RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISOR'S ATTRIBUTES AND STUDENTS' ACADEMIC PERFORMANCE IN KENYA CERTIFICATE OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN MACHAKOS COUNTY, KENYA.

By

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DECLARATION AND APPROVAL

DECLARATION BY THE CANDIDATE

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree, diploma or any other academic awards in Maasai Mara University or any other University.

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late father Joseph Malii Mulungye who laid a firm foundation of education in my life. To my children Patience, Lynn and Musyoki who in many occasions missed motherly love, support and presence during my studies.

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ABSTRACT

The education system in Kenya is examination oriented and its quality is seen in terms of the number of students passing national examinations. The issue of poor academic performance in examinations signifies a critical impediment in any country since education is a major contribution to economic growth. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between instructional supervisor's attributes and students' academic performance in Kenya Certificate of Secondary School Education in public secondary schools in Machakos County. The research adopted a correlational study research design of the *expost facto* method. The target population was 270 schools and the sample for the study was 41 schools equivalent to 41 headteachers. Data was analysed using quantitative and qualitative techniques. The statistical significance of the difference between the sample means was tested using two sample t-test of equal variance while the relationship between the dependent and the independent variables (student academic performance and instructional supervisor's attributes) was tested using Pearson Product Moment correlation. A coefficient value of 0.7289 was obtained and this was good enough to judge reliability of instrument (Grinnel, 1993). Findings on the relationship between instructional supervisor's attributes and students' academic performance revealed that majority of headteachers indicated that teaching and learning resources were inadequate which affected instructional supervision in schools. Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that there was a significant relationship between instructional supervisor's attributes and students' academic performance at KCSE. There should be regular inspection of lesson notes, schemes of work and lesson plans. Headteachers should ensure that students have the necessary materials for learning they should check records of work and schemes of work. Taking the limitations and delimitations of the study it was suggested that a similar study should be carried out in other counties. A study should be carried out on headteachers' personal characteristics and their influence on instructional supervision.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

B.Ed	Bachelor of Education
DC	District Commissioner
DEO	District Education Officer
EFA	Education for all
ET AL	and others
FPE	Free Primary Education
FST	Free Secondary Tuition
HOD	Head of Department
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KESI	Kenya Educational Staff Institute
KESSP	Kenya Education Sector Support Programme
KIE	Kenya Institute of Education
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
PTA	Parents-Teachers Association
Prof.	Professor
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
QASO	Quality Assurance Standards Officer
SPSS	Statistical Package for social sciences
TSC	Teacher Service Commission
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organizations

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Academic achievement in Kenya is measured by academic performance in national examination. There is much emphasis on people excelling in national examination (Eshiwani, 1993). In Kenya schools are ranked based on academic performance but then people fail to look into instructional supervisory practices of the supervisor, facilities that the school have, curriculum coverage, type of teachers and their qualifications and this runs from primary schools, secondary schools and even in universities whereby people will always clap their hands when first class honours students are called, the claps will reduce down to pass. Good performance is attributed to the headteachers, subject teachers, head of departments and also the deputies who are incharge of discipline in schools. Educators and the general public tend to believe that there are several factors that influence student performance in examination. For instance, instructional supervision of schools is said to have influence on students' academic outcomes (Wekesa, 1993). Other examples include instructional resources, leadership styles, students' motivation and attitude of teachers (Ngala, 1997). Instructional supervision is directed toward maintaining and improving teaching-learning process of the school. A well planned programme of education can be said to be successful only if efficient supervision exists at all levels without this, the process of planning can be seriously handicapped (Halliday, 2005).

Instructional supervision therefore is a basic component of administration which stimulates teacher's greater effectiveness and productivity in terms of good performance. This can be achieved by ensuring that good teaching and learning takes

place in school. The headteacher should facilitate the education programme in schools. These instructional programmes are ways of promoting teachers growth, effectiveness and improvement in KCSE performance. Major responsibility of administration is the supervision of subordinates' performance. Olembo (1992) identified major functions of supervisors such as working closely with teachers to establish problem and needs of students, building strong group morale and securing effective team work. It is necessary to establish a mechanism through which the set objectives would be achieved. Proper supervision of instruction facilitates the achievement of goals and objectives of education.

The director of Starehe Boys' Centre, Griffin (1994) attributed good academic performance to "a good atmosphere" created by the head of the institution through good instructional leadership, followed by skill and devotion of teachers. Akhibi (2008) carried out research on strategies used by headteacher to enhance instructional effectiveness. The findings revealed that supervision by headteachers is a very critical element of professional growth and development of teachers and students achievement and yet no systematic programmes were in place to offer training to headteachers on management. Supervision has become an integral component and process in the operation of schools. It is widely recognized and agreed that one of the key factors influencing school effectiveness is the nature and quality of leadership and management provided by the school heads Sergiovanni and Starrat (1998). Despite this importance, many school teachers are appointed head teachers without any induction whatsoever and many continue administering without any systematic initiation into their new positions. One of the problems cited for poor performance of education systems in Kenya is weak managerial capabilities in those systems (Eshiwani, 1993).

According to the report of the presidential working party on education and manpower training for the next decade and beyond, (1988) it advocated for provision of government guidelines on supervision to ensure quality and relevant in the growth and provision of education in the country. It recommended for the strengthening of school supervision and inspection by recruiting school inspectors. Today the government of Kenya regards inspection and supervision of schools as the only means of improving instruction. The sessional paper No. 1 of 2005 on a policy framework for education, training and research stresses that *"in order to meet the demands for the 21st Century, our education and training programmes must be of highest quality to compete favourably with the international standards"* (MOE, 2005). Reforming instructional supervisory practices is in line with Education for All (EFA) whose focus is on improving in all aspects of the quality of education. Good quality education assures effective learning outcomes (UNESCO, 2007).

The quality of education as measured by students' achievement in national examinations is considered as below average standards (Ongiri and Abdi, 2004). This fact concurs with what the Government of Kenya noted in its Master Plan of Education and Training 1997-2010. The plan decries that majority of schools fall short of providing for the learning needs of their students leading to poor academic performance (Republic of Kenya 1998). Ongiri and Abdi (2004) reported that majority of the country's 4,000 public secondary schools post bad examination results year in year out and that there are only about 600 public secondary schools that excel and if a student is not in any of these schools he or she is not expected to get a credible grade. This study was carried out to investigate if instructional supervisor's attributes has any effect on students' performance at KCSE.

