1.01	12
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities (n=220)	3.01	1.10	16	3.88	0.97	15
20. Teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations (n=248)	4.33	0.86	2	4.65	0.66	1
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities (n=226)	3.19	1.27	10	4.06	0.96	11
22. Teacher-pupil relationships (242)	3.88	1.13	4.5	4.36	0.86	5

Response scale: 5=very frequently examined, 1= never examined

Interview Findings

Three headteachers cited three focuses of instructional supervision that are primarily concerned with curriculum and instruction: (a) teacher's attendance to scheduled lessons, (b) teacher's participation in extracurricular activities, and (c) syllabus coverage by the teacher. One teacher, in a general remark, stated as follows:

I think it is important to check on attendance of teachers to their scheduled lessons or to their participation in extracurricular activities with pupils. Headteachers should also make sure that teachers cover the syllabuses in good time to prepare students for external exams.

Two teachers agreed that instructional supervisors should endeavour to find out how teachers assess their pupils' work. They argued that the various strategies that teachers use to assess students' progress will determine how students are prepared for national examinations. As one teacher remarked, "It would be helpful to know teachers assess their pupils' academic work because this is important for students' success in the national examinations."

Another area regarding the focuses of school-based instructional supervision cited by four interviewees was concerned with teacher performance in the classroom. These participants agreed that, to facilitate teaching and learning, the teachers' level of preparedness and general effectiveness in teaching should be the major focuses of the supervision of instruction. As one education officer commented, "The best thing to do is for supervisors to address areas like effectiveness of their classroom teachers and how they are prepared to teach."

One headteacher observed that teachers' teaching artifacts, such as examination and test papers, should be addressed during supervision process. This headteacher remarked, "Instructional supervisors should check the quality of

examination and test papers set by teachers because these are important teaching tools that would shape students' success in the final examinations. Do they set high quality papers which can promote learning?"

A final area relating to focuses of instructional supervision mentioned by some interviewees was concerned with human relations. One education officer noted that how teachers interact with students should be considered in the practices of instructional supervision and that the teacher-pupil relationship should be a major focus of instructional supervision. Another education officer commented, "When you are supervising a teacher, for example in the classroom, you must look at how the teacher interacts with pupils. This interaction is important because it will affect learning."

In general, the focuses of school-based instructional supervision cited by interviewees concur with high-ranking focuses relative to the existing and preferred extent of examination by the teacher from the questionnaire data.

Synthesis and Discussion of School-based instructional supervision Focuses

The findings relating to teachers' perceptions of existing and preferred frequency of examination of the focuses of school-based instructional supervision revealed by questionnaire data indicate that three focuses received the highest ranking in both existing and preferred frequency of examination: (a) availability of properly organised pupils' progress records, (b) availability of up-to-date weekly record of work covered, and (c) teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations. Similarly, one focus, the manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class, received the lowest ranking in both existing and preferred frequency of examination as perceived by teachers.

The three focuses of school-based instructional supervision that received the highest ranking in terms of existing and preferred frequency of examination by the headteacher- availability of properly organised pupils' records, availability of up-to-date records of work covered, and teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations-were particularly interesting because, in Saudi Arabia, the three focuses are among the indicators of teachers' preparedness for effective teaching that the Ministry of Education expects headteachers to ensure. As explained by Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education (1998) headteachers, as managers of approved school curriculum, are expected to ensure that teachers prepare comprehensive tools of work, such as lesson plans and weekly records of work done, and check periodically pupils' exercise books, practical work, assignments, and continuous assessment to ensure regular marking and systematic use in guiding learners.

Teachers' concern with pupils' performance in national examinations is an important aspect of Saudi Arabia's education system, which seems to put a great deal of emphasis on passing of examinations. As Babbain (2004) noted, the overloaded system of education imposes cut-throat competition among schools, where learners are pushed to cut down others in national examinations, and forces teachers to be busy all year round as they struggle to complete the curriculum. To facilitate students' success in national examinations, as noted by Ibrahim (2000), teachers are expected to develop and transmit desired knowledge, skills, and attitudes to pupils, it is hoped, through instructional supervision.

Teacher's attendance to scheduled lessons is an important focus in school-based instructional supervision because it facilitates curriculum implementation.

Highlighting the role of the school head as a manager of the school, Hassan (1998) observed that the headteacher should ensure regular teaching of subjects to implement the school curriculum effectively.

Teacher attendance to scheduled lessons is a major issue in the Saudi Arabian education system because numerous cases of student unrest in the recent past have been attributed to teachers' failure to attend scheduled lessons. For example, Mahmoud (2004), commenting about student protest in one school cited "lessons missing" as one of the reasons for the student strike that paralyzed the school and led to its closure. Similarly, Attari (2005) cited teachers' boycott of scheduled classes as a major reason for the indefinite closure of the school and the temporary removal of students from the school.

Teacher's attendance to scheduled classes is linked to six other related focuses of school-based instructional supervision revealed by the interview data: (a) teacher's presence in the school, (b) teacher's effectiveness in the classroom, (c) teacher's level of preparedness, (d) teacher's methods of assessment of pupils' academic progress, (e) quality of test papers set by the teacher, and (f) syllabus coverage by the teacher, because they are all concerned with facilitating effective and quality curriculum implementation in the school. In the Saudi Arabian context, as explained in the Education Act (Saudi Arabia, 1980), *curriculum* means "all the subjects taught and all the activities provided at school, and may include the time devoted to each subject and activity" (p. 4), and *syllabus* means "a concise statement of the contents of a course of instruction in a subject or subjects" (p. 5). To facilitate curriculum implementation, in particular, Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education (1998) has underscored the role of the headteacher in supervising the school curriculum to ensure effective teaching and learning.

And Mohammed (2002) has concluded that the quality of curriculum implementation and management may determine student performance in external and school-based examinations.

4.5 Practices of School-based instructional supervision

A further sub-problem in the study was concerned with the perceptions of participants regarding the practices of school-based instructional supervision.

This section reports the findings relating to the practices of school-based instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Sixteen statements describing the practices of school-based instructional supervision as conducted by headteachers were listed in each teacher instrument (Appendices A and B). The statements covered the following major aspects relating to the practices of instructional supervision: (a) conducting teaching, (b) evaluating teachers' work, (c) providing information about supervisory process, (d) reducing teachers' anxieties regarding supervisory program, (e) collecting information about teachers, (f) pre-observation conferencing, (g) using examination results to indicate teacher performance, (h) interviewing students about teacher performance, (i) conferencing with teachers about classroom practice, (j) encouraging self-evaluation, (k) improving instructional quality, (l) writing supervisory reports, (m) providing supervisory feedback, (n) post-observation conferencing, (o) identifying areas of instructional improvement, and (p) rewarding deserving teachers. For details regarding specific statements about the practices of instructional supervision, see Appendices A and B.

The respondents were requested to indicate their preferences for existing and preferred importance given to each practice by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*no importance*) to 5 (*great*). The percentage

and frequency distributions, means, and standard deviations were determined for each practice. The data obtained from teachers, headteachers, and education officers relative to the practices of school-based instructional supervision are reported in Tables 4.11 and 4.12.

This section reports the findings relating to teachers' perceptions regarding the practices of school-based instructional supervision in terms of the importance they attach to the practices. Only the practices that received the highest and lowest rankings as perceived by teachers have been reported.

Teachers' responses relative to existing and preferred importance of practices of school-based instructional supervision were explored, as were comparisons between the existing and the preferred means and standard deviations of the practices of school-based instructional supervision as perceived by teachers (Tables 4.11). The practices have been ranked from highest to lowest based on the mean responses relating to existing and preferred practices (Table 4.12).

Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (i.e., self-evaluation; n=256) ranked first in order of importance as existing practice, followed by using examination/test results as indicators of teacher performance (n=254; see Table 4.12). Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted (n=256) and recognising and rewarding excellent teachers (n=256) formed a cluster in third position in order of importance as existing practices. At the other end, the practices that received the lowest ranks as existing practices included (a) writing supervisory reports for different audiences (n=250), (b) conducting conferences soon after observing teachers (n=248), and (c) meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation (n=250; see Table 4.12).

Regarding preferred practices, recognising and rewarding excellent teachers (n=256) ranked first in order of importance, encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (i.e., self-evaluation; n=256) ranked second, and providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process (n=256) ranked third (Table 4.12). The least preferred practices in order of importance were (a) meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation (n=250), (b) writing different supervisory reports for different audiences, and (c) obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interview (n=252; see Table 4.12).

Table 4.11
Teachers' Responses to Importance of Practices of School-Based Instructional Supervision
(N=272)

		5		4		3		2		1		No answer		Mean	S.D.
		Great importance		High importance		Moderate importance		Some importance		No importance					
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
1.Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted	E	68	25.0	84	30.9	64	23.5	32	11.8	18	6.6	6	2.2	3.57	1.19
	P	134	49.3	76	27.9	30	11.0	10	3.7	6	2.2	16	5.9	4.26	0.97
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated	E	78	28.7	76	27.9	54	19.9	32	11.8	24	8.8	8	2.9	3.58	1.28
	P	116	42.6	64	23.5	40	14.7	10	3.7	26	9.6	16	5.9	3.91	1.30
3.Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process	E	78	28.7	70	25.7	62	22.8	30	11.0	26	9.6	6	2.2	3.54	1.29
	P	142	52.2	80	29.4	20	7.4	8	2.9	6	2.2	16	5.9	4.34	0.93
4.Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory program	E	42	15.4	72	26.5	60	22.1	46	16.9	38	14.0	14	5.1	3.13	1.30
	P	108	39.7	82	30.1	32	12.5	8	2.9	18	6.6	22	8.1	4.02	1.16
5.Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves	E	44	16.2	58	21.3	52	19.1	52	19.1	56	20.6	10	3.7	2.93	1.40
	P	84	30.9	100	36.8	30	11.0	18	6.6	20	7.4	20	7.4	3.83	1.20
6.Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation	E	20	7.4	36	13.2	38	14.0	82	30.1	82	30.1	14	5.1	2.34	1.27
	P	36	20.6	92	34.6	38	14.0	18	6.6	44	16.2	22	8.1	3.40	1.38
7.Using examination/test results as an indicator of teacher performance	E	108	39.7	66	24.3	44	16.2	16	5.9	30	11.0	8	2.9	3.78	1.34
	P	124	45.6	54	19.9	44	16.2	20	7.4	12	4.4	18	6.6	4.02	1.19

continued

Table 4.11 (continued)

		5		4		3		2		1		No answer		Mean	S.D.
		Great importance		High importance		Moderate importance		Some importance		No importance					
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers performance through face-to-face interviews	E	40	14.7	46	16.9	72	26.5	44	16.2	60	22.1	10	3.7	2.85	1.37
	P	52	19.1	40	14.7	46	16.9	44	16.2	70	25.7	20	7.4	2.84	1.50
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice	E	66	24.3	40	14.7	68	25.0	40	14.7	48	17.6	10	3.7	3.14	1.43
	P	92	33.8	88	32.4	40	14.7	16	5.9	18	6.6	18	6.6	3.87	1.18
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (self-evaluation)	E	108	39.7	56	20.6	58	21.3	32	11.8	8	2.9	10	3.7	3.85	1.18
	P	156	57.4	70	25.7	26	9.6	-	-	4	1.5	16	5.9	4.46	0.80
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality	E	70	25.7	58	21.3	86	31.6	42	15.4	6	2.2	10	3.7	3.55	1.12
	P	126	46.3	98	36.0	18	6.6	10	3.7	4	1.5	16	5.9	4.30	0.88
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences	E	24	8.8	46	16.9	60	22.1	64	23.5	64	23.5	14	5.1	2.62	1.29
	P	50	18.2	66	24.3	56	20.6	30	11.0	48	17.6	22	8.1	3.16	1.39

continued

Table 4.11 (continued)

		5		4		3		2		1		No answer		Mean	S.D.
		great importance		high importance		moderate importance		some importance		no importance					
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback	E	60	22.1	36	13.2	56	20.6	68	25.0	40	14.7	12	4.4	3.03	1.40
	P	138	50.7	62	22.8	32	11.8	16	5.9	6	2.2	18	6.6	4.22	1.05
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers	E	36	13.2	28	10.3	40	14.7	74	27.2	78	28.7	16	5.9	2.49	1.39
	P	96	35.3	64	23.5	36	13.2	22	8.1	30	11.0	24	8.8	3.70	1.38
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them	E	48	17.6	54	19.9	52	19.9	54	19.9	42	15.4	20	7.4	3.05	1.37
	P	130	47.8	70	25.7	26	9.6	14	5.1	8	2.9	24	8.8	4.21	1.05
16. Recognising and rewarding excellent teachers	E	98	36.0	44	12.2	56	20.6	46	16.9	18	6.6	10	3.7	3.60	1.33
	P	190	69.9	46	16.9	20	7.4	-	-	-	-	16	5.9	4.66	0.62

E= Importance of existing practice, P= Importance of preferred extent

Table 4.12
Comparison between the Existing and Preferred Practices of Instructional Supervision as Perceived by Teachers

	Importance for Existing Practice			Importance for Preferred Practice		
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted (n=256)	3.59	1.18	3.5	4.26	0.97	5
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated (n=256)	3.58	1.27	5	3.91	1.30	10
3. Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process (n=256)	3.53	1.28	7	4.34	0.93	3
4. Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory program (n=250)	3.14	1.28	8	4.02	1.16	8.5
5. Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves (n=252)	2.94	1.39	12	3.83	1.20	12
6. Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation (n=250)	2.33	1.27	16	3.40	1.38	14
7. Using examination/test results as an indicator of teacher performance (n=254)	3.76	1.36	2	4.02	1.19	8.5

continued

Table 4.12 (continued)

	Importance for Existing Practice			Importance for Preferred Practice		
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers performance through face-to-face interviews (n=252)	2.83	1.37	13	2.84	1.50	16
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice (n=254)	3.13	1.43	9	3.87	1.18	11
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (self-evaluation) (n=256)	3.84	1.18	1	4.46	0.80	2
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality (n=256)	3.55	1.11	6	4.30	0.88	4
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences (n=250)	2.59	1.28	14	3.16	1.39	15
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback (n=254)	3.02	1.40	10.5	4.22	1.05	6
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers (n=248)	2.51	1.41	15	3.70	1.38	13
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them (n=246)	3.02	1.37	10.5	4.20	1.06	7
16. Recognising and rewarding excellent teachers (n=256)	3.59	1.34	3.5	4.66	0.62	1

Response scale: 5=great importance, 1= no importance

Interview Findings

Teachers, headteachers, and education officers interviewed cited the following practices of school-based instructional supervision that they had experienced: (a) checking teachers' professional tools of work or artifacts of teaching, such as schemes of work, records of work covered, lesson notes, lesson plans, lesson-focus books, mark books, daily preparation books, and part test papers; (b) examining students' exercise books; (c) using students to obtain information about teachers; (d) holding conferences with teachers; (e) observing teachers in their classrooms; and (f) supervision by walking around.

Six teachers, three headteachers, and two education officers agreed that holding conferences with teachers was one of the practices of school-based instructional supervision. Furthermore, two teachers, three headteachers, and two education officers identified observing teachers in their classrooms as one of the practices of school-based instructional supervision.

However, a few teachers and headteachers interviewed reported that classroom observation, in particular, was not a common practice in their schools.

As one headteacher commented

Visiting teachers in their classrooms to see how they teach is very difficult in our situation. And most teachers resent it so much, and personally I don't think I have done it. I don't think it is a practice. You know how it can be taken. In most cases, those who have attempted it have met with a lot of negativity. It is like you want to find faults from the teacher. Teachers fear it most.

Three teacher interviewees concurred that there were no supervisory reports on teachers written by headteachers, to the best of their knowledge. As one teacher remarked, "Once teachers have been supervised by the headteacher by whatever means, no supervisory reports are made, not at the school level. Maybe the headteacher would have his own reports."

The interviewees also gave least emphasis to practices such as examination of students' exercise books and using student leaders, commonly referred to as *prefects*, to obtain information about teachers. As one education officer stated, "But I don't think we need children to write anything about teachers for us to know whether or not teachers are on duty."

Synthesis and Discussion of Practices of School-based instructional supervision

The findings regarding the practices of school-based instructional supervision based on the questionnaire data revealed that recognising and rewarding excellent teachers was ranked highest by teachers as existing and preferred supervisory practice, whereas writing different supervisory reports for different audiences received low ranking as existing and preferred practice. The interview findings revealed six major practices of school-based instructional supervision: (a) checking teachers' artifacts of teaching, (b) examining students' exercise books, (c) using students to obtain information about teachers, (d) holding conferences with teachers, and (e) observing teachers in their classrooms.

Recognising and Rewarding Deserving Teachers

That recognising and rewarding excellent teachers ranked highest is noteworthy because it seems to be a viable strategy for motivating teachers, especially when the recognition is initiated by the headteacher as an instructional leader. This finding supports Sergiovanni's (2001) belief that one of the school principal's responsibilities is to build and to nurture motivation and commitment to teaching and that when teaching is rewarding professionally, teachers are likely to keep improving their effectiveness. The importance of recognising and rewarding teachers has also been supported elsewhere. For example, Hallinger and Murphy (1985) observed that setting up a work structure that rewards and

recognises teachers for their efforts was an important part of the principal's role in creating a positive learning climate.

In the Saudi Arabian context, as explained by Saudi Arabia Ministry of Education (1998), the headteacher's proper management, especially in recognising excellent performance, may facilitate high morale, motivation, integrity, and appropriate work ethics.

Artifacts of Teaching

The practices of school-based instructional supervision revealed by the interview data were also observed. For example, checking teacher's artifacts of teaching or tools of work is important in Saudi Arabian schooling because it is concerned with teachers' preparedness to teach classes. Whereas the Ministry of Education (1987) expects classroom teachers to prepare artifacts of teaching, it is the responsibility of the headteacher and heads of departments, especially, to ensure that such items are actually prepared appropriately and to check their relevance to the intended subjects. Furthermore, as the Ministry of Education explained, heads of departments, in particular, are responsible for maintaining a record of work of the subjects to be completed weekly by all subject heads.

Questionnaire and Interview Findings Compared

A comparison of questionnaire and interview findings regarding the practices of school-based instructional supervision revealed some interesting similarities. For example, the practice that ranked lowest in both existing and preferred extent of examination as perceived by teachers—writing different supervisory reports for different audiences—was also viewed by some interviewees as being nonexistent.

Also, the practice of obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews, which received relatively

low ranking in both existing and preferred extent of examination as perceived by teachers, was also considered inappropriate by some teachers and education officers interviewed. This practice was perhaps common especially in schools where feedback from students regarding teacher performance was productive. However, several views in the literature supported the involvement of students in evaluation of teachers. For example, Stronge and Ostrander (1997) argued that, because students are the primary consumers of teachers' services and have direct knowledge about classroom practices on a regular basis, they are in a key position to provide information about teacher effectiveness.