Performance in national examinations in secondary schools in Machakos County has been consistently lower than the neighbouring Makueni County and it is assumed that all the counties in the country have adequate and well trained teachers, fairly well qualified pupils from primary schools as well as trained and qualified headteachers. Surveys on examination performance have shown that a majority of schools which display good performance each year have adequate facilities and good human resources. Certainly the same cannot be said of Machakos County. This is because the county has consistently posted poor results. (Machakos DEO's office KCSE Results, 2008 – 2011). The expected maximum mean score is 12 which is equivalent to grade A while the minimum score is 1 the equivalent of E and this led to justification of the study which was to investigate if there is any significant relationship between instructional supervisor's attributes and students' academic performance in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education in public secondary schools in Machakos County.

Table 1.1 Machakos County KCSE Performance 2008-2011 compared to Makueni County

Machakos			**Makueni**		
Year	**Mean score**	**Grade**	**Year**	**Mean score**	**Grade**
2008	4.46	D+	2008	5.61	C
2009	4.32	D+	2009	5.36	C-
2010	4.32	D+	2010	5.25	C-
2011	4.63	D+	2011	5.38	C-

Source: District Education Offices Machakos and Makueni Counties (2011)

1.2 Statement of the Problem

With the rapid expansion and change of the education policies and the introduction of Free Secondary Tuition (FST), quality control of education has been an issue of concern and the issue of poor academic performance in examination signifies a critical impediment in any country since education is a major contributions to economic growth (Eshiwani, 1993). According to the report of the presidential working party on education and manpower training for the next decade and beyond (1988), headteachers play a significant role in determining academic performance in schools due to their varied tasks and roles. Their tactful fulfillment of their instructional supervisory roles together with their constant supervision of the level of teachers input and students academic performance. Studies related to the problem of instructional supervision have been conducted elsewhere such as those of Mtune (2005) in Nakuru District, Anyango (2005) in Migori District and Kimosop (2002) in Baringo District. Some of them used different methodologies and their findings concentrated on attitudes towards supervision and not the relationship between instructional supervisor's attributes and students' achievement at KCSE. Therefore, this study sought to establish if there is any relationship between instructional supervisor's attributes and students' performance at KCSE in Machakos County since the county had continued to post poor KCSE results.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between instructional supervisor's attributes and students' academic performance in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) in public schools in Machakos County.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The researcher was guided by the following objectives;-

i) To investigate the relationship between instructional supervisory skills used by the headteacher and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

ii) To establish the relationship between age and gender of the instructional supervisor and the students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

iii) To explore the relationship between the professional qualification of the instructional supervisor and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

iv) To explore the relationship between the experience of headteachers and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

v) To establish the relationship between the supervisory practices used by the headteachers and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

1.5 Hypotheses of the Study

The following hypotheses were tested in this study.

HO_1 There is no significant relationship between the instructional supervisory skills used by headteachers and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

HO_2 There is no significant relationship between the age and gender of the instructional supervisor and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

HO_3 There is no significant relationship between professional qualification of the instructional supervisor and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

HO_4 There is no significant relationship between experience of the instructional supervisor and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

HO_5 There is no significant relationship between the supervisory activities used by headteachers and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study is significant because the recommendations and findings from the study are likely to be used by the Ministry of Education to plan areas of induction and training required to prepare headteachers and teachers to undertake instructional roles more effectively. The findings of this study are also likely to provide greater insight for the administrators and managers of school into the factors that contribute to high academic performance. On the practical value, the findings may also serve as reference points for teachers of schools in Machakos County on skills that would lead to improvement of students' performance in national examinations.

The findings are likely to enlighten school headteachers in order to address the problems on how to improve students' achievements in National examinations. They may also benefit Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI) with regard to salient training needs for headteachers and teachers that need to be addressed in Machakos County. The study is likely to be an eye-opener of those neglected areas of

instructional supervision which is very useful for good performance. Generally, the findings may assist in enhancing the improvement of performance and the quality of education not only in public secondary schools in Machakos county only but also in the whole country.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The following were the limitations of the study:-

(i) The performance in KCSE in Machakos County can be affected by other factors beyond researcher's control for example learners' self concept and learners' mental ability.

(ii) Other relevant variables that were not covered could form the basis for further research.

(iii) Performance was only limited to KCSE examination results. Formative evaluation was not put into consideration.

1.8 Delimitations of the Study

The study was restricted to the relationship between instructional supervisor's attributes and KCSE performance in public secondary schools in Machakos County. The choice of public secondary schools in this study was based on the ground that the bulk of students in Machakos County join public secondary schools rather than private schools. Similarly in public secondary schools head teachers formulate policies in consultation with the MoEST and PTA whereas in private secondary school, head teachers implement the policies set up by the management of the school. Although there are many supervisory variables that influence students' performance. The researcher focused on supervisory skills, headteachers personal characteristics

(age, gender) professional characteristics (qualification and experience) and supervisory activities.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

The study was based on the following assumptions;-

(i) All public secondary schools in Machakos County offer similar curriculum as required by the Ministry of Education.

(ii) Headteachers supervise and provide for academic and professional guidance to the teachers, human and material resources are provided for and effectively used for teaching.

1.10 Definition of Significant Terms

Administration - is process of developing and maintaining organizational procedures.

Curriculum implementation – refers to the process of translating curriculum plan into reality through instructions inorder to achieve the prescribed educational objectives.

Instructional supervision – those activities which are undertaken by the head teacher to help maintain and improve teachers' effectiveness in the classroom.

Instructional supervisor – any staff personnel who is assigned responsibility of overseeing curriculum implementation and improving instruction in schools.

Learning condition – it is the aggregate of all external factors influencing life and nurturing of students (also known as learning environment).

Performance – mean grade obtained in KCSE examination by form four secondary students from 2008 to 2011.

Public secondary school – a secondary school that is publicly funded and receives teachers from the Ministry of Education.

Quality – refers to degree of goodness, worthy or value.

Teacher – staff personnel who is assigned responsibility of overseeing curriculum implementation and improving instruction in a classroom.