Whereas the questionnaire data indicated that meeting with teachers especially prior to classroom observation ranked lowest in order of importance as existing and preferred practice as perceived by teachers, the interview data indicated that holding conferences with teachers was prevalent in schools.

4.6 Skills and Attributes of School-based instructional Supervisors

Another sub-problem addressed in this study was concerned with the participants' perceptions regarding the skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors. *Skills* refer to special proficiencies or expertness that instructional leaders need to conduct instructional supervision, such as communication skills, observation skills, and problem-solving skills. On the other hand, *attributes* include qualities or characteristics that instructional leaders need to execute their instructional leadership roles effectively; for example, the ability to analyze teaching effectiveness, the ability to do long-term planning, and the ability to analyze complex problems. This section presents the findings regarding the skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Fifteen statements describing the skills and attributes potentially needed by headteachers, as school-based instructional supervisors, to perform instructional supervision were listed in each teacher instrument. The statements addressed the following major skill and attribute areas: (a) problem solving, analysis, and anticipation; (b) communication; (c) classroom observation; (d) instructional evaluation; (e) interpersonal relations; (f) teaching-learning relationships; (g) teaching performance; (h) conferencing; (i) sensitivity to other people's concerns; and (j) planning and coordination. For details regarding specific statements about skills and attributes required by headteachers, see Appendices A and B.

The respondents were requested to indicate the level of importance attached to each skill or attribute by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*no importance*) to 5 (*great*). The respondents were also requested to indicate the level of need for further preparation relative to each skill or attribute by selecting from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*none*) to 5 (*great*). The data obtained from teachers regarding their views about skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors are provided in Tables 4.13 and 4.14.

In this section are included the findings regarding teachers' perceptions about the skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors in terms of the importance given to the skills and attributes and need for further preparation of the headteacher in skill and attribute areas. Only the skills and attributes that ranked highest in terms of degree of importance and level of need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers have been reported.

Descriptive statistics relative to teachers' perceptions of the importance attached to and the need for further preparation of the headteacher regarding the

skills and attributes of instructional supervisors were determined from the data collected (Table 4.13). A comparison between the importance attached to and the need for further preparation regarding abilities of instructional supervisors as perceived by teachers was also explored (Table 4.14). The skills have been ranked from highest to lowest degree of importance and level of need for further preparation based on teachers' mean responses.

Teachers ranked the ability to communicate effectively most important, followed by the ability to bring people together to discuss issues, and then by instructional problem-solving skills (Table 4.14). At the other end of the continuum three skills were ranked lowest in order of importance by teachers: (a) skills in holding one-to-one conference, (b) skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction, and (c) skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom (Table 4.14).

Considering the need for further preparation of the headteacher for the instructional supervisory role, instructional problem-solving skills ranked first. The ability to communicate effectively and the ability to bring people together to discuss issues formed a cluster in second rank in terms of the need for further preparation, and the ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns ranked fourth (Table 4.14). At the extreme end the data in Table 4.14 indicate that three skills ranked lowest in terms of the need for further preparation: (a) skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction, (b) skills in holding one-to-one conference, and (c) skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom.

Table 4.13
Teachers' Perceptions of the Importance attached to and Need for Further Preparation Regarding Skills and Attributes of
Instructional Supervisors
(N=272)

		5		4		3		2		1		No answer		Mean	S.D.
		Great		High		Moderate		Some		None					
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
1. Instructional problem-solving	I	100	36.8	68	25.0	72	26.5	6	5.9	2	0.7	14	5.1	3.96	1.00
	N	132	48.5	70	25.7	22	8.1	12	4.4	14	5.1	22	8.1	4.18	1.14
2. Ability to communicate effectively	I	130	47.8	82	30.1	36	13.2	12	4.4	-	-	12	4.4	4.27	0.87
	N	152	55.9	52	19.1	14	5.1	8	2.9	26	9.6	20	7.4	4.17	1.30
3. Skills in building upon strengths of staff members	I	82	30.1	70	25.7	64	23.5	34	12.5	4	1.5	18	6.6	3.57	1.10
	N	138	50.7	48	17.6	30	11.0	12	4.4	18	6.6	26	9.6	4.12	1.24
4. Skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom	I	48	17.6	44	16.2	82	30.1	50	18.4	38	14.0	10	3.7	3.05	1.30
	N	74	27.2	80	29.4	42	15.4	22	8.1	34	12.5	20	7.4	3.55	1.35
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction	I	56	20.6	54	19.9	86	31.6	38	14.0	28	10.3	10	3.7	3.27	1.25
	N	82	30.1	88	32.4	40	14.7	20	7.4	22	8.1	20	7.4	3.75	1.24
6. Ability to develop interpersonal relations	I	86	31.6	82	30.1	52	19.1	34	12.5	8	2.9	10	3.7	3.78	1.13
	N	118	43.4	88	32.4	20	7.4	16	5.9	12	4.4	18	6.6	4.12	1.10
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning	I	74	27.2	76	27.9	64	23.5	30	11.0	14	5.1	14	5.1	3.64	1.17
	N	114	41.9	72	26.5	26	9.6	14	5.1	22	8.1	22	8.8	3.98	1.27

continued

Table 4.13 (continued)

		5		4		3		2		1		No answer		Mean	S.D.
		Great		High		Moderate		Some		None					
		f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
8. Ability to analyse teaching	I	84	30.9	86	31.6	46	16.9	40	14.7	4	1.5	12	4.4	3.79	1.10
	N	122	44.9	72	26.5	22	8.1	14	5.1	22	8.1	20	7.4	4.02	1.26
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring	I	86	31.6	78	25.0	60	22.1	34	12.5	10	3.7	14	5.1	3.72	1.17
	N	114	41.9	86	31.6	18	6.6	10	3.7	24	8.8	20	7.4	4.02	1.25
10. Skills in holding one-to-one conferences	I	78	28.7	48	17.6	60	22.1	50	18.4	26	9.6	10	3.7	3.39	1.35
	N	88	32.4	76	27.9	44	16.2	12	4.4	34	12.5	18	6.6	3.68	1.35
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns	I	80	29.4	66	24.3	64	23.5	36	13.2	10	3.7	16	5.9	3.66	1.17
	N	126	46.3	72	26.5	16	5.9	12	4.4	18	6.6	28	10.3	4.13	1.20
12. Ability to analyse complex problems	I	82	30.1	62	22.8	78	28.7	32	11.8	8	2.9	10	3.7	3.68	1.13
	N	118	43.4	78	28.7	32	11.8	8	2.9	18	6.6	18	6.6	4.06	1.17
13. Ability to do long-range planning	I	100	36.8	66	24.3	56	20.6	28	10.3	8	2.9	14	5.1	3.86	1.14
	N	134	49.3	68	25.0	10	3.7	14	5.1	24	8.8	22	8.1	4.10	1.29
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems	I	80	29.4	74	27.2	60	22.1	40	14.7	6	2.2	12	4.4	3.70	1.13
	N	126	46.3	72	26.5	20	7.4	14	5.1	20	7.4	20	7.4	4.07	1.23
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues	I	120	44.1	72	26.5	40	14.7	28	10.3	2	0.7	10	3.7	4.07	1.05
	N	144	52.9	62	22.8	14	5.1	8	2.9	24	8.8	20	7.4	4.17	1.26

I: Importance; N: Need for further preparation

Table 4.14
Comparison between the Importance Attached to and Need for Further Preparation Regarding Skills and Attributes of Instructional Supervisors as Perceived by Teachers

	Importance			Need for further preparation		
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank
1. Instructional problem-solving (n=250)	3.94	1.00	3	4.18	1.14	1
2. Ability to communicate effectively (n=252)	4.25	0.88	1	4.17	1.30	2.5
3. Skills in building upon strengths of staff members (n=246)	3.73	1.10	7	4.12	1.24	5.5
4. Skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom (n=252)	3.03	1.31	15	3.55	1.35	15
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction (n=252)	3.27	1.25	14	3.75	1.24	13
6. Ability to develop interpersonal relations (n=254)	3.77	1.14	5	4.12	1.10	5.5
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning (n=248)	3.63	1.18	11	3.98	1.27	12
8. Ability to analyse teaching (n=252)	3.76	1.11	6	4.02	1.26	10.5
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring (n=252)	3.71	1.18	8	4.02	1.25	10.5
10. Skills in holding one-to-one conferences (n=254)	3.37	1.36	13	3.68	1.35	14
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns (n=244)	3.63	1.18	12	4.13	1.20	4
12. Ability to analyse complex problems (n=254)	3.66	1.14	10	4.06	1.17	9
13. Ability to do long-range planning (n=250)	3.86	1.14	4	4.10	1.29	7
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems (n=252)	3.69	1.13	9	4.07	1.23	8
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues (n=252)	4.06	1.06	2	4.17	1.26	2.5

Response scale: Importance 5=great, 4= high, 3= moderate, 2= some, 1= no importance

Need for further preparation: 5=great, 4= high, 3= moderate, 2= some, 1= none

Interview Findings

Interviews with the participants revealed numerous skills and attributes required of school-based instructional supervisors, especially headteachers. The following skills and attributes were suggested by three education officers and two headteachers interviewed: (a) ability to lead by example, (b) high integrity, (c) knowledge about delegation and public relations, (d) supervisory skills, and (e) competence in teaching subjects. In addition, according to the beliefs held by two education officers and one teacher who were interviewed, headteachers as instructional supervisors should be qualified and experienced teachers.

(i) Ability to Lead by Example

Four headteachers and three education officers suggested that instructional supervisors should have the ability to lead by example by doing what they are supposed to do; practicing what they preach; giving people clear guidance; modeling the same behaviours they would expect in teachers; ensuring that their followers understand what is expected of them; and providing useful feedback and follow-up support. As one headteacher recommended:

It would be good if instructional supervisors are able to lead by portraying good examples, in teaching, general behaviour, and discipline. They must set the best possible example to their students and staff.

One headteacher, in a general remark, expressed the need for instructional supervisors to endeavour to model what they say in meetings with teachers and parents. Another education officer echoed:

I think a head should convince himself that he knows what he is supposed to be doing and should show by example. Perhaps do as I say is not the issue; should be do as I do. Lead by example. Leading by example means that I must also be a teacher. I must be in the classroom. I must also produce results.

(ii) High Integrity

Several interview participants expressed the view that individuals serving as instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, should be of high integrity and the right people for the job. As one teacher commented:

Those people appointed as school based supervisors of teaching and learning in our secondary schools must be of high integrity and high caliber, who understand the social context in which supervision takes place. Without such qualities, their supervisory roles would not be regarded as credible by teachers. We should be extremely be careful in identifying instructional supervisors.

Some of the comments made Some of the comments made by a few of the interview participants regarding this issue were appended with remarks, such as, “they should maintain their integrity,” “let’s have visionary leaders,” “have leaders who value quality education,” “they must be consistently trustworthy and credible as leaders,” and “they should be people of integrity and sincerity.”

(iii) Knowledge about Delegation

Another attribute of instructional supervisors that received a great deal of attention from five of the interviewees was concerned with knowledge about delegation of duties and responsibilities. Commenting on this attribute, one education officer suggested that, “For heads of schools to be effective school-based instructional supervisors, they must be knowledgeable about delegation and public relations. Success of a school depends on teamwork involving sharing of duties, especially on areas of curriculum and instruction.” One headteacher expressed a desire for instructional supervisors who have the ability to foster teamwork that builds strong relationships among staff members and a strong knowledge base in public relations. This headteacher stated, “Let us have instructional supervisors who can promote team spirit, a sense of cohesiveness,

and collegiality among staff. In this way, people can share duties and responsibilities very well.”

(iv) *Supervisory Skills*

Eleven interview participants especially expressed their desire to have instructional supervisors who possess appropriate supervisory skills. In recognition of centrality of school-based supervisors in facilitating teaching and learning, one teacher stated as follows:

For these supervisors, particularly headteachers, to be effective in promoting teacher performance and student learning, they must be equipped with supervisory skills. Have supervisors who have acquired skills in supervision through in-service training to improve teaching standards in our schools.

Also, one education officer expressed the view that instructional supervisors who are skilled in supervision are likely to impact positively on teacher professional growth.

(v) *Competence in Teaching*

Another attribute of school-based instructional supervisors mentioned by some participants was concerned with competence in their teaching subjects. Four teachers and two education officers specifically suggested that those appointed as headteachers should be well-conversant with their subject areas to assist teachers effectively in those areas. An education officer stated:

I think we need to have instructional supervisors who know their teaching subjects thoroughly. They must also be competent and committed teachers in their respective areas of specialisation so that they can offer meaningful advisory services, especially to new teachers.

One teacher spoke about the need to have supervisors who have a high level of expertise in subject matter and teaching strategies.

(vi) *Qualification and Experience in Teaching*

A final attribute of instructional supervisors proposed by some interviewees was concerned with qualification and teaching experience. Two

education officers suggested that headteachers, as school supervisors, should be qualified teachers with adequate classroom teaching experience to promote instructional awareness and prompt change in teachers. One education officer echoed:

For successful supervision of teaching and learning, the head of the school should be teacher number one and be able to demonstrate that he has adequate experience in the teaching profession. If this is achieved, teachers are likely to feel comfortable inviting the headteacher into their lessons; they will accept his visits to their classes.

Further suggestions echoed by a few teachers centred on the need to regard qualification and teaching experience as the major criteria in recruiting new heads of schools.

Synthesis and Discussion of Skills and Attributes of School-based instructional Supervisors

The findings regarding the skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors based on the questionnaire data revealed clearly that the attribute of the ability to communicate effectively received the highest ranking in terms of importance in headteacher's supervisory role and need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers. On the contrary, two skills ranked lowest in terms of importance in the headteacher's supervisory role and the need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers: skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom and skills in holding one-to-one conference.

The headteacher's ability to communicate effectively, especially in developing the school as a learning community, has been well documented. For example, Speck (1999) stated that to communicate the school's vision toward becoming a learning community, the principal needs to acquire communication

skills and that communicating the school's vision again and again is a key role of principals as leaders. This finding was also corroborated by views from other writers who saw effective communication as being inseparable from effective instructional leadership (e.g., Daresh & Playko, 1995; Smith & Andrews, 1989; Wiles & Bondi, 2000). Highlighting the importance of communication, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) recommended that school supervisors be able to communicate effectively with individuals and groups. In their view, the ability to project and to understand messages is a fundamental skill of administrators and supervisors.

In Saudi Arabia, as noted by Salem (2000), communication skills are essential to the headteacher's changing role, especially to convening and conducting regular staff meetings. In an apparent recognition of the centrality of communication in the headteacher's supervisory role, the Saudi Arabia Education Staff Institute, established in Saudi Arabia mainly to provide induction courses in management skills to educational managers such as headteachers, has incorporated communication into its course content as a tool of management.

Skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom and skills in holding one-to-one conferences ranked lowest in terms of both importance and need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers. Teachers did not seem to regard these two types of skills as being essential in school-based instructional supervisors' leadership roles, especially in classroom observation and conferencing with teachers. These findings are contrary to the belief that supervision requires the supervisors to possess, among other skills and attributes, skills in observing and conferencing (Gupton, 2003; Hunter, 1984; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001; Wiles & Bondi, 2000). As Oliva and Pawlas noted, classroom observation, in particular, demands a high level of technical and analytical skills

on the part of the supervisor to enable him or her to know what to look for, how to look, and how to collect, analyze, and interpret the data. The low need for further preparation of the headteacher in the areas of observation and conferencing skills contradicts the belief held by Hunter and, more recently, Oliva and Pawlas that, through pre-service and in-service training programs, supervisors should develop a grounding in conferencing and other skills essential to observing the teacher and students in action.

The headteacher's attribute of the ability to lead by example revealed by interview data has been advocated by several writers. For example, Wiles and Bondi (2000) observed that instructional leaders must be excellent teachers in the classroom to be able to help novice teachers, to demonstrate new techniques to experienced teachers, or to go into classrooms to model teaching. In Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Education (1998) recommended that, to improve and to maintain high educational standards in schools and to provide well-rounded, morally upright, and reasonable individuals, schools should have headteachers who are more than role models, who are capable of setting the tone and tempo in their schools, who should set good examples as teachers, and who should deliberately encourage their teachers to be committed workers. Also, Attari (2005) concurred with Rabie (2006) and commented that, as professionals and flag-bearers of their schools, headteachers should be role models to pupils, to teachers, and to the entire society who lead by example, who are able to demonstrate to teachers what competent teaching entails by registering a sterling performance in national examinations, and who deliver in the classroom.

Having high integrity on the part of school-based instructional supervisors as revealed by interview data means being honest, sincere, transparent, and

accountable. In Saudi Arabia, headteachers, as instructional leaders, are encouraged to be transparent and accountable, especially in all cases related to financial management, administration, and transaction (Ministry of Education, 1998). Because the headteacher is the financial controller, the accounting officer of the school, and is responsible for all revenue and expenditure in the school (Ministry of Education, 1988), and to win and retain confidence of all the stakeholders in education (Attari, 2005), high integrity on the part of the headteacher is critical to the success of the headteacher's instructional leadership role, especially regarding the management of instructional resources.

The knowledge of delegation on the part of instructional supervisors, such as headteachers, revealed by interview data is an important component of instructional leadership role of the headteachers because they are expected to appoint heads of departments and subject heads as well as delegate duties to other members of the teaching staff to ensure proper running of the school (Ministry of Education, 1987). Delegation by the headteachers involves dishing out to teachers, to pupils, and to support staff areas of duties and responsibilities to ensure maximum, desirable teaching and learning in the school (Yahiya, 2000).

The knowledge about public relations cited by interview participants is important, especially for headteachers' roles in establishing, maintaining, and developing a cohesive working groups, both within and outside the schools. As Salem (2000) noted, public and human relations skills are essential for the headteachers' roles as professional chief executives of their schools who are responsible for ensuring that the relations between their schools and external communities and all stakeholders in education are maintained on a continuous basis. This view would support the beliefs held by Ubben, Hughes, and Norris

(2004) that the principals are in the best position to have a positive impact on the relationship between the schools and the external communities; that skilled principals have the potential to analyze the existing public relations programs and the communities they serve; and that the modifications in the public relations programs will be based on the principals' analyses.

The finding relating to school-based instructional supervisors' competence in teaching subjects was noteworthy. This finding supports the views of several Saudi Arabian writers and scholars, especially with reference to the headteacher's competence in supervision of teaching and learning. For example, Hassan (1998), commenting about the headteacher's involvement in teaching, observed that a headteacher is first and foremost a classroom teacher who should teach the subject he or she is trained to teach. According to Mohammed (1994), all headteachers are supposed to have teaching classes to ensure that they are in touch with their schools. Contributing to this point, Oteebi (1984) advocated that teachers aspiring for positions of headship should have been good classroom teachers and that the teaching experience should have been preferably gathered from more than one school.

The finding relating to qualification and experience of school-based instructional supervisors was noted. This finding concurs with the views of several Saudi Arabian writers and scholars who have been particularly concerned about administrative problems in Saudi Arabian schools and the qualifications and experiences of the headteachers heading them. For example, Oteebi (1984), in highlighting the reasons why headteachers fail, blamed the failure of some beginning headteachers on the lack of vital experience and qualification. Similarly, Al-Khatib (2003) cited poor or ineffective management of the schools

as one of the major causes of protests and general indiscipline among students in schools. These observations underscore the importance of qualification and experience in the success of instructional supervisors' leadership role.

Questionnaire and Interview Findings Compared

The one area that questionnaire and interview participants agreed on in terms of skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors was concerned with ability to foster human relations. The importance of facilitating effective human relations is well documented in the literature. For example, according to Robbins and Alvy (1995), displaying effective human relations is a key to leadership which forms a thread that runs throughout the organisation and affects the culture, climate, personnel practices, and every individual who has contact with the organisation. In their view, human relations skills include working with people, building trust, creating a climate for teachers to discuss their own classroom practices, and helping individuals reach their potential. Also, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) endorsed the need for instructional supervisors to acquire personal traits associated with human and interpersonal relations, like apathy, sincerity and warmth.

This finding supports the belief held by Ministry of Education (1998) that, to motivate staff and students, to facilitate effective participatory management, school/community relations, and harmonious co-existence, and to coordinate co-curricular activities, the headteacher require, among other abilities, knowledge about human and public relations.

4.7 Personnel Involved in School-based instructional supervision

A further subproblem addressed in this study was concerned with the participants' perceptions regarding the types of personnel who may be involved

in school-based instructional supervision. This section presents the findings about supervisory personnel based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

The following six types of personnel were listed in each teacher questionnaire instrument (Appendices A and B): (a) headteacher, (b) deputy headteacher, (c) department heads, (d) subject heads, (e) colleagues, and (f) teachers themselves (i.e., self-e valuation).

The participants were requested to indicate their perceptions regarding the extent of involvement of each type of personnel in school-based instructional supervision by checking off given alternatives ranging from 1 (*never involved*) to 5 (*always involved*). The opinions of teachers, headteachers, and education officers regarding personnel involved in school-based instructional supervision are displayed in Tables 4.15 and 4.16.

The findings regarding teachers' perceptions of the personnel involved in school-based instructional supervision are reported in this section in terms of teachers' views about the extent of involvement of personnel in supervision of instruction. I have included both high-and low-ranking types of personnel in terms of their extent of involvement in school-based instructional supervision as perceived by teachers.

Teachers' responses relating to the existing and the preferred extent of involvement of the various types of personnel in school-based instructional supervision were determined from the data collected (Table 4.15). A comparison between the existing and the preferred extent of involvement of various types of personnel in school-based instructional supervision as perceived by teachers was also made from the data (Table 4.16). The various types of personnel have been

ranked from the highest to the lowest extent of involvement based on teachers' mean responses.

The headteacher was ranked first in terms of the existing extent of involvement in instructional supervision, followed by deputy headteacher, and finally by teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation; see Table 4.16). The types of personnel who received the lowest rankings in terms of the existing extent of involvement in instructional supervision included subject heads and colleagues (Table 4.16).

Regarding the preferred extent of involvement of personnel in school-based instructional supervision, the headteacher was ranked first, departmental heads were ranked second, and subject heads and teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation) were clustered in third position in terms of extent of involvement in instructional supervision (Table 4.16). The deputy headteacher and colleagues were ranked lowest in terms of preferred extent of involvement, as Table 4.16 shows.

Interview Findings

Teachers, headteachers, and education officers interviewed cited the following types of personnel who they believed were involved in school-based instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools: (a) headteachers, (b) deputy headteachers, (c) heads of departments, (d) subject heads, (e) class teachers, and (f) peer teachers. Frequency distributions of teachers, headteachers, and education officers relative to their mention of the types of personnel involved in school-based instructional supervision were synthesised from the interview data (Table 4.17).

Table 4.15
Teachers' Responses Relating to Existing and Preferred Extent of Involvement of Various Types of Personnel in
School-based Instructional Supervision
(N=272)

		5		4		3		2		1		no answer		Mean	S.D.
		always involved		frequently involved		occasionally involved		seldom involved		never involved		f	%		
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%		
Headteacher	E	142	52.2	72	26.5	34	12.5	6	2.2	8	2.9	10	3.7	4.27	0.98
	P	182	66.9	54	19.9	12	4.4	2	0.7	-	-	22	8.1	4.66	0.61
Deputy headteacher	E	106	39.0	68	25.0	64	23.5	18	6.6	10	3.7	6	2.2	3.91	1.12
	P	150	55.1	64	23.5	30	11.0	6	2.2	2	0.7	20	7.4	4.40	0.85
Department heads	E	82	30.1	68	25.0	72	26.5	34	12.5	10	3.7	6	2.2	3.67	1.15
	P	162	59.6	60	22.1	18	6.6	10	3.7	-	-	22	8.1	4.50	0.80
Subject heads	E	62	22.8	60	22.1	58	21.3	32	19.1	24	8.8	16	5.9	3.33	1.30
	P	160	58.8	50	18.4	28	10.3	8	2.9	-	-	26	9.6	4.47	0.82
Colleagues	E	40	14.7	38	14.0	72	26.5	56	20.6	46	16.9	20	7.4	2.88	1.32
	P	94	34.6	76	27.9	46	16.9	16	5.9	8	2.9	32	11.8	3.97	1.08
Teachers themselves (self-supervision)	E	90	33.1	54	19.9	68	25.0	30	11.0	12	4.4	18	6.6	3.71	1.20
	P	156	57.4	52	19.1	24	8.8	6	2.2	4	1.5	30	11.0	4.45	0.89

E=Existing extent, P=Preferred extent

Table 4.16
Comparison between the Existing and Preferred Extent of Involvement of Various Types of Personnel in School-based Instructional Supervision as Perceived by Teachers

Focuses of school-based instructional supervision	Existing Extent			Preferred Extent		
	Mean	S.D.	Rank	Mean	S.D.	Rank
Headteacher (n=250)	4.26	0.99	1	4.66	0.61	1
Deputy headteacher (n=252)	3.90	1.10	2	4.40	0.85	5
Department heads (n=250)	3.65	1.14	4	4.50	0.80	2
Subject heads (n=240)	3.29	1.29	5	4.47	0.83	3.5
Colleagues (n=236)	2.86	1.27	6	3.97	1.08	6
Teachers themselves (self-supervision) (n=240)	3.66	1.21	3	4.47	0.87	3.5

Response scale: 5=always involved, 1= never involved

Table 4.17
Frequency Distributions of Teachers, Headteachers, and Education Officers
Relative to Their Mention of the Types of Personnel Involved In School-Based
Instructional Supervision

Types of Personnel	Teachers	Headteachers	Education Officers	Total
Headteacher	17	10	5	32
Deputy headteacher	16	7	3	26
Department heads	7	4	1	12
Subject heads	3	4	1	8
Colleagues		2		2
Teachers themselves (self-supervision)		1		1

The majority of the interview participants named the headteachers and deputy headteachers as the primary individuals involved in school-based instructional supervision (Table 4.17).

The headteacher, in particular, was described variously by many interviewees as follows:

“inspector number one”	“first inspector”
“internal inspector”	“inspector on the ground”
“immediate inspector”	““personnel officer” teacher number one”
“ a very close inspector”	“immediate person on the ground”
“ immediate in-charge”	

These descriptions suggest that the headteacher was particularly seen by the participants as the chief instructional leader of the school. A teacher commented as follows:

It is the duty of the head to ensure that teachers attend classes and schemes of work are made. As first inspector, the headteacher, is also an overseer. The headteacher inspects things, to see that they are done well.

Synthesis and Discussion of the Personnel Involved in School-based instructional supervision

The findings based on the questionnaire data indicate that two types of personnel ranked highest in terms of existing and preferred extent of involvement in school-based instructional supervision as perceived by teachers: headteacher

and deputy headteacher. However, teachers indicated low ranking in terms of existing extent of involvement in school-based instructional supervision for subject heads and colleagues. The lowest ranked preferred personnel in instructional supervision as perceived by teachers are teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation). In addition, teachers, in general, preferred more involvement of all of the various types of personnel listed in the instrument—headteachers, deputy headteachers, department heads, subject heads, colleagues, and teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation)—in school-based instructional supervision. The findings from the interview data indicated headteachers and deputy headteachers as the individuals who were mostly involved in supervision of instruction in the schools.

School-Based Instructional Supervision

That a variety of school-based supervisors, such as headteachers and departmental heads, are involved in school-based instructional supervision concurs with several views in the literature. For example, Oliva and Pawlas (2001) observed that at school level, several types of supervisors may be involved in school supervision: principals, assistant principals, curriculum coordinators, and department heads.

The School Headteacher

The one area in which the questionnaire and interview findings concur relates to the involvement of headteachers and deputy headteachers in school-based instructional supervision. The involvement of school principals, in particular, in school-based instructional supervision is consistent with the recent reports from the literature (e.g., Glickman et al., 2001; Herman, 1993; Musella & Leithwood, 1991; Njeri, 1984; Sergiovanni, 1995) that indicated that effective schools can result when principals take leadership roles in instruction; for example,

by being involved actively in student achievement monitoring, curriculum planning, staff development, and instructional issues. These views also supported Sergiovanni's (2001) belief that the job of the school principal is being defined increasingly by matters of teaching and learning that involve selecting, helping, and evaluating teachers, and working with teachers to improve instruction.

Teacher Colleagues

Interestingly, the relatively low-ranked type of personnel in terms of existing and preferred extent of involvement in school-based instructional supervision as perceived by teachers, namely, colleagues, was also least mentioned by interview participants. In contrast to this finding, and as typically shown in the literature, supervision by colleagues (peer supervision) is regarded as an important component of professional development of teachers. For example, Calabrese and Zepeda (1997) noted that peer supervision is based on the belief that teachers, as professionals, have a great deal to offer to one another and that this supervisory approach facilitates teachers' professional growth as active participants, contributes to teacher responsibility for self and profession, and promotes collaboration, feedback, guidance, and perspective.

4.8 Degree of Satisfaction with School-Based Instructional Supervision

Another sub-problem the study addressed was teachers' perceptions regarding their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of school-based instructional supervision practices in their schools. In this section are reported the findings relating to teachers' degree of satisfaction with practices of school-based instructional supervision based on questionnaire and interview data.

Questionnaire Findings

Ten aspects of instructional supervision practices were listed in each teacher questionnaire instrument. The aspects focused on the following major

areas relating to supervisory practices: (a) quality of administrative support, (b) administrative support to supervision program, (c) peer supervision, (d) headteachers' supervisory strategies, (e) collection of supervisory information, (f) availability and adequacy of support documents, and (g) existence and adequacy of staff development programs. For details regarding specific statements relating to supervision practices listed in the questionnaire, see Appendices A and B.

The participants were requested to indicate their degree of satisfaction with practices by making choices from given alternatives ranging from 1 (*highly dissatisfied*) to 5 (*highly satisfied*). The data obtained from teachers regarding their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of school-based instructional supervision in their schools are shown in Table 4.18.

The findings regarding teachers' opinions about their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of practices of school-based instructional supervision are presented in this section. To do this effectively, I have included only the aspects of instructional supervision with which teachers were somewhat/highly satisfied or dissatisfied.

Frequencies and percentage distributions, as well as mean scores and standard deviations of teachers regarding their degree of satisfaction with the various aspects of school-based instructional supervision in their schools were determined from the data (Table 4.18). About 63% of the teachers indicated that they were either somewhat satisfied or highly satisfied with the administrative support to school-based instructional supervision, about 63% indicated that they were either somewhat satisfied or highly satisfied with the overall quality of school-based instructional supervision, and almost 52% indicated that they were

either somewhat satisfied or highly satisfied with the general organisation of school-based instructional supervision (Table 4.18).

At the other extreme, 28% of the teachers indicated that they were either somewhat dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied with the extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work, about 30% indicated that they were dissatisfied with the adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the school-based instructional supervisor, and about 35% indicated that they were either somewhat dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied with the existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the school-based instructional supervisor (Table 4.18).

Table 4.18
Teachers' Degree of Satisfaction with Aspects of School-based Instructional Supervision Practices
(N=272)

	5 highly satisfied		4 somewhat satisfied		3 undecided		2 somewhat dissatisfied		1 highly satisfied		No answer		Mean	S.D.	Rank
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%			
(a) The overall quality of school based instructional supervision	58	21.3	112	41.2	34	12.5	38	14.0	12	4.4	18	6.6	3.65	1.13	2
(b) The administrative support to school based instructional supervision programme	74	27.2	96	35.3	30	11.0	42	15.4	8	2.9	22	8.1	3.74	1.15	1
(c) The general organisation of school based instructional supervision programme	50	18.4	92	33.8	42	15.4	44	16.2	16	5.9	28	10.3	3.48	1.19	3
(d) The extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work	34	12.5	74	27.2	42	15.4	44	16.2	32	11.8	46	16.9	3.15	1.30	8
(e) The extent to which the headteacher's supervisory strategies are understood by teachers	50	18.4	86	31.6	40	14.7	52	19.1	18	6.6	26	9.6	3.40	1.23	4.5
(f) The extent to which the headteacher is objective in collecting supervisory information on teachers	52	19.1	86	31.6	46	16.9	42	15.4	24	8.8	22	8.1	3.40	1.26	4.5

continued

Table 4.18 (continued)

	5 highly satisfied		4 somewhat satisfied		3 undecided		2 somewhat dissatisfied		1 highly satisfied		No answer		Mean	S.D.	Rank
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%			
(g) The availability of support documents relevant to school based instructional supervision	40	14.7	74	27.2	42	15.4	66	24.3	12	4.4	38	14.0	3.27	1.19	6
(h) The adequacy of support documents relevant to school based instructional supervision	46	16.9	66	24.3	44	16.2	54	19.9	28	10.3	34	12.5	3.20	1.31	7
(i) The existence of staff development programmes relevant to the role of the school based instructional supervisor	24	8.8	64	23.5	52	19.1	58	21.3	38	14.0	36	13.2	2.91	1.25	10
(j) The adequacy of staff development programmes relevant to the role of the school based instructional supervisor	46	16.9	66	24.3	44	16.2	54	19.9	28	10.3	34	12.5	2.99	1.24	9

Interview Findings

Interviews with teachers, headteachers, and education officers yielded information that pertains to their satisfaction with the diverse areas regarding the practices of school-based instructional supervision they experiences in the schools. The following four distinct themes relative to interviewees' satisfaction with aspects of practices of school-based instructional supervision practices emerged: (a) reciprocal exchange of instructional information among peer teachers (b) timetabling, (c) departmental staff meetings; (d) teacher instructional responsibilities.

i. Reciprocal Exchange of Instructional Information

Three teacher interviewees concurred that they were generally satisfied with the extent to which colleague teachers exchanged instructional information among themselves in their schools. As one teacher echoed:

We share many interesting discussions with colleague teachers internally in and outside the staffroom. This is a common practice in our school through which we share our instructional concerns and issues and learn from each other's insights and expertise to improve our teaching. Many teachers are generally happy with this mode of interaction.

ii. Timetabling

One area in which interviewees expressed satisfaction was concerned with developing teaching timetables to allocate workload. One teacher interviewee observed that the manner in which the headteacher involved the timetable committee, consisting of experienced teachers, in developing the teaching timetable was particularly rewarding: "I like the way our headteacher involves some of us in developing a teaching timetable for the school. The timetable committee consults with us before coming up with the final timetable."

The great majority of teacher interviewees felt that their headteachers did and organise the teaching timetable.

iii. Departmental Staff Meetings

Four teacher interviewees expressed their satisfaction with the manner in which headteachers encouraged heads of the various departments in their schools to schedule frequent departmental meetings to address instructional concerns in their respective departments. One teacher, in a general remark, stated that:

Our headteacher normally encourages heads of departments to try to organise frequent meetings with teachers to debate on the teaching and learning progress and problems in their departments. This is interesting to me because during such meetings, we are able to identify, resolve, and redesign our teaching and learning strategies to maximise student achievement in the national exams.

iv. Teachers' Instructional Responsibilities

A final area in which four interviewees expressed satisfaction was concerned with the manner in which headteachers encouraged their teachers to assume full responsibilities for carrying out their instructional work. One teacher revealed that their headteacher accomplished this move through general staff meetings as well as written memos. There was a general consensus among the interviewees that this instructional leadership activity was valuable and rewarding. One teacher remarked, "I like the way our headteacher encourages us to carry out instructional duties effectively during staff meetings. Such encouragement is very valuable to me as a professional, and generally teachers are positive about it."

Synthesis and Discussion of Degree of Satisfaction of Satisfaction with School-based instructional supervision

The questionnaire data revealed that the majority of teachers were somewhat or highly satisfied with two aspects of school-based instructional supervision: the overall quality of school-based instructional supervision and

administrative support for the school-based instructional supervision program. On the other hand, many teachers were somewhat or highly dissatisfied with three aspects of school-based instructional supervision in their schools: the extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work, the existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the school-based instructional supervisor, and the adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the school-based instructional supervisor.

The findings based on the interview data revealed that the participants were satisfied with the following aspects of school-based instructional supervision in the schools: (a) the presence of reciprocal exchange of instructional information among peer teachers; (b) the manner in which teaching timetables were developed; (c) the scheduling of departmental staff meetings to address instructional concerns; and (d) the manner in which headteachers encouraged teachers to carry out their instructional responsibilities.

Quality of Instructional Supervision

That the majority of teachers were satisfied with the overall quality of instructional supervision in the schools was noted. According to Hoy, Bayne-Jardine, and Wood (2000), quality in education comes from making things happen and should be evaluated in terms of its contribution to the outcomes. An overall quality of supervision in the context of this finding would imply that (a) the practices of supervision were consistent with and integrated into the organisational context of the schools, considering school values, and the motto; (b) teachers and headteachers worked as true professionals in a climate of respect and trust to facilitate student achievement; (c) teacher evaluations were integrated with staff development and were used productively to support school

improvement initiatives for the benefit of students; and (d) the necessary instructional materials and equipment were available to support supervision practices. These implications support Sergiovanni's (1988) belief that schools exist for two main reasons: to foster student learning and to provide meaningful professional growth among teachers.

Peer Supervision

That teachers were generally dissatisfied with the extent to which peers supervised each other's instructional work was noted. This finding is contrary to the belief held by Glickman et al. (2001) that teachers naturally turn to each other for help more often than to supervisors and that "teachers helping teachers has become a formalised and well-received way of assuring direct assistance to every staff member" (p. 322). This finding also contradicts findings by Scott (2001) that indicate that collegial supervision was the method of choice for most teachers. A speculation is that, in Saudi Arabia, peer supervision has not been emphasised in the schools and, as a result, teachers have no idea what this mode of supervision entails and how it works.