Teacher characteristics – this is used to mean the general behaviour that the teacher brings to the classroom such as temperament, attire, confidence and attitude towards any event in the class.

1.11 Organization of the Study

The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter one contained introduction, background of the problem, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, limitations of the study, delimitations of the study, basic assumptions and definition of significant terms. Chapter two focused on literature review which included theoretical and conceptual frameworks and summary of the literature review. Chapter three contained research methodology that was used in the study. It also consisted of research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, research instruments, instrument validity, instrument reliability, data collection procedures and data analysis procedures. Chapter four comprised of the data collected from the field and a detailed discussion of the research findings. Finally chapter five comprised the summary of the research findings, conclusions, recommendations and suggestion for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focused on overview of supervision, historical overview, purpose of supervision, types of supervision which included directive approach and collaborative approach, clinical supervision, instructional supervision, supervisory activities, basic skills which included conceptual skills, human relation and technical skills. Internal and external supervision, teachers attitude towards supervision and challenges faced by headteachers in instructional supervision. It also focused on the theoretical framework of the study and the conceptual framework.

2.2 Overview of Supervision

The main objective of supervision is to improve teachers' instructional practices, which may in turn improve student learning. Researchers have offered several purposes of supervision of instruction, but the ultimate goal is to improve instruction and student learning. Beach and Reinhartz (1989) think the focus on instructional supervision is to provide teachers with information about their teaching so as to develop instructional skills to improve performance. Also in Bolin and Panaritis view as cited in (Bays, 2001), supervision is primarily concerned with improving classroom practices for the benefit of students regardless of what may be entailed (e.g., curriculum development or staff development) (Bays, 2001). Further, McQuarrie and Wood (1991) also stated that *"the primary purpose of supervision is to help and support teachers as they adapt and adopt, and refine the instructional practices they are trying to implement in their classrooms"* (p. 49).

Others believe the purpose of supervision is helping teachers to be aware of their teaching and its consequences for their learners (Glickman, Gordon, & Gordon, 1997; Nolan, 1997). Some researchers have also theorised that supervision is an act of encouraging human relations (Wiles & Bondi, 1996) and teacher motivation (Glickman, Gordon, & Gordon, 1998) and enabling teachers to try out new instructional techniques in a safe, supportive environment (Nolan, 1997). Supervision is believed to provide a mechanism for teachers and supervisors to increase their understanding of the teaching-learning process through collective inquiry with other professionals (Nolan & Francis, 1992). The purposes of supervision provided by these researchers can be grouped under the following themes: improving instruction; fostering curriculum and staff development; encouraging human relations and motivation; and encouraging action research and supporting collaboration.

Supervision was initially described as inspection, which has the connotation of direct control of teachers by school inspectors. The term supervision has gradually taken over inspection, but both terms are sometimes used together. But Musaazi (1982) posits that school supervision which began as inspection has been replaced by that of supervision. The concept and practice of supervision of instruction has evolved over the years (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004; Hoy & Forsyth, 1986; Musaazi, 1982; Neagley & Evans, 1980; Oliva & Pawlas, 1997). Early supervisors in the 19th century set strict requirements for their teachers and visited classrooms to observe how closely the teachers complied with stipulated instructions; departure from these instructions was cause for dismissal (Oliva & Pawlas, 1997). Oliva and Pawlas bemoan that some school supervisors or inspectors, as they are called in other countries, continue to fulfill their tasks with an authoritarian approach. They note, however, that superintendents (supervisors) have changed their focus from looking for

deficiencies that would merit dismissal of teachers to helping teachers overcome their difficulties.

Neagley and Evans (1980) defined instructional supervision as that phase of school administration which deals primarily with the achievement of the appropriate selected instructional expectations of educational process. They also define supervision as any leadership function that is primarily concerned with the improvement of instruction. Neagley and Evans (1980) argued that modern supervision is democratic in nature.

Modern supervision is considered as any service for teachers that eventually result in improving instruction, learning, and the curriculum. It consists of positive, dynamic, democratic actions designed to improve instruction through the continued growth of all concerned individuals- the child, the teacher, the supervisor, the administrator, and the parent or other lay person (p. 20).

Supervision is viewed by other researchers as a combination of administrative procedures and supervision of instruction. The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), a division of UNESCO, observe that supervision practices can be classified under two distinct, but complementary, tasks: to control and evaluate, on one hand, and to advise and support teachers and headteachers (IIEP/UNESCO, 2007, Module 2). The statement explains that “although the ultimate objective of in-school supervision is to improve the teaching/learning processes in the classroom, in practice it must cover the whole range of activities taking place in the school: from the most administrative ones (e.g. ensuring that 22 records are properly completed) to purely pedagogical ones” (IIEP/UNESCO Module 6, 2007). Oghuvbu (2001) claims supervision of instruction involves the process of checking the positive implementation of curriculum and assisting those implementing it. He conceives

inspection and supervision differently, but complementary actions aimed at achieving organisational goals. To him, inspection deals with fact finding, and supervision is the assistance aspect concerned with the establishment of a positive superior and subordinate relationship, with special emphasis on specialization directed towards utilization of available human and material resources in achieving organizational goals.

In their review, Wanzare and da Costa (2000) claim several definitions of supervision of instruction in literature are unique in their focus and purpose, and fall into two broad categories: custodial and humanistic supervision. Citing Drake and Roe, Wanzare and da Costa (2000) note that the "custodial" definition of supervision can mean general overseeing and controlling, managing, administering, evaluating, or any activity in which the headteacher is involved in the process of running the school, whereas according to Pfeiffer and Dunlap (also cited in Wanzare and da Costa, 2000) the "humanistic" definition suggests that supervision of instruction is multifaceted, interpersonal process that deals with teaching behaviour, curriculum, learning environments, grouping of students, teacher utilization and professional development.