Staff Development Programs

Teachers seemed generally dissatisfied with the existence and adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the school-based instructional supervisor. This finding suggests that there was no link between instructional supervision and staff development in the schools. However, this finding is contrary to the beliefs held by several writers in the literature regarding the connection between supervision and staff development (e.g., Wanzare & da Costa, 2000) that staff development is a prerequisite to effective supervision and

may be used to prepare teachers and supervisors to participate in supervision programs by enlightening them about supervisory skills and practices.

Reciprocal Exchange of Instructional Information

The importance of exchanging vital professional information among colleague teachers cannot be overemphasised. For example, Rosenholtz (1991) observed that comments of colleague teachers may assist each other in realising their instructional improvement needs, in eliciting innovative responses, in problem-solving and in creativity, and that colleagues are important sources of professional renewal. Similarly, Robbins and Alvy (2003) observed that collegial, professionally-focused interactions are those associated with (a) sharing of successful professional practices; (b) curriculum articulation; (c) specific instructional strategies that foster student achievement, teaching, and student assessment practices; and (d) conversations about student work and research projects. They concluded that in schools which have actualised true collegial cultures, professional dialogues have become a way of addressing teachers' professional growth goals and endeavours. Furthermore, in concurring with these views, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) observed that collegial interactions provide settings in which teachers can informally discuss problems they face, share ideas, help one another in preparing lessons, exchange tips, and provide other support to one another. And, Little and Bird (1987), in agreement with these views, noted that collegial work, especially among teachers (a) offers an expanded pool of ideas and materials; (b) enhances capacity building for handling complex problems; and (c) offers opportunities for intellectual stimulation or emotional solidarity.

Timetabling

The findings from the interview data about the participants' degree of satisfaction with practices of school-based instructional supervision were noted. The general satisfaction with the involvement of teachers in developing timetables in schools indicates the awareness of headteachers of the crucial role of delegation in instructional leadership. This finding supports the belief held by the Ministry of Education (1987) that headteachers are expected to delegate duties and responsibilities to other members of staff, including teachers, to ensure the proper running of the school. Collaborative timetabling is important in ensuring that the various teaching subjects are distributed equitably in the school timetables and that the subject teachers are deployed in the most suitable way.

Departmental Staff Meetings

The importance of departmental meetings in instructional improvement in the schools has been well-documented. For example, Robbins and Alvy (2003) asserted that departmental meetings, especially in schools enable small groups of professionals to get together to (a) review and to refine the curriculum implementation and teaching strategies; (b) share instructional expectations; (c) develop common themes, concepts, and essential questions in dealing with the various subject disciplines; and (d) plan projects and team teaching. According to Ministry of Education (1987), the responsibility for organising and holding regular staff meetings, especially in Saudi Arabian secondary schools, lies squarely with heads of departments. In this capacity, and through regular meetings, departmental heads are also responsible for (a) facilitating the preparation of teachers' tools of work, such as schemes of work, in all classes; (b)

organising the various subjects in the school; (c) promoting efficiency in the teaching-learning process; and (d) coordinating instructional strategies.

Teachers' Instructional Responsibilities

The participants concurred that headteachers were concerned about teachers' instructional responsibilities that promoted student academic achievement. Congruent with this finding is the view held by Peterson (1987) and Gullatt and Lofton (1996) that principals should recognise teachers as true professionals responsible for student learning and that ensuring instructional quality is a shared responsibility between teachers and principals. In a study of selected teachers from public elementary, middle level, and high schools in Southeastern, Midwestern, and Northeastern United States regarding their perceptions of principals' instructional leadership, Blase and Blase (1999) reported that effective principals who want to promote classroom instruction talk openly and freely with teachers about teaching and learning in the belief that teachers are thoughtful, responsible, and growing professionals. This finding implies that student success is an equal responsibility shared between headteachers and teachers and that each of these groups of professionals should be committed to facilitating this success.

4.9 Advantages, Problems, and Suggested Changes for Effectiveness in Practices of School-Based Instructional Supervision

This section reports the findings regarding the participants' perceptions about advantages, problems, and desired changes in supervision practices. The findings reported were those based on qualitative data obtained from the open-ended sections of questionnaire surveys as well as from interviews. A discussion of emergent themes is also included.

Advantages of Existing Practices of School-based Instructional Supervision

One of the questions addressed in the study concerned the participants' views regarding the advantages of the current school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures. Teachers, headteachers, and district education officers cited numerous advantages associated with the existing school-based instructional supervision practices in four major themes: academic progress, quality of teaching and learning, monitoring teachers' work, and curriculum implementation.

(a) *Academic Progress*

Sixty two percent of the questionnaire participants thought it served to highlight the benefits of instructional supervision practices relative to student performance. In general, these participants agreed that school-based instructional supervision practices had enabled students to work hard and to improve their academic performance in the final examinations and, thus, improved the overall examination results. The participants also believed that through the practices of instructional supervision, teachers were able to evaluate students' performance more effectively with a view to facilitating their performance.

Sixteen percent of the questionnaire participants believed that the practices of school-based instructional supervision ensured that students received maximum attention from their teachers to maximise performance and that teachers were well-acquainted with the high academic standards expected of students.

Four interviewed headteachers believe that, through instructional supervision practices, headteachers were in a position to monitor academic progress in their schools. Two interviewed headteachers concluded that through

instructional supervision practices, headteachers were able to manage their schools effectively. As one headteacher remarked, “When I conduct school-based supervision, I find that I increase my effectiveness in managing the school. I am able to bring everybody together, students, teachers, and non-teaching staff, through supervision.”

The participants believed that instructional supervision contributed to students’ academic performance in the national examinations as well as to the overall results for the schools. These findings suggest that the participants had a great deal of confidence in the practices and procedures of school-based instructional supervision and considered them important in facilitating students’ academic development. These responses also converge on the notions that the headteachers’ instructional leadership was a significant factor in facilitating, improving, and promoting students’ academic progress and that effective instructional leadership had, as its major focuses, high expectations for students, provision of quality instruction to students, and efficient use of appropriate strategies to monitor and to evaluate students’ progress.

These findings are congruent with the belief held by many of the writers in instructional supervision (e.g., Neuman & Simons, 2000; Robbins & Alvy, 2003) that increasing attention should be paid not only to how teachers teach students, but also to how teachers assess and evaluate students’ learning.

(b) *Quality of Teaching and Teachers*

Seventy percent of the questionnaire participants reported that school-based instructional supervision practices had improved the quality of teaching in the schools. The teachers and headteachers, especially, noted that the practices had enabled teachers to keep abreast of instructional methods, to identify

teaching and learning problems, to evaluate themselves, to address areas of their weaknesses, to teach according to the timetable, and to improve their teaching effectiveness. They also believed that the practices had motivated teachers, encouraged them to prepare and to plan their teaching, and helped them to realise their instructional goals. Furthermore, feelings of satisfaction were expressed regarding the role of supervision practices in enabling teachers, working jointly with headteachers, to diagnose and address their instructional concerns.

Twenty percent of the questionnaire participants felt that instructional supervision practices enabled headteachers to assess the adequacy of instructional materials, to address shortfalls in order to improve teaching, and to encourage teachers to work toward their instructional goals. Additionally, five participants concluded that instructional supervision practices had improved and maintained teaching in the schools.

The participants concurred that school-based instructional supervision practices had improved and maintained the quality of teaching in the schools and facilitated teachers' performance by (a) enlightening them about instructional methods, (b) helping them to identify their areas of weaknesses and to address them, and (c) encouraging them to prepare and to plan their teaching effectively. These findings support the views of several writers cited earlier in the literature (e.g., Chell, 1995; Drake & Roe, 1999; Wanzare & da Costa, 2000) who affirmed that instructional supervision facilitates teaching and learning by helping teachers to improve teaching and to implement new instructional ideas and by providing them with feedback on effective teaching. Kyriacou (1995) reported that teachers, in general, believe that supervision or appraisal enables them to develop

confidence in teaching, to improve subject matter content, and to use new instructional strategies.

The improvement of the quality of teachers and teaching has been a major concern to the Saudi Arabian government in addressing the quality of education for Saudis. According to Ministry of Education (1998), providing quality education to increasing numbers of students and using the available resources is both a challenge and an opportunity because of the possibility of viewing education as both a service and an industry, which is marked to widen the resource mobilisation base.

Several writings highlight that much has been written about the effective role that headteachers can play in promoting the quality of teaching in their school (e.g. Gray and Streshly, 2008; O'Hanlon and Clifton, 2004; Male and Palaiologou, 2011; McEwan, 2003) and such writings may help inform the practice of instructional supervision in Saudi Arabia. In particular, such writings highlight that improving the quality of teaching is not simply a matter of the headteacher supervising each teacher's performance, but rather needs to take into account a wide variety of other factors and issues that impinge on both the teacher's performance and pupils' learning.

(c) Monitoring Teachers' Work

Another noteworthy area to which the participants paid pronounced attention was concerned with monitoring teachers' performance and teaching. Fifty eight percent of the participants reported that school-based instructional supervision practices had enabled headteachers to assess and monitor teachers' work closely on a daily basis and, thus, to reduce teachers' laxity in their teaching. Some teacher participants, in particular, felt that through the practices,

the headteachers had been able to keep abreast of teachers to assist them accordingly and to ensure that teachers performed their work as mandated by the school and higher authorities and that they worked as a team. A few participants indicated that, through instructional supervision, headteachers were able to identify marginal teachers who needed special coaching in order to survive in the profession.

Eight percent of the questionnaire participants agreed that instructional supervision practices enabled teachers, especially those who were newly appointed, to know what was required of them as professionals. Two headteacher interviewees concluded that instructional supervision facilitated school administration and enabled headteachers to manage instructional time effectively because the process ensured that teachers always attended to their duties.

It appears that the roles of instructional supervision in enabling headteachers to monitor teachers' instructional performance closely and to identify marginal teachers with teaching difficulties were considered important by the participants. These findings suggest that the roles of school-based instructional supervision in ensuring that teachers actually performed their professional duties were at the core of participants' feelings. Several writers in the literature have also highlighted the importance of monitoring teachers' instructional performance. For example, Southworth (2002) suggested that monitoring teachers work should involve the headteachers looking at teachers' weekly plans, visiting classrooms, examining samples of pupils' work, observing the implementation of school policies, reviewing test and assessment

information, and evaluating pupils, class, and school levels of performance and progress.

(a) *Curriculum Implementation*

Forty-two percent of the participants specifically reported that instructional supervision practices enabled teachers to implement the school curriculum effectively and to cover the various subject syllabuses adequately in time. Other participants perceived that, through instructional supervision practices, school-based supervisors were able to identify, to recommend, and to provide needed instructional facilities and equipment. Twelve percent of the participants believed that through instructional supervision, teachers were kept abreast of the current development regarding curriculum and instruction.

The participants believed that through instructional supervision (a) teachers were able to implement the school curriculum more effectively by covering subject syllabuses on time, (b) headteachers were able to identify and to provide needed instructional materials, and (c) teachers were enlightened about current developments in curriculum and instruction. These findings support the notions that headteachers play crucial roles in facilitating curriculum coverage and implementation and that instructional leadership provides for coordination, maintenance, and improvement of instructional program (Blase & Blase, 1999b; Gray and Streshly, 2008; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987; Krey & Burke, 1989; O’Hanlon and Clifton, 2004).

Problems of Existing Practices of School-based instructional supervision

Teachers, headteachers, and district education officers cited numerous problems associated with the current school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures. The major problems were those associated with four

themes: supervision practices, instructional supervisors, attitudes toward supervision, and feedback and follow-up.

(a) *Supervision Practices*

Fifty six percent of the participants expressed their concern regarding school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures. The most commonly cited concerns included their perceived lack of consistency. Fifty-one percent of the teachers felt that the practices of instructional supervision were marked by discrimination, subjectivity, favoritism, biases, corruption, and dishonesty. According to thirty two percent of the participants, supervision practices were merely witch-hunting exercises in which instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, deliberately frustrated teachers by victimising and intimidating them on flimsy grounds.

For the majority of the participants, questionable practices and procedures of supervision that they believed teachers experience in schools had serious negative consequences. Fifty-eight percent of the teachers agreed that, because of improper supervision practices, teachers were demoralised, stressed, and embarrassed.

Twenty-eight percent of the teachers observed that, because of questionable practices of supervision, there were frequent conflicts between teachers and school administrators and, thus, frustrating working relations between teachers and school-based supervisors. Nineteen teachers, in general remarks, concluded that teachers were generally suspicious about school-based supervisors' supervisory roles and that, as a result, they had developed negative attitudes toward school-based supervision.

Two headteachers agreed that the practices of instructional supervision created fear in teachers and were a source of misunderstanding, hatred, and conflicts between teachers and instructional supervisors. According to three headteachers, many teachers did not appreciate the relevance of instructional supervision practices and viewed them with suspicion, regarded them as witch-hunting, and did not take them seriously. One headteacher concluded that teachers were generally unwilling to cooperate with instructional supervisors seemingly because of inappropriate practices of supervision. Again and again, the participants indicated that they did not believe that supervision practices encouraged teachers to learn or grow professionally.

The findings suggest that most of participants had little confidence in supervision practices because they were inconsistent, biased, and subjective and generally stressed and frustrated teachers. These findings are congruent with the following notions in the literature on teacher supervision (e.g., Tsui, 1995): (a) Supervision is a highly stressful experience for both teachers and supervisors; (b) the experience of being supervised is even more stressful for teachers, especially when supervisors have “economic power” over them in the sense that their professional growth depends on the approval of their supervisors; (c) teachers have the tendency to regard comments and suggestions made by their supervisors as criticisms rather than alternatives for them to consider; and (d) teachers tend to justify their own classroom practices rather than keep an open mind about alternatives, especially from their supervisors.

(b) *Instructional Supervisors*

Another area of criticism in the practices and procedures of school-based instructional supervision cited by a majority of the participants was concerned

with instructional supervisors. Fifty-six percent of the participants argued that school-based supervisors lacked the necessary supervisory skills, were not actually prepared to supervise teachers and teaching effectively, appeared always too busy with other administrative duties to become involved in meaningful instructional supervision, and were not confident enough to supervise teachers.

Twenty-eight percent of the participants complained that instructional supervisors quite often walked through classrooms but rarely conducted any meaningful formal evaluation of teachers. Some participants believed that, in several cases, classroom observations, whenever they were conducted, appeared to be occasions for parading teachers' shortcomings and victimising and intimidating them on flimsy instructional grounds and that many supervisors were unnecessarily strict with teachers. Comments regarding deliberate neglect of supervisory roles on the part of supervisors appeared to be in the minority, but by no means exceptional. Twenty five percent of the participants noted that, as a result of the supervisors' lack of seriousness regarding instructional supervisory duties, teachers had developed negative attitudes toward school-based instructional supervision and viewed it as a meaningless process; as a result, they did not take it seriously and did not trust what supervisors did.

These findings are congruent with reports from similar studies elsewhere that indicate teachers are generally negative about formal supervision and evaluation practices mainly because of questionable integrity of supervisors. For example, Moore (1990), in reflecting on her study that examined work in schools from the perspectives of teachers in the US, reported that the teachers studied criticised formal supervision and evaluation practices, observing that they were

effective for dismissal but not for improvement, that supervisors were rarely prepared to offer genuinely useful advice, and that the procedures invariably took precedence over the content of supervision and virtually provided no opportunity for learning. Furthermore, the overwhelming majority of the teachers studied doubted that their supervisors could adequately supervise their work, even after rigorous training in observation and assessment techniques.

(c) *Attitudes toward Supervision*

Teachers' attitudes toward school-based instructional supervision practices were another concern that was considered a stumbling block to successful implementation of school-based instructional supervision. Seventy-eight percent of the participants agreed that teachers had developed negative attitudes toward supervision practices. Twenty percent of the questionnaire participants attributed teachers' negative attitudes toward supervision to the lack of clarification regarding the purpose of instructional supervision.

Fourteen percent of the participants explained that many teachers viewed instructional supervision practices as fault-finding exercises aimed at catching teachers doing wrong. As one teacher commented:

I would imagine it is just the attitude that perhaps if a headteacher comes to my class, he is on a fault-finding mission, which may not be the case. The attitude of many teachers, I believe, is that if I see the headteacher coming into my class, I see the head of department coming to sit in my lesson, then they want to corner me somehow. This attitude has to be corrected.

Five headteachers stated that, because of teachers' negativity toward supervision practices, some teachers were fearful of supervision, resisted being supervised by their headteachers, and regarded the supervision process as a worthless exercise. Supporting these views, a district education officer echoed,

“General negative attitudes of teachers towards supervision. Some take it as witch-hunting and, as a result, the acceptability of school-based supervision by teachers is a problem.”

Four headteachers indicated that many veteran teachers, especially, did not recognise instructional supervision as part of their professional career; consequently, they were not committed to it and saw it as a waste of time.

The participants appeared to regard teachers’ attitudes toward instructional supervision as an important factor in successful supervision of instruction. Teachers’ negative attitudes toward supervision as perceived by the participants are not surprising because the literature and research have consistently indicated that teacher’s exhibit attributes ranging from apathy to dislike with respect to supervision. For example, Lunenburg (1995) observed that most teachers do not like to be evaluated and never find evaluation helpful to them professionally. Furthermore, Kellough’s (1990) study revealed that the head teachers studied cited teachers’ attitudes as one of the deterrents to instructional supervision. Four headteachers in this study also viewed that they had been frustrated by teachers’ unwillingness to change what they had always done and by their reluctance to become involved in instructional design and implementation. These observations converge on the notion that tensions between teachers and supervisors have persisted over the years.

Several writers (e.g., Lunenburg, 1995; Sergiovanni, 2005a; Tanner & Tanner, 1987) have attributed teachers’ negative feelings toward supervision and evaluation to the kind of supervision they received and the manner in which supervisory practices have been conducted. To Kosmoski (1997), teachers’ lack of support for supervision is a result of supervisors’ perceived hidden agenda and

selfish motives, whereby they view supervision as a vehicle for personal glorification and advancement.

(b) *Feedback and Follow-Up*

Another area in which the participants were unhappy concerned feedback and follow-up. Twenty-two percent of the participants regretted the lack of feedback and follow-up on matters regarding school-based instructional supervision, especially feedback and follow-up based on problems identified during supervision. Fourteen percent of the teachers specifically concurred that feedback and follow-up regarding teachers' essential tools of work, such as lesson plans and lesson notes, were not included in the practices and procedures of instructional supervision. Others wondered why school-based instructional supervisors, especially headteachers, did not provide teachers with written comments relevant to supervision of teaching and learning. One teacher, in a general remark, lamented, "Lack of follow-up regarding preparation by teachers of schemes, record of work covered." Another teacher added, "Once teachers have been supervised by headteacher, by whatever practice, no supervisory reports are made, not at the school level. Maybe the headteacher would have his or her own reports." In addition, two education officers echoed their disappointment on the issue when they noted that there were no specific forms designed for reporting supervisory feedback to teachers.

The participants apparently believed that meaningful feedback and follow-up support with respect to instructional supervision were not provided to teachers, and, consequently, they were not assisted adequately. The findings are consistent with those of Rabideau (1993), who examined teachers' satisfaction with instructional supervision and related key variables in the state of Illinois,

US. Over half of the teachers in this study reported that they had limited opportunity for feedback on their teaching performance.

Legitimising the voices of the participants in expressing their concerns about the lack of supervisory feedback and follow-up cannot be overemphasised. The instructional supervision literature is replete with writings highly suggestive of the notion that effective supervision practices are those that incorporate feedback and follow-up in the programs. For example, Siens and Ebmeier (1996) reiterated that, for teachers to improve their classroom instruction, they need feedback that encourages them to question, appraise, reflect, and adopt their current instructional practices.

Suggested Changes in Practices of School-based instructional supervision

Teachers, headteachers, and district education officers proposed numerous changes in the current practices and procedures of school-based instructional supervision.

(a) *Supervision Practices*

A substantial number of participants made suggestions with respect to the practices of school-based instructional supervision. The suggestions have been grouped into two subthemes: classroom observation and student involvement in supervision.

Classroom Observation

Sixteen percent of the participants specifically made suggestions regarding classroom observation. They suggested a need for frequent classroom observation, especially by headteachers and colleague teachers. A few participants proposed that headteachers, as school-based instructional supervisors, should design workable modalities regarding classroom observation

and that this supervisory practice should be effected whenever instructional problems arise in the classroom or in circumstances where a teacher appears to be ineffective in the classroom. As one teacher recommended, “It would be good if a headteacher visits teachers in their classrooms to see how they teach because some teachers go into their classrooms only to tell students irrelevant stories about their past personal experiences at their universities.”

One headteacher, in advocating for classroom observation, expressed the need to explain to all the key stakeholders, such as students and teachers, the purpose of classroom observation to avoid potential confusion, especially among students who may feel that the headteacher involved in this practices is on a fault-finding mission. One teacher recommended a need to establish beyond any reasonable doubt that there is an actual need for classroom observation. This teacher stated, “We need to be absolutely convinced that there is a need for headteachers to actually visit teachers in their classrooms to see how they teach. We don’t want situations where headteachers embarrass teachers before their pupils.”

The participants believed that classroom observation by school-based supervisors, such as headteachers, should be a major means of addressing teachers’ instructional concerns and that all the stakeholders in the school, including students, should be educated about this supervisory practice to avoid potential confusion.

These findings are congruent with the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education’s (1998) belief that the headteacher, as the immediate inspector of the school, should be involved in checking teaching standards by actual visits to the classroom to see the work of individual teachers. Saudi Arabian Ministry of

Education (1998), in highlighting the responsibilities and duties of the headteacher, shared the same view that the headteacher should be involved in visiting, observing, and keeping a record of learning sessions in classrooms, laboratories, and workshops.

The participants appeared to be convinced that examining teachers' artifacts of teaching, such as lesson plans and lesson notes, should be a viable alternative strategy for monitoring teachers' level of preparedness for classroom teaching. This finding is congruent with the views of several writers in the literature regarding teachers' artifacts of teaching. For example, Hill (1990) and Wanzare (2002) observed that an analysis of teaching artifacts, such as lesson plans and lesson notes, is an important process of collecting information about teachers. Similarly, Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education (1998) underscored the importance of examining teachers' artifacts of teaching when they recommended that the headteacher should check periodically the teaching standards by referring to the artifacts of teaching, such as schemes of work, lesson notes, records of work done, pupils' exercise books, projects, practical work, and assignment scripts, to ensure regular making and systematic use in guiding learning.

Student Involvement

Thirty percent of the questionnaire participants focused their suggestions specifically on student involvement in school-based instructional supervision. Some of the participants suggested a need for students to be involved in the practices and procedures of supervision of instruction and proposed several ways in which students could participate in supervision exercises. The most frequently cited strategies for student involvement included allowing students to comment about their teachers' instructional effectiveness using a specially designed

evaluation form and interviewing students about the performance of their teachers. Commenting on this issue, one teacher stated, “Use of rating forms by students to rate teachers is a good idea and should be encouraged. But the possibility of negative reactions from teachers cannot be ruled out.”

One headteacher suggested that students would be a good source of feedback to school administration regarding teachers who miss classes and that such feedback should be given verbally. One teacher suggested that students should be given the opportunity to report, especially to their class teachers, the extent to which course contents have been covered by the various subject teachers. However, one teacher cautioned that some confidentiality should be observed regarding the involvement of students in addressing teachers’ shortcomings and that headteachers should not discuss teachers’ weaknesses openly with students because doing so would most likely demoralise the teachers.

It appears that the involvement of students in instructional supervision by allowing them to give their views of teacher effectiveness through questionnaires and interviews would be a viable means of providing feedback to teachers regarding their classroom teaching. This finding is consistent with writings relating to students’ feedback on teacher effectiveness (e.g., Glatthorn, 1990; Marczely, 2001; Oliva & Pawlas, 2001) that (a) student surveys can be a vital source of information for classroom teachers, (b) student feedback on teacher performance can be very useful and tend to be both valid and reliable, (c) students can provide insights into the instruction that cannot be gained otherwise, (d) student evaluations of teachers and teaching provide an important source of data about the effectiveness of teaching, and (e) students can provide valuable insights into the course, the instruction, and the instructor.

(b) *Instructional Supervisors*

Another area that received a great deal of attention from many of the participants was concerned with instructional supervisors. Suggestions were made regarding the personnel that participants would wish to see as school-based instructional supervisors. The most frequently cited individuals in this regard included headteachers and heads of departments.

Twenty percent of the questionnaire participants suggested that headteachers should take the leading role in school-based instructional supervision. They proposed that headteachers, as instructional supervisors, should (a) endeavour to develop interest in the major subjects being taught at secondary school level, (b) teach a few lessons, (c) allow themselves to be supervised by other school-based supervisors, (d) be more strict on supervision, (e) delegate supervisory duties accordingly, (f) be competent in their teaching subjects, (g) be role models, (h) encourage teachers to observe their lessons as a way of modeling, and (i) be present in school most of the time to offer adequate supervision. In several cases, the headteacher was described variously as “inspector on the ground” and “teacher number one.”

However, one teacher was concerned about the possibility of headteachers being biased in their practices of supervision and, instead, proposed supervision by a panel of supervisors consisting of individuals drawn from among experienced teachers and other school-based supervisors. This teacher commented as follows:

The headteacher should not be let to make overall judgments on teachers alone. This is because they may tend to be biased. There should be a panel concerned with school supervision. This panel should include heads of departments and teachers.

Another teacher was particularly concerned about the excessive powers bestowed upon headteachers by the Ministry of Education. This teacher suggested that the excessive powers of the headteachers, especially regarding supervision for summative purposes, be reduced. A substantial number of participants proposed some strategies to facilitate the work of school-based instructional supervisors. The most commonly cited possibilities included (a) spelling out clearly the supervisory functions of school-based instructional supervisors; (b) encouraging school-based instructional supervisors, especially headteachers and their deputies, to be exemplary and transparent in their supervisory roles and as policy implementers in order to be taken seriously and to be understood better by teachers; (c) encouraging whoever supervises to be knowledgeable about supervision and to observe professionalism in the process of supervision; (d) providing school-based supervisors, especially the headteachers, with the necessary incentives;—for example, extra allowances—to perform their instructional supervisory role; and (e) facilitating supervision and assessment of school-based instructional supervisors themselves.

The participants concurred that headteachers would be the most suitable school-based instructional supervisors. The involvement of headteachers in instructional supervision has been well documented in the literature. For example, Glickman et al. (2001), Chell (1995), and Williams (2000) noted that the headteacher is the chief instructional leader of the school whose responsibility includes, among others, supervising and evaluating teachers and managing curriculum and instruction. These findings are correspondingly consistent with Scott's (2001) findings, which revealed that the headteacher was singled out by all teachers studied as the primary individual responsible for supervising them.

However, because the headteacher is overburdened with other responsibilities, it is important that the headteacher share supervisory roles with other personnel in the school. Wanzare and da Costa (2001) shared the view that, although the headteacher is ultimately responsible for ensuring the quality of teaching and learning in the school, it is necessary and appropriate for the headteacher to share instructional leadership responsibilities with other individuals in the school, such as departmental heads, colleague teachers, and the deputy-headteacher.

To facilitate the work of school-based instructional supervisors, the participants put a great deal of emphasis on clarifying supervisory roles, encouraging transparency and professionalism among supervisors, developing ways to motivate supervisors, and ensuring quality supervision by assessing supervisor performance.

(c) Attitudes toward Supervision

Another area in which the participants expressed a desire for change was concerned with teachers' attitudes toward instructional supervision. A majority of participants, although acknowledging the prevalence of teachers' negativity toward supervision of instruction, advocated for a change in this attitude to facilitate the implementation of supervision programs in the schools. Several strategies toward this change of attitude were proposed by some teachers:

- (a) encouraging teachers to carry out their instructional duties well, (b) facilitating open discussions between teachers and school-based instructional supervisors, (c) educating teachers about instructional supervision practices, and (d) encouraging teachers to regard instructional supervision as a normal administrative procedure and as one of the means through which teacher

performance can be upgraded. Advocating for change relative to teachers' negative attitude, one teacher commented as follows:

I would say that teachers should regard instructional supervision as a normal administrative procedure, not necessarily to find faults. They should come to regard it as one of the means through which the headteacher, the hod, can upgrade the performance of teachers.

Five headteacher interviewees, in addressing the problem of teachers' negativity toward instructional supervision, especially classroom visitation, advised school heads to (a) endeavour to start their classroom observations with smart teachers before moving onto weak ones, (b) encourage deputy headteachers and other teachers to visit their classrooms to how they teach, (c) encourage and to praise teachers for a job well done as a way of motivating them, (d) be enlightened about instructional supervision, and (e) encourage teachers to consider the process of supervision as being normal, with a view to their developing positive attitudes toward school-based instructional supervision.

The participants concurred that changing teachers' negative attitudes toward supervision of instruction would enable teachers to view supervision as being beneficial to them, thus facilitating their receptivity to supervision practices and their overall job satisfaction. This finding concurs with one of Saudi Arabia's specific goals of teacher education under the system of education; namely, to develop basic theoretical and practical knowledge about the teaching profession so that the teachers' attitudes and abilities can be turned towards professional commitment and competence (Al-salloom, 2003).

The literature has consistently shown that successful supervision must confront negative attitudes toward the practice of supervision (Kosmoski, 1997). Similarly, Hilo's (1987) study underscored the need for supervisors to provide

teachers with special preparatory training programs in order to increase their self-confidence when supervisors enter their classes during the teaching process.

Several strategies to change teachers' negative attitudes to being supervised have been proposed: (a) cooperating with teachers by involving them in decision making and in planning supervision (Seyfarth & Nowinski, 1987); (b) raising teacher satisfaction through effective listening behaviours, such as showing interest and warmth, paraphrasing content and reflecting feelings, clarifying thoughts as necessary, and summarising (Taylor, Cook, Green, & Rogers, 1988); (c) developing trust between teachers and supervisors (Fenton, 1989; Taylor et al., 1988) and employing a multidimensional approach to supervision (Gray et al., 1992); and (e) facilitating informal supervision (Andrews & Knight, 1987; Glatthorn, 1987).

(d) *Feedback and Follow-Up*

Another area in which participants desired a change was concerned with feedback and follow-up. A few participants expressed a need to provide teachers with feedback, especially written reports on matters regarding supervision of instruction. Others specifically advocated for constructive feedback on teaching strategies and techniques, especially after classroom visits by the headteachers.

Commenting on this issue, one teacher suggested:

Teachers need to be told the outcome of such internal assessment because teachers most likely might not be conversant with the new instructional techniques and methods. Therefore, reports on school-based instructional supervision should be given to individual teachers as feedback on instructional concerns.

The participants believed that feedback and follow-up support given to teachers, especially through shared discussions, will facilitate their awareness

about their instructional performance, techniques, and methods. Consistent with these findings are reports from other similar studies. For example, Ovando and Harris (1993), in reflecting on teachers' responses and the results of their study, cited earlier in this chapter, observed that "teachers are interested in feedback and constructive criticism which are key components of formative evaluation" (p. 309).

(e) *Collaboration and Team Work*

Another area in which the participants felt a need for change was concerned with collaboration. In effect, they agreed that any successful implementation of instructional supervision program in the schools is dependent upon collaboration and team work among the key stakeholders. For example, fifty two percent of the participants spoke about shared decision making between school-based instructional supervisors and teachers regarding the purposes of supervision and the roles of the various individuals in supervision process. Other participants shared the views that teachers' input into matters regarding supervision of instruction should be encouraged to facilitate collaboration between teachers and school-based instructional supervisors, and that all teachers and school-based supervisors should work as a team. One district education officer, in a general remark, agreed: "Teachers and heads working together on instructional supervision; success of schools depends on teamwork involving determination of duties; comradeship very important."

Twelve teachers and two headteachers highlighted the ingredients of collaboration that they would like to be established in the schools: (a) a harmonious, close working relationship; (b) an atmosphere of freedom of

expression; (c) concern for each other, (d) proper channels of communication; and (e) a good understanding between teachers and headteachers.

The participants advocated for a collaborative form of instructional supervision in which teachers and headteachers work as a team to devise strategies for improving teacher performance for the benefit of students. According to Gray et al. (1992), collaborative supervision is “a move toward recognition of the teacher as a competent and valued professional, and a move away from the mere concern with the teacher’s classroom behaviour” (p. 18). The literature (e.g., Robbins & Alvy, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002) consistently indicated that (a) the focus of collaborative work must be its impact on the students; (b) collaborative partners must engage in work that ultimately leads to a heightened awareness of the conditions necessary for learning to occur; (c) in a collaborative workplace focused on student learning, all staff (teachers, headteachers, student) would assume responsibility for the professional welfare and growth of students and teachers; (d) when teachers work and learn collaboratively, teaching improves; better teaching means improved student learning; and (e) supervisors should provide systems of supervision that make sense to teachers, of which teachers will want to be a part, and that will facilitate teacher effectiveness in the classroom.

Several writings related to supervision of instruction indicate that teacher-supervisor collaboration is needed and is necessary to facilitate instructional improvement. For example, Hilo’s (1987) study of instructional supervisory practices in Nablus secondary schools in the West Bank, recommended a need for teacher involvement in the leadership and decision-making processes in schools, especially in those supervisory activities concerned with improving

teaching strategies, planning units, and selecting instructional materials. In addition, Mohammed (1991), in a study that investigated what beliefs and feelings, attitudes, and knowledge of effective supervision existed from the perceptions of headteachers underscored the need for teacher and supervisor collaboration and teachers' active involvement in supervisory decision-making processes.

4.10 Summary

In this chapter, the researcher presented the findings of the study based on analysis of the data relating to demographic characteristics of teachers and school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures. The findings from the demographic data showed that 10% of the teachers surveyed were under 30 years of age, about 74% were between 30 and 40 years of age, and only 2% of the teachers were over 50 years of age. Sixty-five percent of the participants surveyed through questionnaires were male, and nearly 35% were female. The majority of the teachers surveyed by questionnaire had either Diploma certificates or Bachelor of Education degrees as their highest professional qualification. Very few (3.3%) of the questionnaire participants had served for less than 1 year in their present position, but substantial numbers of them had 5 to 6 years (16.7%), 9 to 10 years (19.4%), or over 10 years (36.6%) of experience in present position.

Of the questionnaire participants, 11.5% had been in their present position in their present school for less than 1 year, 41% of them had served for either 3 to 4 years or 5 to 6 years in their present position in their present school, and only 10.4% of them had worked for over 10 years in their present position in their present school at the time that they responded to the questionnaires.

The findings from the interview data have indicated that teachers and headteachers had differing views regarding the meaning of instructional supervision. The findings from questionnaire data as well as from interviews revealed that school-based instructional supervision served the following major purposes: (a) to enhance student performance, (b) to ensure that teachers perform their instructional duties as mandated by the higher authorities, and (c) to facilitate curriculum implementation. The literature concurred with the findings that supervision is quality control, the major purposes of which are to monitor teaching and learning in the schools and to ensure that teachers meet acceptable level of performance; and that supervision should benefit both teachers and students.

The findings from the data reveal the following major focuses of school-based instructional supervision: (a) teacher's attendance to scheduled lessons, (b) teacher's participation in extracurricular and curricular activities, (c) teacher-student interaction, and (d) teacher's effectiveness in the class. The two areas in which the findings concur with the literature in terms of the focuses of school-based instructional supervision included (a) availability of teachers' artifacts of teaching, such as lesson plans and schemes of work and (b) teachers' attendance to scheduled classes.

The findings from the questionnaire data revealed that one practice, recognising and rewarding excellent teachers, was ranked highest by teachers as existing and preferred supervisory practice. The interview findings reveal the following major practices of school-based instructional supervision: (a) checking teachers' professional tools of work, such as schemes of work and records of work covered; (b) examination of students' exercise books; (c) using students to

obtain information about teachers; and (d) holding conferences with teachers.

The findings concurred with the literature in two areas relative to practices of school-based instructional supervision: (a) recognising and rewarding deserving teachers and students and (b) supervision by walking around. However, whereas the findings indicate that the involvement of students in assessing teacher performance was not a common practice in the schools, the literature has consistently shown that student evaluation of teacher performance has been a valuable source of information about teacher effectiveness.

The findings from the questionnaire-based data indicated that, based on teachers' perceptions, one attribute of the school-based instructional supervisor, the ability to communicate effectively, received a high ranking in terms of importance in the headteacher's instructional supervisory role and the need for further preparation of the headteacher. This is one of the areas in which the findings concurred with the literature.

The findings from the interview data reveal the following skills and attributes required of school-based instructional supervisors: (a) ability to lead by example, (b) high integrity, and (c) knowledge of delegation and public relations. In contrast to the findings that skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom and holding conferences were not essential in instructional supervisors' leadership roles, the literature has shown that instructional supervisors should be grounded in observation and conferencing skills.

The findings from the questionnaire data reveal that two types of personnel, the headteacher and the deputy-headteacher, ranked highest in terms of the existing and preferred extent of involvement in school-based instructional supervision as perceived by teachers. These two professionals were also viewed

by interview participants as the ones who were mostly involved in the supervision of instruction in the schools. The recognition of the centrality of headteachers and deputy headteachers in facilitating instructional leadership was also supported widely in the literature. However, in contrast to the finding that supervision by colleagues was uncommon in the schools, the literature has clearly indicated that peer supervision is important in the professional development of teachers.