Contemporary definitions of supervision are more elaborate, and focus on the school as a learning community. Specifically, contemporary definitions of supervision of instruction emphasize individual and group development, professional development, curriculum development, and action research. Burke & Krey (2005) define supervision as instructional leadership that relates perspectives to behaviour, focus on processes, contributes to and supports organisational actions, coordinates interactions, provides for improvements and maintenance of instructional programme, and assesses goal achievements. Glickman, Gordon 23 and Ross-Gordon (1998) also define

supervision as the school function that improves instruction through direct assistance to teachers, group development, professional development, curriculum development and action research. Glickman, Gordon, and Ross- Gordon (1997) posit that the long-term goal of developmental supervision is teacher development towards a point at which teachers, facilitated by supervisors, can assume full responsibility for instructional development. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) note that supervisors and teachers working together can make the learning environment more user friendly, caring and respect for students, and supportive of a community of leaders. They argue that this remains a primary intellectual and moral challenge of supervisory leadership.

Some researchers have also defined supervision of instruction as a process which utilises a wide array of strategies, methodologies, and approaches aimed at improving instruction and promoting educational leadership as well as change (Glanz & Behar-Horenstein, 2000). These researchers note that the process of supervision and evaluation of instruction at the school level depends primarily on whether the headteacher functions as an instructional leader. Neagley and Evans (1980) propose some of the headteachers functions as an instructional leader. They believe that "a successful instructional leader helps teachers to discover problems related to instruction and learning, assist them in finding procedures to solve these problems, and provides time and resources for creative solutions" (p. 51).

2.2.1 Historical Overview of Supervision

Supervision is as old as mankind, but the systematic study is more recent. In any group of individuals, performing a certain task towards a set of objective, supervision has to be in place to ensure that the desired objective is achieved. To comprehend the modern supervisory techniques, it is important to trace. Supervisory trends in the

earlier periods of America and British education system and review the development of supervision in Kenya's Education System. In 1654, a statute was adopted in America that empowered selected men to be responsible of appointing teachers of sound moral and faith as supervisors. During the period, supervision was handled by laymen, with special emphasis placed on inspection of schools and classrooms instruction. There were set rules and regulations for the sake of control and standards. Supervision concentrated on appraising the achievement of learners in subject matter and evaluation methods used by teachers. It also involved observing the general management of schools and pupils conduct. These early supervisory concepts were characterized by inspection. When an educator became the supervisor or the director of instruction, he/she was called the inspector. The functions of such a person were more of judicial than executive. The supervisor made judgement about the teacher rather than the teaching or learning process.

In the mid-nineteenth century, the concept of supervision continued to emphasize the inspection of schools and classrooms, with some attention being placed on assisting teachers to improve. At the same time professional educators replaced the laymen in taking on supervision. In the early twentieth century, inspection involved supervision of classroom instruction through direct classroom instruction and; demonstration, with the focus being placed on the teacher. The supervisors or inspectors were supposed to be skilled interviewer and sympathetic listeners. They were supposed to create a purposeful; but non-stressful atmosphere. In conducting the discussion, the supervisor was to ask open-ended questions rather than closed questions. Prior to the discussion, the supervisor was supposed to be able to assimilate and analyse the information received from the various sources. Accurate conclusions could thus be drawn about

the teacher's strengths and weaknesses. These could then provide a firm base from which issues could be explored, guidance given and solutions reached at.

In Britain on the other hand, Her Majesty the Inspectorate (HMl) was established in 1839 when the demands for an educational system under state supervision was increasing. A Privy Council, which composed of Ministers of the Crown, was appointed to prepare a plan for education and introduce improvement in the education system.

The HMI's were to obtain details of the plans and specifications of the buildings, the arrangement of desks and the playgrounds. They were to inquire into the provision of books, the proposed methods of instruction and discipline. They examined each class and gave a report on the timetable. All this was in order to provide some assurance to the taxpayer that their money was being properly spent.

In Kenya, although the first school was established in 1846 by the missionaries at Rabai in Kilifi District, it took the colonial government up to 1909 to establish an education department to oversee the running of education in the country following the recommendations by the commission chaired by Professor Nelson Fraser appointed the same year. The department became responsible for supervision of all matters related to education. The commission also recommended separate systems of education for Europeans, Asians and Africans. Europeans and Asians were primarily given academic type of education while the Africans were given technical education. After the First World War, the missionaries and Colonial government continued establishing schools on racial basis. Africans felt that the kind of education given to them was inadequate in terms of level attained and that the mission schools were

eroding the African cultural values. This led to some Africans establishing independent schools to cater for their needs.

In 1923, the Ormsby-Gore Commission recommended the supervision of education programme. The first education ordinance of 1924 established after the Phelps-Stokes commission also empowered the government to develop, control and supervise education at all levels in Kenya. This ordinance provided for the inspection of schools and control of their registration. In 1925, the white paper produced by the Advisory Committee on the indigenous Education indicated that a thorough system of supervision was indispensable for the functioning and efficiency of the educational system. The paper also advised that each mission should be encouraged to make arrangements for the effective supervision of its own system of schools. But that, such supervision should not supersede government inspection. By 1927, the education department was fully established and administered and supervised Kenya's education system.

Another Education ordinance of 1931 indicated that every secondary school aided by the government was required to be open for inspection by education officers at any time.

In 1934, the District Education Boards ordinance was passed and it empowered the Board to be involved in the supervision of the working and management of primary schools. In the same year, the grants-in-aid rules provided for supervision by giving a block grant of 50 Pounds for each supervisor. Part of this grant was to be spent on equipment. By 1945, the rules provided for the full salary payment for the European Supervisor from central funds while the African supervisors were paid from local funds. In the same year, the government passed the colonial development and welfare act, which was a ten-year development plan. It recommended 50% of the local

children to enroll in schools. This made a rapid increase in enrolment in the primary schools. This raised concern of standards due to lack of supervision. In 1949 therefore, the government appointed a committee under Archdeacon L. J. Beacher and it recommended strict supervision and inspection of primary schools. A distinction between supervision and inspection was emphasized in the report when he indicated that:

> *We believe that inspection and supervision are entirely .separate functions and that inspection belongs to the department, and supervision to the body to which school management has been delegated (The African Education in Kenya 1949:60)*

The committee also recommended the creation of Board of governors in the secondary schools to manage and supervise the affairs in the school. To this end therefore, it is clear from the foregoing discussion that supervision was the responsibility of the school managers or voluntary agencies and inspection was the sole responsibility of the government. The supervisors were appointed by the voluntary agencies and even in cases where they were appointed by the director of education, they were to be regarded as representatives of the school managers and not of the director.