The questionnaire findings further reveal that the majority of teachers were somewhat or highly satisfied with the following two aspects of instructional supervision in the schools: (a) the overall quality of instructional supervision and (b) administrative support for the school-based instructional supervision program. Similarly, the findings from interview data indicate the following four major aspects of school-based instructional supervision in which participants were generally satisfied: (a) the presence of reciprocal exchange of instructional information among peer teachers; (b) the manner in which teaching timetables were developed; (c) the scheduling of departmental staff meetings to address instructional concerns; and (d) the manner in which headteachers encouraged to carry out their instructional responsibilities.

The findings of the study regarding advantages, problems, and suggested changes for effectiveness in practices of school-based instructional supervision indicate that teachers, headteachers, and district education officers agreed that the practices and procedures of school-based instructional supervision have numerous advantages. For example, the practices facilitate students' academic performance, improve the quality of teachers and teaching enabled instructional supervisors to monitor teachers' instructional work, and foster a spirit of

collaboration and team work. However, the findings of the study also reveal many problems associated with practices of instructional supervision, such as lack of consistency and professionalism; questionable supervisor behaviours; teachers' general negativity toward supervision of instruction; and lack of feedback and follow-up support on matters regarding instructional supervision.

Finally, the following are some of the proposed changes for effective practices and procedures of instructional supervision based on the findings of the study: facilitating classroom observation and student involvement in supervision of instruction; ensuring consistency in supervision practices; encouraging supervision by headteachers; facilitating collaboration and team work between teachers and instructional supervisors; providing feedback and follow-up support to teachers on matters regarding instructional supervision; and Changing teachers' negative attitudes towards supervision by facilitating open discussions regarding supervision and educating teachers about supervision practices.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter presents a review of the findings of the study, responses to the research questions, and the conclusions reached in the study. Also included in this chapter are recommendations for practice, for policy, and for further research.

5.1 Major Findings of the Study

1. The meaning of instructional supervision. Apart from the specific research questions addressed in the questionnaires, the interview participants were requested to suggest the meaning of instructional supervision. The interview data revealed that teachers, headteachers, and district education officers had varying views regarding the meaning. According to teacher interviewees, instructional supervision is a process by which headteachers facilitate teaching and learning in the school by monitoring teachers' work. On the other hand, the headteachers and education officers interviewed regarded instructional supervision as a process of ensuring that students are actually taught by their teachers as mandated by the school authority. And, according to the deputy headteacher interviewees, instructional supervision is a process of checking how instruction is conducted in the school.

2. Purposes of school-based instructional supervision. Overall findings demonstrate that school-based instructional supervision in the schools served two major purposes: to give the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching effectiveness and to give the headteacher and teachers opportunities to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching. They also agreed that "great" or "very great" importance was attached to these

two purposes in school-based instructional supervision. Further to this, the following were perceived as the major purposes of school-based instructional supervision in the schools: These were to: (a) enhance student performance; (b) ensure that teachers perform their instructional duties as mandated by the higher authorities; and (c) facilitate curriculum implementation.

3. Focuses of school-based instructional supervision. The following three major focuses of school-based instructional supervision received the highest ranking in both existing and preferred extent of examination: (a) availability of properly-organised pupils' progress records, (b) availability of up-to-date weekly records of work covered, and (c) teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations.

Furthermore, the following were perceived as the major focuses of the existing school-based instructional supervision practices in the schools studied: (a) teacher's attendance to scheduled lessons, (b) teacher's participation in extracurricular and curricular activities, (c) teacher-student interaction, (d) teacher's effectiveness in the classroom, (e) teacher's level of preparedness, (f) teacher's methods of assessment of pupil's work, (g) quality of papers set by the teacher, (h) teacher's presence in the school, and (i) syllabus coverage by the teacher.

4. Practices of school-based instructional supervision. Recognising and rewarding excellent teachers received high ranking in both existing and preferred supervisory practices in the schools as perceived by teachers. Also, obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews received relatively low ranking in both existing and

preferred extent of examination as perceived by teachers and was also considered inappropriate by some of the teachers and district education officers interviewed.

The following were perceived to be the major practices of school-based instructional supervision in the schools: (a) checking teachers' professional tools of work or artifacts of teaching, such as schemes of work, records of work covered, lesson notes, lesson plans, lesson-focus books, mark books, daily preparation books, and test papers; (b) examining students' exercise books; (c) using students to obtain information about teachers; (d) holding conferences with teachers; (e) observing teachers in their classrooms; and (f) supervising by walking around.

5. Skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors.

Teachers gave the highest ranking in terms of importance in the headteacher's instructional role and the need for further preparation of the headteacher two skills: skills in building upon strengths of staff members and skills in holding one-to-one conferences. Instructional problem-solving skills ranked highest in terms of need for further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers, and the ability to communicate effectively ranked highest in order of importance in the headteacher's supervisory role and in terms of further preparation of the headteacher as perceived by teachers.

The following were perceived as the major desired skills and attributes of school-based instructional supervisors: (a) ability to lead by example, (b) high integrity, (c) knowledge about delegation, (d) knowledge about public relations, (e) supervisory skills, and (f) competence in teaching subjects. In addition, according to the beliefs held by some of the education officers interviewed,

headteachers, as instructional supervisors, should be qualified and experienced teachers.

6. Degree of satisfaction with current school-based instructional supervision practices. The majority of teachers were somewhat or highly satisfied with two aspects of school-based instructional supervision: the overall quality of school-based instructional supervision and the administrative support to school based instructional supervision program. On the other hand, many teachers were somewhat or highly dissatisfied with three aspects of school-based instructional supervision in their schools: (a) the extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work, (b) the existence of staff development programs relevant to the role of the school- based instructional supervisor, and (c) the adequacy of staff development programs relevant to the role of the school- based instructional supervisor.

The interview data revealed that the participants in this study were satisfied with the following aspects of school-based instructional supervision in the schools: (a) the presence of reciprocal exchange of instructional information among peer teachers; (b) the manner in which teaching timetables were developed, (c) the scheduling of departmental meetings to address instructional concerns; and (d) the manner in which headteachers encouraged teachers to carry out their instructional responsibilities.

7. Types of personnel involved in school-based instructional supervision. The participants in this study paid pronounced attention to the involvement of different types of supervisors in supervision practices and procedures as opposed to using only one type of supervisors and felt that instructional supervision is a shared responsibility. In general, the participants

perceived that headteachers and deputy headteachers were the major individuals who were and who should be involved in school-based instructional supervision. In contrast, they assigned low rankings in terms of the existing extent of involvement in school-based instructional supervision by subject heads and colleagues. The lowest ranked preferred personnel in instructional supervision as perceived by teachers were the teachers themselves (i.e., self-evaluation).

However, the following were perceived as major problems regarding school-based instructional supervisors, especially headteachers: (a) their lack of the necessary supervisory skills, (b) their usual busy schedules involving non-instructional matters, (c) their lack of seriousness about instructional supervisory duties, (d) their general low academic qualifications compared to those of the teachers whom they are expected to supervise, and (e) their lack of meaningful involvement in teaching classes.

8. Advantages, Problems, and Suggested Changes for Effectiveness in Practices of School-Based Instructional Supervision. School-based instructional supervision has two perceived advantages: It facilitates curriculum implementation and students' academic performance, and it enables instructional supervisors to monitor teachers' instructional work. The following were perceived as the major problems associated with school-based instructional supervision practices: (a) lack of consistency; (b) lack of productive feedback and follow-up support on matters regarding supervision of instruction; and (c) teachers' general negativity to practices of supervision.

The following were the major proposed changes to improve practices of school-based instructional supervision: (a) Facilitate classroom observation and student involvement in supervision practices; (b) encourage supervision by

headteachers, (c) facilitate changes in teachers' persistent negative attitudes toward instructional supervision; (d) provide adequate supervisory feedback and follow-up support to teachers; and (e) foster collaboration and teamwork among teachers and instructional supervisors.

5.2 Conclusions

In this section the conclusions based on the findings of this study are given. They have been organised around three major perspectives. In the first subsection, conclusions are presented that deal with the theoretical literature concerning instructional supervision. In the second subsection, conclusions are presented that focus on practice regarding instructional supervision. In the third and final subsection, conclusions are presented that focus on policy on instructional supervision.

Conclusions Regarding Theory on Instructional Supervision

The findings presented in the previous chapter contribute to our understanding of the theoretical ideas considered in chapter 2 in a number of ways. First of all, the findings are in line with and generally support: (a) that instructional supervision addresses numerous focuses relevant to the teaching and learning process, such as teaching portfolios, teachers' knowledge of the subject content, instructional strategies, and classroom management; (b) that the main purpose of supervision is to improve teaching and thereby promote successful student learning; (c) that instructional supervisors such as headteachers should be equipped with the necessary skills to enable them to perform their supervisory role more effectively; (d) that the headteachers' instructional leadership was a significant factor in facilitating, improving, and promoting students' academic progress; (e) that teacher-supervisor collaboration is needed and is necessary to

facilitate instructional improvement; and (f) that the supervisory practices should address the needs of the various categories of teachers. Secondly, the findings do not appear to support the practice of obtaining information from students about their teachers' performance through face-to-face interviews. However, the literature supported the involvement of students in evaluation of teachers. Teachers did not seem to regard observing and conferencing skills as being essential in school-based instructional supervisors' leadership roles. These findings are contrary to the belief that supervision requires the supervisors to possess skills in classroom observation and conferencing with teachers. Thirdly, the findings also suggest that the conceptual framework (Figure 2.2) presented in Chapter 2 could be improved by incorporating the functions and activities of the various stakeholders in the school system, such as teaching staff, support staff, students, parents, and external communities in facilitating the success of instructional supervision.

Conclusions Regarding Practices of Instructional Supervision

Supervision practices. Numerous practices for collecting data on teachers were prevalent in the schools studied and were employed by school-based instructional supervisors. However, because of varying interpretations of instructional supervision, there was no uniformity regarding the practices and procedures of instructional supervision across the schools. Overall, findings of this study indicated that a great deal of importance was attached to examining teachers' artifacts of teaching. An examination of such artifacts, especially lesson plans, will enable the supervisor to judge on-the-spot adjustments in the lesson plans made by teachers while the lesson is underway to accommodate ongoing

behavioural cues from students or as the need for such adjustments become necessary.

Supervisory style. Supervision by inspection appeared to be the most commonly used supervisory style among secondary school-based instructional supervisors, especially headteachers. With this style, the headteachers continued to place a great deal of importance on teachers' attendance to scheduled lessons and to the availability of the artifacts of teaching. This style appeared to be highly authoritative and perhaps a source of frequent conflicts and poor relations between teachers and headteachers. As a result: (a) headteachers were not very effective in offering professional assistance to teachers; (b) teachers had no confidence in the practices and procedures of instructional supervision; (c) teachers were highly stressed, developed negative attitudes toward supervision, and viewed them as fault-finding exercises aimed at catching them doing the wrong; and (d) the process of supervision, supposedly meant to facilitate teacher performance, actually did not address teachers' instructional concerns. It can be surmised that headteachers did not have the repertoire of supervision techniques recommended by experts in instructional supervision that recognised teacher involvement in supervision; that embodies appropriate criteria against which teacher performance can be measured and judged; and that is founded around issues regarded as valuable to teachers and headteachers.

Teacher motivation and confidence in their instructional performance skills will not increase as a result of the current supervisory style that the headteachers employ. Furthermore, the feelings of stress and frustration among teachers associated with the current supervision practices, as revealed in this study, will most likely remain.

Instructional supervision and school improvement. It seems that the practices of school-based instructional supervision led to the overall school improvement by enhancing the quality of teaching and learning, curriculum implementation, and student performance. The literature on the school improvement research (e.g., Hopkins, Aincow, & West, 1994) suggested that (a) school improvement efforts should be directed toward student outcomes, (b) the primary focus on school improvement should be teaching and learning, and (c) school improvement should focus on school development as a whole.

Resourcing. There were extreme shortages of resource materials and equipment in the schools studied to support school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs to the extent that these programs resulted in frustration. Because of these shortages, the quality of supervision of instruction and staff development programs offered in the schools have been poor and hopelessly inadequate.

Conclusions Regarding Policies on Instructional Supervision

Policy development. There appeared to be no clearly written policies regarding school-based instructional supervision for teachers and headteachers of which these groups of professionals were aware. As long as policy guidelines on instructional supervision are not forthcoming, (a) teachers and headteachers would most likely continue to hold differing views about what instructional supervision means; (b) teachers would not be able to identify instructional practices that need improvement or to construct meaningful teaching activities that meet the needs of students, school organisation, and instructional supervisors; and (c) instructional supervisors would not be able to provide

teachers with a framework for restructuring their teaching practices to facilitate student learning.

Dissemination of information about policy guidelines. The essence of school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs involves having well-defined policies that provide guidance and direction regarding the purposes and practices and procedures of supervision. Yes, policies on supervision can be developed, but it is important that instructional supervisors and teachers become aware and understand the policies and, more important, implement them. Then what does this mean for schools? It means that communication of policy guidelines to schools is an important endeavour.

Dissemination of information regarding policy guidelines to schools is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education through its district education offices. In this regard, the District Education Officers (DEOs) can play their professional roles more effectively in enriching headteachers and teachers with regard to dissemination of information on supervision and staff development policies. If the Ministry of Education fails to communicate with schools about such policies, as indicated by the findings, the purpose for which supervision and staff development programs are supposedly developed, that of providing professional support to teachers and headteachers, will not be accomplished.

5.3 Recommendations

A synthesis and analysis of data generated by this study may be summarised in several recommendations. This section addresses the major recommendations for practice, for policy, and for research, based on the conclusions reached.

Recommendations for Practice

1. That school-based instructional supervisors develop consistent assessment procedures for teacher performance. One logical strategy toward this end would be for instructional supervisors to work collaboratively with teachers to develop appropriate assessment procedures for teacher performance.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) noted that, in implementing supervisory options, (a) supervision should be viewed as a process that is equally accessible to teachers and administrators, (b) supervision should not monopolise supervision process by excluding teachers, and (c) headteachers should endeavour to build a culture of shared responsibility for learning and instructional improvement.

Assessment procedures may include frequency of classroom observation, methods of recording classroom teaching, when and how to provide feedback on teacher performance, and how data collected about teachers should be used. In defining the procedures, teachers' experience and levels of competence should be considered. Inexperienced teachers should be observed more frequently than more experienced teachers.

Clearly defined assessment procedures may serve as guides for both teachers and instructional supervisors, should be the foundation for assessment, and should facilitate teachers' confidence in the practices and procedures of school-based instructional supervision. Most important, how the data collected are used by school-based instructional supervisors should be clarified.

Assessment data may be used for (a) conferences with teachers, (b) the creation of a professional development assistance plan, and (b) personnel decisions regarding, for example, merit pay, career ladder, change of assignment, increased responsibilities, retention, and dismissal (Oliva & Pawlas, 2001). Headteachers

need to use an appropriate supervision model. The participants in this study indicated satisfaction with a collaborative form of supervision model. The key is most likely the use of any model with the ingredient of high teacher involvement and adequate steps to make the process thorough and meaningful.

2. School-based instructional supervisors should ensure that teachers have a clear understanding of the purpose of supervision in order to ensure instructional improvement. If the purpose of supervision is instructional improvement, as indicated in this study, school-based instructional supervisors must work with teachers to determine how this will be achieved.

3. That school-based instructional supervisors, working as a team with teachers, should develop consistent collaborative approaches to instructional supervision that embraces a philosophy of shared decision making. Toward this end, there is a need for headteachers, as instructional supervisors, to establish a strong culture that provides teachers with opportunities to collaborate with them in redesigning curricular and instructional programs that facilitate student learning, and to encourage collaborative groupings of teachers, departmental heads, subject heads, and other school members to play active roles with respect to instructional leadership. Also, teachers should be encouraged to collaborate with each other and work together with other school staff. With such a framework, attention should be devoted to the collective responsibility of the school team without losing sight of the individual's freedom and creativity. This form of collaboration is important in promoting the school as a learning community.

4. Feedback during the supervision process is essential for ensuring instructional improvement. Teachers must be provided with access to honest and constructive feedback from their school-based instructional supervisors. Feedback can be provided during pre- and post-supervision conferences, and throughout the process. It is necessary for school-based instructional supervisors to be accessible to all teachers regardless of their supervisory needs. This will ensure that even when teachers are not participating in direct supervision, they still are provided with feedback regarding the process in which they are involved.

5. The Ministry of Education as well as schools endeavour to provide sufficient resource materials, such as funds and equipment, to support school-based instructional supervision and staff development programs for teachers and headteachers. At the national level and through policy provision and legislation, the Ministry of Education should provide for budgetary allocations to make in-service training for teachers and headteachers an ongoing practice. Special consideration for in-service programs should be made pertaining to differences in professional needs for (a) urban teachers and headteachers, (b) rural teachers and headteachers, and (c) beginning teachers and headteachers. Individual schools should also endeavour to generate their own resources to adequately meet the instructional needs of teachers, students, and other stakeholders in the schools..

6. The Ministry of Education endeavours to provide teachers and headteachers with ongoing in-service training, especially in instructional supervision. The literature on the school improvement research (e.g., Glickman et al., 2001) indicated that improving schools are characterised by ongoing professional development of teachers and headteachers, including continuous analysis, reflection, and growth. Wanzare and da Costa (2000) observed that,

because supervision is an important vehicle for staff development, instructional supervision of teachers, especially, “can and should be an important component of an effective, comprehensive teacher development program” (p. 52). As Blackburn (1992) recommended, school administrators should use professional development opportunities to help individual teachers become more effective and competent in specific areas of identified needs. Therefore, teachers and headteachers should be given the time and training necessary to carry out instructional supervision.

Recommendations for Policy

The findings of the study demonstrate that the Ministry of Education had not given sufficient attention to school-based instructional supervision by providing clearly-written policy guidelines to facilitate supervisors’ and teachers’ understanding of what instructional supervision process entailed and, as a result, instructional supervision appeared to be conducted haphazardly. Similarly, policy guidelines from the Ministry of Education regarding in-service training of teachers and headteachers were wanting. These conclusions suggest the following two recommendations for policy:

1. That there is an urgent need for the Ministry of Education to develop a clearly written policy regarding supervision of instruction. Instructional supervisors must relate their supervisory practices to well-established policies and guidelines governing the practice of supervision that specify the general methods, practices, and procedures of instructional supervision. As explained by Caldwell and Spinks (1988), a policy is a set of guidelines that provide a framework for action in achieving an intended purpose or purposes. They argue that policy for instructional supervision should include, among other things,

common schemes of operation, set supervision programs known to teachers and to supervisors, provision for periodic formal supervisory reports submitted to the Ministry of Education, provision for supervisory feedback to teachers, the purpose of supervision, provision for rewards for deserving teachers, the focuses of instructional supervision, and the roles of the various stakeholders, such as teachers, headteachers, and students. A clarification of the role of the various stakeholders in the supervision process might help address the problem of role conflicts associated with the current practices of school-based instructional supervision. Feedback to teachers, especially after classroom observation, enables teachers and supervisors to share their experiences regarding classroom events as a basis for instructional improvement. Such feedback may be facilitated through face-to-face conferences. With a clear perception of the purpose of instructional supervision, teachers will be able to understand the importance of supervision, thus facilitating their participation in the practices of instructional supervision. Policy on supervision of instruction should be applied fairly, reasonably, professionally, and ethically.

Overall, having the Ministry of Education emphasise a review of school leadership that promotes a strong administrative role in the area of instructional leadership, increasing headteachers' expertise as instructional leaders, as well as reviewing the amount of time that headteachers allocate to instructional supervision appear to be viable policy areas that may pay dividends in terms of instructional improvement. Such policy provision should encourage collaborative decision making pertaining to instructional supervision and should facilitate the allocation of adequate resources to facilitate supervision programs in the schools. Therefore, effective supervisory policies must be clear, concise, flexible but firm,

practical in terms of their implementability, logical, and contextual; indicate financial and leadership support; and be credible to gain target-group acceptance and behavioural change (Burger & Bumbarger, 1991).

2. That the Ministry of Education develops a policy model based on investment in school improvement, including different assumptions on how to improve the schools and teachers' and headteachers' performance.

Recommendations for Further Research

1. Studies be conducted to determine appropriate standards or criteria for evaluating the performance of secondary teachers and which would be responsive to the unique Saudi Arabian context of teaching. Evaluation criteria provide general dimensions against which teacher performance may be rated as success (Wheeler & Haertel, 1993). As explained by Wheeler and Scriven, evaluation criteria may include observable types of knowledge, skills, abilities, behaviours, and attributes. Information could be gleaned from students, headteachers, teachers, and Ministry of Education officers.

A major question that should be addressed in such a study includes, What are the preferred evaluation criteria for teacher effectiveness? Investigations regarding this question should include surveys through questionnaires and interviews as well as observations and analysis of relevant government documents. Such studies can provide a useful bank of evaluation standards that can be used (a) by teachers themselves to examine their own practice alone, together, or with their instructional supervisors and (b) as frameworks in improving teaching, in defining what is good teaching practice, and in designing teacher supervision and evaluation systems (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002).

2. Studies be conducted that would determine specific support structures that facilitate the implementation of school-based instructional supervision programs. Information can be gleaned from the Ministry of Education headquarters; district education offices; and schools. For effective implementation of instructional supervision, essential materials and equipment must be available. Studies regarding support structures may include determining the following areas: (a) the existence of adequate instructional materials in the schools, (b) types of instructional resources needed and how to acquire them, (c) strategies for funding, and (e) the availability and adequacy of information technology programs for teachers and headteachers.

This study employed questionnaires and interviews to gather research data. The strengths and limitations associated with these instruments were cited earlier. Findings of the study revealed a variety of practices of school-based instructional supervision, such as checking teachers' potential tools of work, examining students' exercise books, holding conferences with teachers, observing teachers in their classrooms. These findings supported the conclusion that school-based instructional supervisors apparently recognised the need to facilitate teacher performance through different supervisory strategies.

3. An observational study that focuses on the current practices of school-based instructional supervision be conducted. This could include watching headteachers in their supervisory practices to determine what they actually do and how they do it, and participating in in-service training programs for teachers and headteachers to watch the various activities in which the participants are involved and their relevance to the role of school-based instructional supervisors and supervisees. A major advantage of an observational study, as explained by

Gall et al. (2003), is its potential to yield more accurate data than other research strategies do.

4. Studies are needed that would determine the long-term impacts of the practices of school-based instructional supervision and staff development on school improvement. Do these practices actually lead to school improvement? How does school improvement come about? Investigations should include how different practices of instructional supervision and staff development affect individual schools, teachers, and students. Sample schools may be selected to determine the progress regarding instructional supervision and staff development within a specified time period after the implementation of the action plans.

Such investigations may be enhanced through extensive, thoughtful dialogue with the key stakeholders in the schools (e.g., headteachers, teachers, and students) and critical examination and analysis of improvement efforts in terms of teacher quality and instructional approaches, as well as students' learning, over a period of time.

Findings of this study revealed mixed understandings regarding the meaning of instructional supervision. Overall, the participants agreed that instructional supervision is a process of checking other people's work to ensure that bureaucratic regulations and procedures are followed and that loyalty to the higher authorities is observed. These findings supported the conclusions that instructional supervision was equated with inspection; that teachers, especially viewed instructional supervision as a strategy aimed at policing their work; and that the varying interpretations of instructional supervision may have led to differences in supervision practices in the schools. Based on these conclusions, it is recommended that:

5. This study be replicated with a larger group of teachers, headteachers, and district education officers to compare their beliefs, attitudes, and values regarding school-based instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools. Research questions pertinent to these areas could include the following as they relate to public secondary schools:

1. What beliefs do teachers, headteachers, and district education officers hold regarding school-based instructional supervision?
2. What are the attitudes of teachers, headteachers, and district education officers toward school-based instructional supervision?
3. What values do teachers, headteachers, and district education officers attach to school-based instructional supervision?
4. What are the similarities and differences regarding teachers', headteachers', and district education officers' beliefs, attitudes, and values relative to school-based instructional supervision?

Specific questionnaires could be developed which would be used to survey teachers, headteachers, and district education officers in a like manner and on similar dimensions relating to the three major areas.

A study that involves more in-depth examination of the three groups of professionals' attitudes, beliefs, and values regarding school-based instructional supervision processes may help determine why the gaps in their perceptions of the meaning of instructional supervision exist and what steps could be taken to ameliorate the differences. If the gaps can be closed, teachers and school-based instructional supervisors, especially should be better able to work together for the best possible instructional supervision program.

The exploratory nature of such a study may provide attitudinal insight into specific factors contributing to teachers', headteachers', and district education officers' satisfaction with the practice of school-based instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools. Furthermore, if the three groups of professionals are used in the study, a more complete picture of the full value of school-based instructional supervision would emerge. If supervision practices are to be more than ritual, it requires the common understanding of the values, attitudes, and beliefs regarding school-based instructional supervision. Additionally, by analyzing the attitudes, beliefs, and values teachers, headteachers, and district education officers have relative to school-based instructional supervision, such a study may be helpful in giving the education profession a clearer picture of what makes an effective school-based instructional supervision practice.

Personal Reflections

The findings of this study reflected what the researcher had experienced as a teacher in several high schools in Saudi Arabia. The experience of designing and conducting the study that would produce usable information has been most rewarding. The researcher intends to share his findings with Saudi Arabian secondary school teachers and headteachers; district education officers. The researcher hopes that the proposed strategies toward the improvement of the practices of school-based instructional supervision will be of interest to practicing teachers and headteachers. It is critical to bridge the gap between the professional needs of teachers and headteachers and student achievement.

The researcher has experienced changes in his personal beliefs about collecting research data from my home country. At the beginning of the study he

was convinced the data collection process would be smooth. However, as the researcher began to collect research data, interacting with teachers, headteachers, and district education officers, the researcher experienced some difficulties: the lack of meaningful cooperation from some participants, the failure to have questionnaire surveys returned by some participants, and what appeared to be the deliberate failure of some participants to honor agreed-upon appointments.

After writing the findings of this study, the researcher realised that some of the feelings that the researcher shared with some of the participants about the problems they experienced relative to school-based instructional supervision practices in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools involved the very contextual problems that (a) have been a major source of teachers' negativity toward instructional supervision, (b) often interfered with teacher and headteacher performance and (c) perhaps led to the student violence that has rocked many Saudi Arabian secondary schools in the recent past.

It seems that teachers regard the criteria for assessing their instructional work as bureaucratic requirements and something to work around rather than work towards. They seemingly see headteachers as individuals whose supervisory role includes policing teachers' work. It is not surprising that teachers' view of instructional supervision differs from that of headteachers and education officers, who are expected to reinforce bureaucratic policies in the schools through inspection. There are also some methodological lessons that the researcher learnt from this study. The study employed two major strategies for collecting data: questionnaire surveys and interviews. Through these strategies the researcher gathered a huge amount of data that demanded a great deal of time to process. An attempt to have interview audiotapes transcribed by English

transcribers failed as they could not cope with foreign accents in the tapes, and, as a result, the researcher had to transcribe the tapes himself. However, the researcher learnt how to use a transcriber effectively. In reflecting on the findings, it is important to bear in mind that they were based on participants' views about school-based instructional supervision practices and procedures in public secondary schools in which headteachers, as instructional supervisors, perform both summative and formative evaluations of their teachers. This dual function of the headteachers impacts upon their own perceptions regarding practices of school-based instructional supervision and their degree of satisfaction with the practices. Undoubtedly, this dual function also impacts upon teachers' perceptions of practices of instructional supervision.

Replication of the Study

This study was conducted only for public secondary schools in Saudi Arabia. A replication of this study with primary school teachers, headteachers, and education officers in charge of primary education to determine their perceptions about the practices of school-based instructional supervision is needed. Such a study may (a) provide additional insight into and a more complete picture regarding supervision practices and the unique factors associated with the practices; (b) further identify and define the professional benefits of instructional supervision to those who were observed in the current study to foster a positive and supportive climate and at the same time provide maximum impact on teachers' success and, ultimately, student success; and (c) determine whether the findings are representative of the style orientations of headteachers in general in instructional supervision. If the results are similar to those of the current study, the implications of this study will be broader. Various types of public primary

schools in terms of their size and their location (urban or rural) may be included in the study.

This study has been an enriching experience for the researcher. The researcher has come to conclude that, to acquire new knowledge, one must be ready to face and to accommodate surprises, to explore, to face challenges with confidence, and to be willing to learn. The researcher has been extremely impressed by many aspects of the study. For example, the opportunity to interact, on a one-to-one basis, with some participants, especially district education officers, was particularly rewarding. The researcher was able to have a glimpse of some of their busy schedules and challenges. They provided rich insights into the dynamics of the Saudi Arabian education system—the challenges faced by the various stakeholders in ensuring education quality and their role in implementing educational policies and practices.

A Final Word

Although this study was in no way definitive, it provided the groundwork and some additional insight for understanding the present nature of practices of school-based instructional supervision in public secondary schools in Saudi Arabia. It demonstrates for the first time the perceptions of secondary teachers, secondary headteachers, and district education officers regarding school-based instructional supervision practices. The results of this study provide a basis for headteachers to recognise the need to involve teachers more effectively in decisions regarding instructional supervision practices and procedures in order to enhance the quality of teaching and learning.

If school-based instructional supervision practices have to play a role in instructional improvement, they must identify the instructional practices

strategies in need of improvement and provide remedial assistance to teachers to make that improvement.

To evaluate the implications of this study requires attention to two critical issues: first, the extent to which instructional supervision is important development can occur through the Ministry of Education intervention; and, second, the extent to which teachers and headteachers support educational initiatives and reforms effectively.

Finally, this study is only a small step toward understanding the notions of instructional supervision practices in Saudi Arabian schooling. Instructional supervision is complex processes involving multiple layers and key players. Understanding these processes and how they relate to one another requires a much more in-depth investigation than can be done in a study of this scope. In this study the researcher has merely attempted to determine the current state of school-based instructional supervision in Saudi Arabian public secondary schools.

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

This questionnaire consists of several sections each of which has its own set of directions. Either circle your responses or write the information as required. If additional space is required, please use additional paper.

SECTION 1: BACKGROUND DATA

1. What is the total number of pupils in your school? _____
2. How many teachers are in your school? _____
3. What is your age on 1 March 2010? Please circle one only.

(a) under 30 years	(b) 30-40	(c) 41-50	(d) over 50
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4. What is your sex? (a) male (b) female
5. What is your highest professional/academic qualification? Please circle one only.

(a) Diploma	(b) Bachelor of Education Degree	(c) Bachelor of Arts/Science
(d) Postgraduate Diploma in Education		
6. For how long have you served as a teacher?

(a) less than 1 year	(b) 1 - 2 years	(c) 3 - 4 years	(d) 5-6 years
(e) 7 - 8 years	(f) 9 - 10 years	(g) over 10 years	
7. For how long have you served as a teacher at your present school?

(a) less than 1 year	(b) 1 - 2 years	(c) 3 - 4 years	(d) 5-6 years
(e) 7 - 8 years	(f) 9 - 10 years	(g) over 10 years	

SECTION 2: PURPOSE OF SCHOOL-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Listed below are statements that may be used to describe the purposes of school based instructional supervision. On the Degree of Agreement scale, please rate (by circling the appropriate number on each purpose) the degree to which you agree with each statement. On the Importance scale, please rate how much importance you believe you should give to each purpose of instructional supervision.

	5 Strongly agree 4 Agree 3 Uncertain 2 Disagree 1 Strongly disagree	5 Very great 4 Great 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No importance
Overall, school-based instructional supervision in this school serves the following purposes:	Level of agreement	Importance
1. gives teachers an opportunity to analyze and make judgments about their teaching	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
2. provides teachers with collegial ways of confronting their instructional techniques which need improvement	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
3. helps teachers to identify appropriate teaching and learning resources	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
4. enlightens teachers about professional development opportunities	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
5. helps teachers improve their teaching effectiveness	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
6. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to work together in establishing teaching objectives	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
7. gives the headteacher and teachers an opportunity to discuss recent ideas relating to classroom teaching	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
8. enables the headteacher to assess the instructional abilities of teachers	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
9. enables the headteacher to make administrative decisions on teachers regarding: promotion, demotion and dismissal	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1
10. enables the headteacher to assess whether government policies for instruction are being realised	5 4 3 2 1	5 4 3 2 1

SECTION 3: FOCUSES OF SCHOOL-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Listed below are statements that describe the focuses of school based instructional supervision. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate (a) the extent to which each aspect is actually (EXISING) examined by your headteacher as an school based instructional supervisor, and (b) the extent to which you believe your headteacher should (PREFERRED) examine each aspect by circling responses according to the following key:

Focuses of school based instructional supervision	5 Very frequently examined	4 Often examined	3 Sometimes examined	2 Rarely examined	1 Never examined					
	Existing extent			Preferred extent						
1. Teacher's overall organisation of lessons	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
2. Teacher's organisation of the subject matter	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
3. Teacher's knowledge of the subject matter	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
4. Teacher's concern with pupils' academic development	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
5. Teacher's knowledge of the total school curriculum	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
6. Preparation of an appropriate lesson plan	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
7. Teacher's concern with the pupils' development of the process of individual inquiry	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
8. Teacher's use of teaching aids	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
9. Achievement of course objectives	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
10. Teacher's personality	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
11. Teacher's concern with pupils' character development	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
12. Availability of properly organised pupils' progress records	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
14. Teacher's dress and appearance	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
15. Teacher's concern with pupils' development of a sense of responsibility	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
16. Teacher's ability to make course interesting	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
17. The manner in which the teacher asks questions in the class	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
18. Teacher's classroom management	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
19. Teacher's participation in extra-curricular activities	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
20. Teacher's concern with pupils' performance in national examinations	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
21. Teacher's evidence of self-evaluation activities	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
22. Teacher-pupil relationships	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION 4: PRACTICES OF SCHOOL-BASED INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION

Stated below are statements that may be used to describe instructional supervision practices as conducted by headteachers. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate the importance your headteacher, as an school based instructional supervisor, presently (EXISING) gives to each practice and the importance your headteacher should (PREFERRED) give to each practice by circling responses according to the following key:

Supervisory practices	Importance of practice									
	Existing					Preferred				
	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
1. Setting up specific sessions with teachers to discuss how teaching should be conducted	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
2. Notifying the teachers when their work is likely to be evaluated	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
3. Providing teachers with an adequate amount of information to become familiar with the supervisory process	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
4. Making efforts to reduce teachers' level of anxieties concerning the supervisory programme	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
5. Making sure that teachers understand the methods for collecting information about themselves	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
6. Meeting with teachers prior to classroom observation	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
7. Using examination/test results as an indicator of teacher performance	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
8. Obtaining information from students about their teachers performance through face-to-face interviews	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
9. Holding face-to-face interviews with teachers to obtain information about their classroom practice	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
10. Encouraging teachers to evaluate their own teaching (self-evaluation)	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
11. Taking corrective action on instructional matters affecting teachers in order to improve quality	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
12. Writing different supervisory reports for different audiences	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
13. Making sure that all teachers in the school receive supervisory feedback	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
14. Conducting conferences soon after observing teachers	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
15. Identifying areas in which teachers' teaching would be improved based on the data collected about them	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
16. Recognising and rewarding excellent teachers	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION 5: SKILLS OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

Listed below are statements that to describe the skills and attributes that may be needed by headteachers to perform instructional supervision. On the Importance scale, please rate - by circling the appropriate number on each skill and attribute - how important you feel that skill or attribute is to your headteacher's success in instructional supervisory role. On the Personal Needs scale, please rate the degree to which you feel a need for your headteacher to be prepared in order to become a more efficient instructional supervisor.

Skills of instructional supervisors	5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 No Importance					5 Great 4 High 3 Moderate 2 Some 1 None				
	Importance					Need for further preparation				
1. Instructional problem-solving	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
2. Ability to communicate effectively	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
3. Skills in building upon strengths of staff members	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
4. Skills in how to observe teachers in the classroom	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
5. Skills in how to design an instrument for evaluating instruction	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
6. Ability to develop interpersonal relations	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
7. Ability to explain the relationships that exist between teaching and learning	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
8. Ability to analyse teaching	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
9. Ability to monitor teaching performance and adjust supervisory guidance on the basis of that monitoring	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
10. Skills in holding one-to-one conferences	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
11. Ability to be sensitive to other people's concerns	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
12. Ability to analyse complex problems	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
13. Ability to do long-range planning	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
14. Ability to anticipate potential problems	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
15. Ability to bring people together to discuss issues	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION 6: TYPES OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

Listed below are five types of personnel who may assist headteachers in school based instructional supervision. Based on the actual situation in your school, please indicate the extent to which each type of personnel is actually (EXISTING) involved in instructional supervision and the extent to which each type of personnel should be (PREFERRED) involved in instructional supervision by circling responses according to the following key:

Types of personnel	5 Always involved 4 Frequently involved 3 Occasionally involved					2 Seldom involved 1 Never involved				
	Existing extent					Preferred extent				
Headteacher	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
Deputy headteacher	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
Department heads	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
Subject heads	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
Colleagues	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1
Teachers themselves (self-supervision)	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1

SECTION 7: GENERAL QUESTIONS

1. What are the two major advantages of present school-based instructional supervision practices?
 - 1.-----
 - 2.-----

2. What are the two major problems associated school-based instructional supervision practices?
 - 1.-----
 - 2.-----

3. What changes should be made in the present school-based instructional supervision practices to make them more effective? Explain why you want these changes on the back of this page.
 - 1.-----
 - 2.-----

4. How satisfied are you with the following aspects of school-based instructional supervision practices in your school? Please indicate your response by circling the appropriate number.