In 1952, the Binns committee re-emphasized strict supervision system in the schools. The report criticized the Beacher plan for leaving missionaries largely responsible for the supervision of mission schools. It recommended the merging of supervision and inspection to have a more centralized control.

The dramatic expansion of education during the late 1950s was realized due to African demands rather than the government plans. This also prompted the

Africanization of education administration. The emerging nation was determined to plan for its own course. At the eve of independence, it was evident that Africans had taken a leading role to reshape their education system, hence the establishment of Kenya Education Commission Report (1964).

The commission was to make recommendations on education system for independent Kenya. However, other than agreeing with the colonial government's separation of supervision and inspection, it emphasized the importance of school supervision.

The report recommended that an establishment of one education officer and four assistant education officers for every hundred schools would strengthen supervision. The commission further recommended that supervisors should be carefully selected, trained and relieved of administrative duties and that they should provide source of recruitment in the Ministry's Inspectorate. The report also noted that head teachers should be well trained to effectively carry out their supervisory roles.

The education Act of (1968) and revised; in (1980) Chapter 211 of the laws of Kenya in Section 18 gives the Minister in charge of Education, power to appoint officers to visit schools for the purpose of supervision. It states that:

> *The minister shall appoint-officers with authority to enter and inspect any school or any place at which it is reasonably suspected that a school is being conducted at any time with or without notice and to report to him with respect to the school or any aspect thereof.*
>
> *The minister shall appoint officers with authority to enter any school at any time, with or without notice and inspect or audit the accounts of the school or advice the manager of the school on the maintenance of accounting records, may temporarily remove any books or records for the purpose of inspection or audit.*

> *On being so requested by an officer appointed wider this section, the Headteacher of the school shall place at the disposal of the officer all facilities, records, accounts, notebooks, examination scripts and other material belonging to the school that the officer may reasonably require for the purpose of the inspection of the school or the inspection or audit of its accounts.*

Any officer inspecting a school shall have special regard to the maintenance of educational standards. On the other hand, the Education Act of (1968) and revised in (1980) Chapter 21I of the laws of Kenya is categorical on supervision when it states in part that:

> *The headteacher shall control the internal organization, management and discipline of the school, shall exercise supervision over the teaching and non-teaching staff and shall have the power of suspending pupils from attendance for any cause which he considers adequate, but on suspending any pupil he shall forthwith report the case to the board.*

Thus the Headteacher should be in constant consultation with the school's board (BOG).

The Ndegwa Commission (1970) recommended that the inspectoral system for primary education needed an urgent overhaul. This was because the inspectorate had remained more or less the same in its approach to supervision of schools as it was in the colonial days. The 1971 Bessey report re-emphasized the role of the inspectorate, its expansion and redeployment of the staff as had been proposed in the Ndegwa report.

The report of the presidential working party on education and manpower training for the next decade and beyond (1988) chaired by Kamunge, advocated for the provision

of government policy guidelines on supervision to ensure quality and relevance in the growth and provision of education in the Country. The report noted that there was a fairly elaborate supervisor)' infrastructure comprising of Education Officers and Inspectors of schools who administered and supervised education. It also noted that in recent years efforts had been made to strengthen the schools' supervision and inspection by recruiting school inspectors in the ratio of one inspector to thirty schools. However the report recognized that the most important supervision and guidance in any school is that given by the head of the school. Thus there was need to strengthen this role of the heads of schools as 'first inspectors' of their own schools and give them appropriate in service training.

This was supported by the Minister for Education then, Hon. Aringo when he said: -

> *Inspection of schools in the country had been intensified. The inspectorate department had been decentralized into zones. Each inspector was in charge of twenty schools. (Daily Nation 15th July, 1988 pg 5 col 5-6).*

The government regards effective supervision of schools central to effective teaching and learning and was therefore endeavoured to provide school inspectors with necessary facilities to enable them to undertake effective supervision of schools and teachers. This inspection should be done in conjunction with the heads of the institutions.

In the earlier years, the supervisors were acting as administrators and were only interested with what the teachers were teaching (the curriculum) but not how they taught (the methodology). This has undergone several changes and today supervision is considered as that dimension or phase of educational administration, which is concerned with improving instructional effectiveness.

It evolved from the realization that we accomplish very little alone and that we cannot accomplish much by simply grouping people together. For any kind of group to be held together, there must first of all be a common objective that the members of the group are committed to. Secondly, a direction s needed to channel the diverse and often disorganized efforts of the individuals into a purposeful stream of productivity to achieve the common objective. Thirdly, newer and better supervisory techniques must be developed through research and then applied in order to realize the maximum potentials of the teachers.

A number of writers have defined supervision in various ways. According to Eye *et al* (1971:30), supervision is defined as "that phase of school administration which focuses primarily upon the achievement of the appropriate instructional expectations of educational systems". The definition indicates that supervision, as a process is one of the elements of educational administration whose aim is to achieve appropriate instructional objectives. The activities in a school situation, which brings about improved instruction, are considered to be supervisory. The most effective means by which instruction can be improved in a school is to obtain better teachers.

Brueckners et al (1956:11) defines supervision as expert technical service primarily aimed at studying and improving cooperatively all factors which affect child-growth and development. Moorar (1956:1) says "in modern education, the term supervision is used to describe those activities which are primarily and directly concerned with studying and improving the conditions which surround the learning and growth of pupils and teachers".

An analysis of these definitions will short that there are certain distinct characteristics of supervision: -

- Supervisions' main purpose is improvement of instruction. It is thus a service activity.
- It is intended to stimulate, coordinate, guide and make the teachers self-directive.
- The concept of supervision is based upon the belief that the improvement of instruction is a cooperative enterprise.

However, the definitions seem to suggest that the role of supervision is to improve teaching and learning through a deliberate emphasis on ways and means of instilling excellence in the quality of instruction. This is supported by the Minister of Education Republic of Botswana (2005) when he said: -

> *Inspection has to be positive and supportive to assist schools and teachers to improve their managerial and instructional skills as well as raise the quality of the education.*

According to Okumbe (1999), supervision can be classified into general supervision and instructional supervision. General supervision subsumes supervisory activities that take place outside the classroom. Such activities include the writing and revision of curricular, preparation of units and; materials of instruction, the development of processes and instruments for reporting to parents and such broad concerns as the evaluation of the total educational programme. Instructional supervision on the other hand is concerned with the students leaning in the classroom. All those activities which are undertaken to help teachers maintain and improve their effectiveness in the classroom characterized instructional supervision.