	5 Highly satisfied	2 Somewhat dissatisfied
	4 Somewhat satisfied	1 Highly dissatisfied
	3 Undecided	

(a) The overall quality of school based instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1
(b) The administrative support to school-based instructional supervision programme	5	4	3	2	1
(c) The general organisation of school-based instructional supervision programme	5	4	3	2	1
(d) The extent to which peers supervise each other's instructional work	5	4	3	2	1
(e) The extent to which the headteacher's supervisory strategies are understood by teachers	5	4	3	2	1
(f) The extent to which the headteacher is objective in collecting supervisory information on teachers	5	4	3	2	1
(g) The availability of support documents relevant to school based instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1
(h) The adequacy of support documents relevant to school based instructional supervision	5	4	3	2	1
(i) The existence of staff development programmes relevant to the role of the school based instructional supervisor	5	4	3	2	1
(j) The adequacy of staff development programmes relevant to the role of the school based instructional supervisor	5	4	3	2	1

6. If you wish to make any other comments regarding school-based instructional supervision practices or about this study, please do so on the back of this page.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX B

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

سلمه الله

أخي وزميلي الفاضل معلم المدرسة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته وبعد:

أفيدكم أنني طالب دكتوراه في جامعة يورك بالمملكة المتحدة، وأنا بصدد التحضير لرسالة دكتوراه التي من خلالها أهدف إلى التعرف على اتجاهات المعلمين في المدارس الحكومية في منطقة عسير حول فعالية الإشراف المدرسي المطبق في مدارسهم.

أخي المعلم إن مشاركتك في الإجابة على فقرات الاستبيان المرفق، والذي لن يأخذ من وقتك أكثر من 20 دقيقة، مهم جداً في إنجاح هذه الدراسة وفي حث ومساعدة التربويين في هذا البلد الكريم على تطوير الإدارة التربوية والإشراف.

أخي التربوي إن جميع المعلومات التي سوف تدونها في هذا الاستبيان سوف تستخدم للغرض البحثي فقط، كما أنه لن يطلع عليها احد غير الباحث، وزيادة في سرية المعلومات المدونة فإن تدوين اسمك غير مطلوب على أي مكان من الاستبيان.

أخي العزيز تقديراً من الباحث لمشاركتكم في هذه الدراسة فإنه على أتم الاستعداد لإمدادكم بنتائجها فان كان لديكم الرغبة في ذلك أو لأي استفسار آخر، يمكنكم التواصل على البريد الإلكتروني

ma572@york.ac.uk

المقصود بالإشراف التربوي المدرسي في هذه الدراسة: الإشراف المعمول بواسطة المشرف المدرسي المتواجد في المدرسة مثل مدير المدرسة أو غيره (المشرف المقيم).

مع شكري وتقديري لمهارتك وفنك الله لما يحب ويرضى والسلام عليكم.

أخوكم الباحث
مفرح بن سعيد آل كردم

استبانة المعلمين

هذه الاستبانة تتكون من عدة أقسام ، ولكل منها مجموعة من الاتجاهات. الرجاء التكرم بوضع دائرة حول الرقم الذي يتوافق مع وجهة نظرك أو كتابة المعلومات على النحو المطلوب. يرجى استخدام ورقة إضافية في حالة كانت المساحة الموجودة غير كافية.

القسم الأول: البيانات الأولية

1. عدد التلاميذ في مدرستك: ()
2. عدد المعلمين في مدرستك: ()
3. العمر:
(أ) تحت 30 سنة (ب) 30-40 سنة (ج) 41-50 سنة (د) أكثر من 50 سنة
4. الجنس: (أ) ذكر (ب) أنثى
5. المؤهلات المهنية / الأكاديمية: الرجاء وضع دائرة واحدة فقط.
(أ) دبلوم (ب) درجة البكالوريوس في التربية والتعليم (ج) ليسانس الآداب / العلوم
(د) دبلوم دراسات عليا في التربية والتعليم
(هـ) أخرى (يرجى التحديد): _____

6. منذ متى وأنت تخدم كمعلم؟
(أ) أقل من سنة (ب) 1 - 2 سنة (ج) 3 - 4 سنوات (د) 5 - 6 سنوات
(هـ) 7 - 8 سنوات (و) 9 - 10 سنوات (ز) أكثر من 10 سنوات

7. منذ متى وأنت بمثابة معلم في مدرستك الحالية؟
(أ) أقل من سنة (ب) 1 - 2 سنة (ج) 3 - 4 سنوات (د) 5 - 6 سنوات
(هـ) 7 - 8 سنوات (و) 9 - 10 سنوات (ز) أكثر من 10 سنوات

القسم الثاني: أنواع المشرفين المدرسيين

استناداً إلى الوضع الفعلي في مدرستك ، الرجاء استخدام عمود الاستمرارية للإشارة إلى كم غالباً كل واحد من الأفراد الموضحين أدناه يكون هو مشرفك المدرسي، ويرجى استخدام عمود المشرف المفضل لتحديد من تقضل من الأفراد الستة أن يكون مشرفك المدرسي. ضع دائرة حول الرقم المناسب

أنواع المشرفين المدرسيين		5 دائما	4 غالبا	3 أحيانا	2 نادرا	1 أبدا
5 مفضل بقوة						
4 مفضل						
3 محايد						
2 غير مفضل						
1 غير مفضل بقوة						
المشرف المفضل	الاستمرارية					
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	مدير المدرسة				
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	وكيل المدرسة				
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	رؤساء الأقسام				
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	رؤساء المواضيع أو التخصصات				
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	معلمو الصف				
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	المدرسين أنفسهم (الإشراف الذاتي)				

القسم الثالث: أغراض الإشراف التربوي المدرسي

الدرجة أدناه هي بعض العبارات التي يمكن استخدامها لوصف أغراض الإشراف التربوي المدرسي. وبجانب كل عبارة عمودان، الأول يمثل مقياس الموافقة وعليه يرجى تحديد إلى أي درجة تتفق مع كل عبارة (عن طريق وضع دائرة حول العدد المناسب عن كل غرض). والعمود الثاني يمثل مقياس الأهمية وعليه يرجى تحديد معدل الأهمية التي ينبغي أن تعطى لكل غرض من أغراض الإشراف التربوي.

الإشراف التربوي في هذه المدرسة يخدم الأغراض التالية:		5 موافق بشدة	4 موافق	3 غير متأكد	2 غير موافق	1 غير موافق بشدة
5 مهمة جدا						
4 مهمة						
3 متوسطة الأهمية						
2 مهمة بعض الشيء						
1 ليست مهمة						
الأهمية	الموافقة					
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1	يمنح المعلمين فرصة لتحليل وإصدار الأحكام حول أساليب تدريسهم			
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	2	يساعد المعلمين في تطوير أساليبهم التدريسية			
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	3	يساعد المعلمين على تحديد المصادر والموارد المناسبة للتعليم والتعلم			
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	4	ينير المعلمين حول فرص التطوير المهني			
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	5	يساعد المعلمين على تحسين كفاءتهم التدريسية			
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	6	يمنح المعلمين فرصة للعمل مع الآخرين لتحديد الأهداف التعليمية			
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	7	يمنح المعلمين فرصة لمناقشة الأفكار الحديثة المتصلة بالتعليم مع الآخرين			
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	8	يساعد المعلمين على معرفة سلوك وميول التلاميذ			

القسم الرابع : تركيزات الإشراف المدرسي

أمامك بعض العبارات التي يمكن استخدامها لوصف التركيزات الإشرافية داخل المدرسة. استناداً إلى الوضع الفعلي في مدرستك ، يرجى على مقياس الاستمرارية (أ) الإشارة إلى أي مدى مشرفك المدرسي يعتمد هذه التركيزات ، (ب) و على مقياس الأهمية بين درجة الأهمية التي تعتقد أنه ينبغي أن تعطى لكل تركيز . ضع دائرة حول الرقم المناسب وفقاً للتالي:

5 دائماً	4 غالباً	3 أحياناً	2 نادراً	1 أبداً	5 مهمة جداً	4 مهمة	3 متوسطة الأهمية	2 مهمة بعض الشيء	1 ليست مهمة	تركيزات الإشراف المدرسي					
الاستمرارية					الأهمية										
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1. تنظيم المعلم العام للدروس
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	2. تنظيم المعلم للموضوع
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	3. معرفة وإلمام المعلم بالموضوع
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	4. اهتمام المعلم بالتطوير الأكاديمي للتلاميذ
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	5. معرفة المعلم بالمناهج العامة
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	6. إعداد خطة مناسبة للدرس
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	7. مراعاة المعلم للفوارق الفردية بين التلاميذ
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	8. استخدام المعلم الوسائل التعليمية
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	9. تحقيق أهداف الدرس العامة والخاصة
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	10. شخصية المعلم
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	11. اهتمام المعلم بتنمية الشخصية لدى التلاميذ
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	12. إعداد سجلات منظمة لقياس تقدم مستوى التلاميذ دراسياً
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	14. الزي والمظهر الخارجي للمعلم
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	15. اهتمام المعلم بتنمية الشعور بالمسؤولية لدى التلاميذ
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	16. قدرة المعلم على جعل الدرس مشوقاً
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	17. طريقة طرح المعلم الأسئلة في الصف
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	18. إدارة المعلم للصف
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	19. مشاركة المعلم في الأنشطة اللامنهجية
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	20. اهتمام المعلم بأداء التلاميذ في الامتحانات العامة
1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5	21. العلاقات بين المعلم والتلميذ

القسم الخامس: ممارسات الإشراف المدرسي

أمامك بعض العبارات التي يمكن استخدامها لوصف الممارسات الإشرافية داخل المدرسة. استناداً إلى الوضع الفعلي في مدرستك، يرجى الإشارة إلى أي مدى المشرف المدرسي يعتمد هذه الممارسات باستخدام مقياس الاستمرارية وباستخدام مقياس الأهمية بين درجة الأهمية التي تعتقد أنه ينبغي أن تعطى لكل ممارسة. ضع دائرة حول الرقم المناسب وفقاً للتالي:

5 مهمة جدا 4 مهمة 3 متوسطة الأهمية 2 مهمة بعض الشيء 1 ليست مهمة	5 دائما 4 غالبا 3 أحيانا 2 نادرا 1 أبدا	ممارسات الإشراف المدرسي
الأهمية	الاستمرارية	
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1. إقامة دورات محددة مع المعلمين لمناقشة كيف ينبغي أن يجري التدريس
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	2. إشعار المعلمين مسبقاً بأن عملهم سيُقيم
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	3. توفير كمية كافية من المعلومات للمعلمين للتعرف على العملية الإشرافية
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	4. بذل أقصى جهد ممكن للحد من مستوى القلق بشأن برنامج الإشراف
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	5. التأكد من أن المعلمين على فهم لأساليب جمع المعلومات عنهم
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	6. الاجتماع مع المعلمين قبل الملاحظة الصفية
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	7. استخدام نتائج الاختبارات كمؤشر على أداء المعلمين
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	8. الحصول على معلومات من الطلاب حول أداء معلمهم وجها لوجه
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	9. عقد مقابلات مع المعلمين وجها لوجه للحصول على معلومات حول ممارساتهم الصفية
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	10. تشجيع المدرسين لتقييم طريقتهم التدريسية الخاصة (التقييم الذاتي)
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	11. اتخاذ إجراءات تصحيحية بشأن المسائل التي قد تؤثر على المعلمين من أجل تحسين الجودة
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	12. كتابة تقارير إشرافية مختلفة لأشخاص مختلفة
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	13. التأكد من أن جميع المعلمين في المدرسة تلقوا الملاحظات الإشرافية
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	14. عقد اجتماعات قريبة بعد ملاحظة المعلمين
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	15. تحديد المجالات الموجودة في أساليب المعلمين التي سوف تتحسن بناءً على البيانات التي تم جمعها عنهم
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	16. مكافأة المعلمين المتميزين

القسم السادس: مهارات المشرفين المدرسيين

المدرجة أدناه عبارات تصف المهارات التي قد تكون مطلوبة من قبل المشرفين المدرسيين لأداء مهمة الإشراف التربوي. على مقياس الجودة ، بين من فضلك المدى الذي يظهره مشرفك المدرسي لهذه المهارات وذلك بوضع دائرة حول العدد المناسب لكل مهارة. على مقياس الأهمية ، يرجى قياس إلى أي درجة تظن أنه من المهم بالنسبة لمشرفك المدرسي أن يظهر هذه المهارات.

مهارات المشرفين المدرسيين		5 عالية جدا 4 عالية 3 متوسطة 2 منخفضة 1 منخفضة جدا	5 مهمة جدا 4 مهمة 3 متوسطة الأهمية 2 مهمة بعض الشيء 1 ليست مهمة
		الجودة	الأهمية
1	القدرة على حل المشكلات التعليمية	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2	القدرة على التواصل بفعالية	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3	مهارات في البناء على نقاط القوة للموظفين	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4	مهارات في كيفية ملاحظة المعلمين في الفصل	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5	مهارات في كيفية تصميم أداة لتقييم التدريس	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6	القدرة على تطوير العلاقات الشخصية	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7	القدرة على توضيح العلاقات القائمة بين التعليم والتعلم	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8	القدرة على تحليل التدريس	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9	القدرة على رصد الأداء التدريسي وتعديل الإرشادات الإشرافية بناءً على ذلك الرصد	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10	مهارات في عقد نقاشات وجها لوجه	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11	القدرة على أن يكون حاسماً باهتمامات الآخرين	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12	القدرة على تحليل المشاكل المعقدة	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
13	القدرة على القيام بتخطيط طويل المدى	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
14	القدرة على توقع المشاكل المحتملة	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
15	القدرة على جمع الناس معاً لمناقشة القضايا	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

القسم السابع: التطوير الوظيفي فيما يتعلق بالمعلمين

المدرجة أدناه هي جوانب لأدوار المشرف المدرسي في تعزيز التطوير الوظيفي في المدارس. على مقياس الموافقة ، واستناداً إلى الوضع الفعلي في مدرستك، يرجى تحديد إلى أي درجة تتفق مع كل جانب (عن طريق وضع دائرة حول العدد المناسب). وعلى مقياس الأهمية يرجى تحديد معدل الأهمية التي ينبغي أن تعطى لكل دور في العملية الإشرافية.

5 مهمة جدا	5 موافق بشدة	أدوار المشرفين المدرسيين في تطوير الموظفين في هذه المدرسة يشمل التالي:
4 مهمة	4 موافق	
3 متوسطة الأهمية	3 غير متأكد	
2 مهمة بعض الشيء	2 غير موافق	
1 ليست مهمة	1 غير موافق بشدة	
الأهمية	الموافقة	
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	1 تشجيع الزيارات المتبادلة بين المعلمين
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	2 توفير الفرص لحضور المؤتمرات وورش العمل المهنية
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	3 التخطيط لتطوير الموظفين ، مع الأخذ في الاعتبار احتياجات واهتمامات المعلمين الفردية
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	4 التعرف بمشاركة المعلمين في تنمية القدرات الوظيفية في النشرة المدرسية
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	5 تشجيع المعلمين على وضع مخطط لمواصلة التطوير الوظيفي
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	6 التخطيط لأنشطة مستمرة للتطوير الوظيفي
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	7 تزويد المعلمين بمعلومات عن برامج التطوير الوظيفي للمشاركة فيها
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	8 إعطاء المعلمين الفرصة لتولي القيادة
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	9 تشجيع المعلمين على المشاركة في التقييم الذاتي
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	10 تقديم دورات معينة للمعلمين من أجل إظهار استراتيجيات تعليمية محددة
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	11 توفير التوجيه المستمر للمعلمين الجدد حول كيفية أداء واجباتهم
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	12 تقييم احتياجات المعلمين أثناء الخدمة
1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5	13 مساعدة المعلمين في وضع أهداف واقعية وملائمة للنمو المهني

APPENDIX C

Interview Protocol for Teachers and Headteachers

1. What do you see as the major purposes and advantages of school based instructional supervision conducted by headteachers in public secondary schools in Saudi Arabia?
2. What are the focuses of school based instructional supervision as conducted in your school?
3. (a) Who are actually involved in conducting school based instructional supervision in your school?
 - (b) Do you consider that headteachers are sufficiently prepared to perform this role?
 - (c) How could their performance be improved?
4. What policy documents and guidelines are used to facilitate school based instructional supervision in your school?
5. What changes, if any, do you consider would be desired in current official policies regarding school based instructional supervision?
6. How is the information obtained by headteachers in school based instructional supervision used?
7. What does instructional supervision mean to you?
8. Any other comments?

Draft Interview Protocol for District Education Officers

1. What do you see as the major purposes of school based instructional supervision conducted by headteachers in public secondary schools in Saudi Arabia?
2. (a) Do you consider that headteachers are sufficiently prepared to perform this role?

(b) How could their performance be improved?
3. What changes, if any, do you consider would be desired in current official policies regarding school based instructional supervision?
4. How is the information obtained by headteachers in school based instructional supervision used by your office?
5. What does instructional supervision mean to you?

Any other comments?

APPENDIX D

HEADTEACHERS' LETTER

March 10, 2010

Dear,

Thank you for taking the time to speak with me regarding my dissertation research. A sample survey is attached for your review. In addition, I have enclosed an envelope for each of your classroom teachers. Each envelope contains a cover letter, a survey, and an envelope for returning the survey to me. I would greatly appreciate it if you would distribute the envelopes to your classroom teachers.

Once the data has been gathered and analyzed, I will send you a summary of my findings. If you have any questions or concerns, please do not hesitate to call me at 07-249 -1811, or email me at ma572@york.ac.uk.

Thank you again for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Mofareh Alkrdem
Doctoral Candidate
The University of York

LETTER OF PARTICIPATION

March 10, 2010

Dear Fellow Educator,

Your assistance is requested for a doctoral research project at The University of York. The purpose of this study is to assess teachers' perceptions of the supervision process implemented in their school. Your participation will help identify models of supervision that are most effective at promoting instructional improvement. This information can then be used by headteachers to identify the best method for supervising teachers.

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. The enclosed survey will take about 20 minutes to complete. All responses will be kept confidential as no identifying information will be included in the final report. Anonymity will be maintained throughout the process.

If you are interested in participating in this study, please complete the attached survey and return it in the self-addressed, stamped envelope that has been provided.

If you would like to receive a summary of the findings of this research please email me at ma572@york.ac.uk at any time. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study I can be reached via email or at 07-249 -1811.

Thank you in advance for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Mofareh Alkrdem
Researcher

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