Goldhammer *et al* (1980:12) have more recently portrayed instructional supervision as including: -

> *All activities by which educational administrators may express leadership in the improvement of learning and teaching (such as) observation of classroom instruction, conducting of teachers meetings and a group and Individual conferences...; The development and execution of plans towards increased effectiveness in reading, arithmetic and some other areas of the school programme and the organization or reorganization of curriculum...*

It is clear that instructional supervision involves the head teacher and teachers in both helping and an overseeing role.

The most recent concept in instructional 'supervision is called clinical supervision. Cogan (1973:9) defines clinical supervision as: -

> *The rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. Its principle data are obtained from the events, which take place in the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between the teacher and the supervisor form the basis of the programme. Procedures and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teacher's learning behaviour.*

From the foregoing definitions and views of supervision, it is quite clear that the supervisor's role encompasses administrative, curricular and instructional dimensions. The modern supervisor is a democratic leader, a coordinator, a resourceful person and one in a strategic position to pool together the threads of evaluation.

Supervision is therefore very crucial in any organization be it educational, military, business, religious, political or otherwise. Without thorough supervision, even the best programme set out in a well laid out or structured establishment cannot be effectively executed.

2.2.2 Purpose of Supervision

According to Fisher (2011), supervision includes all efforts of school officials directed to provide leadership to the teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction. Supervision involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction, methods of teaching and evaluation of instruction. In any organization, careful planning and effective supervision cannot be over estimated. One of the major causes of the poor academic performance can be ineffective instructional supervision. For effectiveness, instructional supervision is necessary at all levels of education, but most needed at the secondary level. This is because many career divisions are taken at this level of education.

Akinola (2010) observed that secondary schools students' academic performance in external examinations conducted by the West Africa Examination Council (WAEC) and National Examination Council (NECO), have been low, and this is to the dissatisfaction of the general public. It was appalling that out of 1351557 candidates who sat for May/June 2010 West African Senior School Certificate Examination,(WAEC), only 337071 candidates representing 24.94 percent obtained credits in English Language, Mathematics and three other subjects (*Nigerian Compass* Tuesday 7th September, 2010). In the last twenty years, much attention has been paid to educational leadership and its impact upon students' performance. However, research findings show that the effects are indirect, and often difficult to measure precisely (Hallinger and Heck 1998, Leithwood and Jantzi 2000). One can find literature defending the position that school headteachers matter. Research into school effectiveness, indicate that the effective headteacher comes to the fore as an

instructional leader who affects school climate and students' performance (Levine and Lezottee 1990, Sammons, Hillman and Mourtimore 1995).

Many researchers believe that supervision of instruction has the potential to improve classroom practices, and contribute to student success through the professional growth and improvement of teachers (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Musaazi, 1985; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; and Sullivan & Glanz, 1999). Supervision is viewed as a co-operative venture in which supervisors and teachers engage in dialogue for the purpose of improving instruction which logically should contribute to student improved learning and success (Hoy & Forsyth, 1986; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Sullivan & Glanz, 1999).

Therefore the purpose of supervision include: -

- To promote the professional growth of all teachers by providing in-service training.
- To improve the quality of education by providing professional leadership both to the headteachers and the teachers.
- To appraise the work of the educational institutions and to offer suggestions for improvement.
- To prevent misdirection of resources and energies.

(Newsletter 2003: Directorate of Quality assurance and Standards).

The above was clarified as the role of QASO's when it was further asserted that:-

> *The purpose of these inspections would be to have an overview of the quality of education in Kenya based on agreed all-round performance indicators of*

the performance of an educational institution (East Africa Standard, May if1, 2001, pg 13 col. 1-5).

However, it is clear from the earlier review that most of what occurs in schools is determined by national educational policies and goals. Thus instructional practices should be assessed at the national, provincial, district, divisional and zonal levels. The purposes of supervision must, therefore be reviewed in a broader sense than just what it accomplishes at the school level. Storey and Housego (1980:2) as quoted by Olembo (1992:91) emphasized that:

If a sufficiently generalizable model of supervision w to be developed, it is necessary to look not just at schools, but at the working world in general.

However, in the school system, we examine the purpose of supervision in terms of the operational task areas.

2.3 Types of Supervision

Researchers have identified different approaches that supervisors who use clinical, and other supervision models which evolved from clinical supervision, apply to supervision. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) note that during post- observation conference, supervisors may employ directive (control or informational), collaborative, and non-directive approaches to address issues which crop up to plan actions for instructional improvement. They contend that even though a supervisor may employ a combination of these approaches, he/she may be more inclined to one of them. A supervisors inclination to any one of a combination of these approaches stems from his/her philosophical orientation or previous experience with other supervisors. Supervisors use of a particular approach may differ from one teacher to

another. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) argue supervisors consider the teachers level of experience in instructional practices and developmental level when selecting a supervision approach. It is also likely that the contexts within which a supervisor works influences his/her approach. State and national policies may also spell out procedures and approaches to be used by supervisors in their schools.

2.3.1 Directive approach

Supervisors who use a directive approach believe that teaching consists of technical skills with known standards and competencies for all teachers to be effective in their instructional practices (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 2002).

According to this approach, the roles of the supervisor are to direct, model, and assess competencies. These researchers observe that supervisors using this approach present their own ideas on what information is to be collected and how it will be collected, direct the teacher on the action plan to be taken, and demonstrate the appropriate teaching methods. The directive supervisor sets standards for improvement based on the preliminary baseline information from classroom observation, shows teachers how to attain standards, and judges the most effective way to improve instruction.

The directive supervisory approach takes two forms: directive control and directive informational. In both situations, the supervisor and teacher go through the clinical supervisory stages up to the post-conference phase where action plans for improvement are to be taken (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980). Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) and Glickman (2002) indicate that in the directive control supervisory approach, the supervisor details what the teacher is to do, and spells out the criteria for improvement. But in the directive informational approach, the supervisor provides alternative suggestions from which the teacher can choose,

instead of telling the teacher what actions to take. The supervisor does not directly determine what action a teacher should embark upon. However, the ideas come from the supervisor.

The directive approach in clinical supervision is a reminiscent of the traditional form of supervision. It presumes that the supervisor is more knowledgeable about instructional procedures and strategies than the teacher, and that his/her decisions are more effective that those of teachers in terms of instructional improvement. However, in the directive approach to supervision the supervisor employs the clinical techniques discussed above, especially a vast array of data collecting instruments. In the traditional model of supervision, all teachers are thought to be at the same level at the same time, and are expected to use the same approach to teaching similar contents. The directive approach to clinical supervision does not emphasise fault-finding as practised by inspectors in traditional supervision.

Researchers suggest the directive approach to supervision should be employed when dealing with new and inexperienced teachers (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 1990). They believe that this approach should be used in an emergency situation in which the teacher is totally inexperienced, or incompetent in the current classroom situation. Similarly, Glickman (1990) believes this approach is useful when the teacher does not have awareness, knowledge, or inclination to act on issues that the supervisor thinks to be of crucial importance to the students. According to Glickman (1990), this approach is employed “to save the students by keeping the teacher from drowning in the sea of ineffective practice” (p. 83). Pajak (2001) also suggests the directive approach should be used on new and inexperienced teachers. He argues a new teacher may have difficulty grappling with a problem presented in a

straightforward manner. He, however, cautions that being overly directive can easily encourage dependency in the new teacher toward the supervisor. I believe that if even the teacher has little knowledge or expertise about an issue the supervisor should try as much as possible to avoid the directive control approach. Teachers will feel more secure and respected when their views are sought on issues that concern them.

2.3.2 Collaborative Approach

Supervisors who employ this approach believe that teaching is primarily problem-solving, in which two or more people pose a problem, experiment and implement those teaching strategies that are deemed relevant. According to Glickman (1990), the supervisor's role in this approach is to guide the problem-solving process, be an active member of the interaction and help keep teachers focused on their common problems. The leader and teacher mutually agree on the structures, processes, and criteria for subsequent instructional improvement.

In the collaborative approach to supervision both the supervisor and teacher mutually negotiate the plan of action (Glickman, 1990). Views of both parties are included in the final plan of action for instructional improvement. According to Glickman, both the supervisor and teacher review, revise, reject, propose and counter propose until they both come to a mutual agreement. He posits that each party must accept modifications of ideas, rather than taking a hard stand. Glickman (1990, p. 147) contends that the final product of the collaboration is a contract agreed upon by both and carried out as a joint responsibility in the following manner: Presenting: the leader confronts the teacher with his/her perceptions of the instructional area needing improvement;

Clarifying: the leader asks for the teachers perceptions of the instructional area in question; Listening: the supervisor listens to teachers perceptions; Problem-solving: both the supervisor and the teacher propose alternate actions for improvement (supervisor does not impose action plans on teacher); Negotiating: the supervisor and teacher discuss the options and alter proposed actions until a joint plan is agreed upon.

The assumption underlying this approach is that both supervisors and teachers perceive each other as valuable partners in the supervisory process. There is, therefore, a sense of trust and respect between the two parties. The supervisee in this approach is likely to not feel threatened in pursuit of his/her instructional practices, and will probably welcome the observation processes.

Collaborative supervision is premised in participation. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) and Glickman (1990) suggest that this approach is employed when both the supervisor and teacher intensely care about the problem at hand, and will be involved in carrying out a decision to solve the problem. Glickman and colleague also suggest that this approach should be employed when both the supervisor and teacher have approximately the same degree of expertise on an issue to decide on. The more supervisors involve teachers in decisions affecting their instructional practices, the more the latter make an effort to contribute and are willing to implement a plan they have been part of.

2.3.3 Non-directive Approach

This approach is based on the premise that teachers are capable of analysing and solving their own instructional problems. Glickman (2002) argues that when an individual teacher sees the need for change and takes responsibility for it, instructional improvement is likely to be meaningful. The leader in this approach is only a facilitator who provides direction or little formal structures to the plan. This behaviour of the leader (supervisor), according to Glickman, should not be misconstrued as passive, or allowing complete teacher autonomy. Instead, the supervisor actually uses the behaviour of listening, clarifying, encouraging and presenting to guide the teacher towards self-recovery.

The leader who adopts the non-directive approach may not use the five steps of the standard format of clinical supervision. Glickman indicates that the supervisor may simply observe the teacher without analysing and interpreting, listen without making suggestions, or provide requested materials and resources rather than arrange in-service training. A non directive approach to supervision is often employed when dealing with experienced teachers (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 2002). Glickman (2002) suggests that the nondirective approach to supervision should be employed when a teacher or group of teachers possess most of the knowledge and expertise about an issue and the supervisors knowledge and expertise is minimal. Glickman and Tamashiro also suggest that a non-directive approach should be employed when a teacher or a group of teachers has full responsibility for carrying out a decision, or care about solving a problem and the supervisor has little involvement. When a supervisor has little knowledge and expertise about an issue, he/she can still employ the collaborative approach. On such occasions, the supervisor should not lead

the discussion, but rather solicit opinions, ask for clarification, reflect on issues being discussed, and present his/her opinions and suggestions.

2.4 Clinical Supervision

The Clinical supervision model emerged in the 1970s and originated from the pioneering work of Robert Goldhammer and Morris Cogan in a collaborative study of teaching through Harvard University (Miller & Miller, 1987). Through a research base, Goldhammer and Cogan wrote their books with the same title "Clinical Supervision" in 1969 and 1973 respectively (Miller & Miller, 1987). This was the period when the field of supervision was plagued by uncertainty and ambiguities (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). According to Sullivan and Glanz, Goldhammer and Cogan developed this model at the time when practitioners and researchers were making concerted efforts to reform supervision, and their work was reflected in a broader attempt to seek alternatives to traditional education practice. Clinical supervision, therefore, emerged as result of contemporary views of weakness and dissatisfaction with traditional education practice and supervisory methods (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). The early developers of clinical supervision contend that the focus of supervision should be on the teacher as an active member in the instructional process (Cogan, 1973; and Goldhammer, 1969). Cogan (1973) asserts that the central objective of the entire clinical process is the developments of a professionally responsible teacher who can analyse his/her own performance, open up for others to help him/her, and be self-directing. He advises, however, against the misconception that the teacher can dispense with the services of a supervisor entirely. To him such situations rarely occur, and that almost all teachers need some sort of contributions from supervisors and other personnel occasionally, and at appropriate intervals. Clinical supervision is

based on the premise that teaching would be improved by a prescribed, formal process of collaboration between the teacher and supervisor. The headteacher advocates (Goldhammer and Cogan) believe the focus of clinical supervision is a face-to-face interaction between teacher and supervisor with the intent to improve instruction and increase professional growth (Acheson & Gall, 1980). Cogan conceives that the purpose of supervisors working collaboratively with teachers is to provide expert direct assistance to them (teachers) with the view of improving instruction.

Clinical supervision is the most recent concept in instructional supervision. Cogan and Manion (1973) gave the meaning of clinical supervision as the rational and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. It takes its principle data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between the teacher and the supervisor from the basis of the programme, procedures and strategies designed to improve the students learning by improving teachers' teaching behaviour. Goldhammel, *et al* (1990) defined clinical supervision as the phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from the first-hand observation of actual teaching events and involves face-to-face interactions between the supervisor and the teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviours and activities for instructional improvement.

Advocates of clinical supervision also believe that the focus of the model is on collection of descriptive data from detailed observation of the teaching process to guide practice. The data includes what teachers and students do in the classroom during teaching learning process. These are supplemented by information about teachers and students perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and knowledge relevant to the instruction (Cogan, 1973). Cogan believes that for supervision to be effective, both

the supervisor and teacher involved should collaboratively use the data collected in the classroom to plan programmes, procedures and strategies to improve the teachers classroom behaviour, including instructional techniques. Although the original developers of clinical supervision (Cogan & Goldhammer) propose eight phases, other authors have proposed different numbers of phases, usually three to five. The original eight phases (Cogan, 1973, p. 10-12) include:

Phase 1: Establishing the teacher-supervisory relationship. This is the period that precedes the actual classroom teaching. At this stage, the supervisor: establishes the clinical relationship between her/himself and the teacher (rapport); helps the teacher to achieve some general understandings about clinical supervision as a perspective on its sequences; and begins to induct the teacher into the new functions of supervision. Phase 2: Planning with the teacher. The supervisor and the teacher plan a lesson together, anticipated outcomes and problems of instruction are shared and materials and strategies of teaching, processes of learning and provision for feed-back and evaluation are agreed upon. Phase 3: Planning the strategy for observation. The supervisor and the teacher agree on the objectives, processes and aspects of observation to be collected. At this stage, the functions of the supervisor in the observation process are clearly specified. Phase 4: Observing instruction. The supervisor observes the classroom (lessons) and records the actual classroom event as he/she see it, but not her/his interpretation. Phase 5: Analyzing the teaching-learning processes. The teacher and supervisor analyze the events that took place in the classroom. Decisions are made about the procedures with careful regard to teachers developmental level and needs at that moment. Phase 6: Planning the strategy of the conference. Initially, the supervisor alone develops the plan (alternatives and strategies for conducting the conference). At subsequent times, this planning could be

done jointly with the teacher. Phase 7: The conference. At this phase, the supervisor and teacher meet to review the observation data. Phase 8: Renewed Planning. The supervisor and teacher decide on the kinds of changes to be effected in the teachers classroom behaviour. Both supervisor and teacher begin to plan the next lesson and the changes the teacher will attempt to make in his instructional processes. They then begin planning when the next cycle will take place.

Other researchers have reduced the original eight phases to between three and five (Acheson & Gall, 1980; and Glickman, 1990). Acheson and Gall describe the three phases as: planning a conference (pre-observation conference); the actual observation; and feedback conference. Glickman (1990) also describes five phases as: pre-conference; class observation; analysis and interpretation; post-observation conference; and critique of four phases. Glickmans (1990, p. 280-285) five phases are: 1) Pre-conference with teacher; the supervisor meets with teachers and presents to her/him the reason and purpose for the observation, the focus, method and form to be used, time of observation and time for post conference; 2) observation of class; observation methods may include categorical frequencies, physical indicators, performance indicators, visual diagramming, space utilization open-ended narratives, participant observation, focused questionnaire etc. (in this phase, the supervisor only has to describe the events as they unfold, but not to interpret them); 3) analyzing and interpreting observation and determining conference approach; the supervisor leaves the classroom and carry out the analysis and interpretation alone; 4) post-observation conference with teacher; both the supervisor and the teacher discuss the analyses of observation and finally produce a plan for instructional improvement; and, 5) critique of the previous four steps; both supervisor and teacher review format and procedures

from conference to ascertain whether they were satisfactory and whether there was the need for revision, and put a plan in place to begin the cycle.

Miller and Miller (1987) argue that clinical supervision has advantages over the previous models. They note that clinical supervision allows for objective feedback, which if given in a timely manner, will lead to improved results. Clinical supervision also diagnoses instructional problems and provides valuable information to solve such problems. In the end, improvements in instruction are heightened as teachers are able to develop new skills and strategies. Data on students may include feedback from class work and test results, which could also be useful to improve instruction. A wide range of data collection instruments employed in this model would provide supervisors with individual teachers peculiar problems than pre-determined rating scales and evaluation procedures inherent in the "scientific supervision".

Proponents of clinical supervision such as Cogan and Goldhammer advise that supervisors mutually plan lesson observation with teachers, rather than supervisors entering the classroom unexpectedly, and with pre-determined rating items.

Blasé and Blasé (2004) suggest that supervisors should mutually decide with their teachers on what and how to observe before proceeding to the classroom to observe a lesson. In Pansiris study (2008), 75 percent of his teacher participants in Botswana indicated their supervisors planned class visits with them. The teachers accepted the supervisors as partners for instructional improvement, rather than viewed their visits as intrusion into their private instructional behaviour. Ayse Bas (2002) study of Turkish private schools found, however, that the headteacher determined when visits would be conducted without consulting with teachers.

Proponents of clinical supervision such as Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) suggest that supervisors use questioning to guide and assist teachers improve their instructional strategies. Supervisors are expected to use probing questions during pre-observation conferences, classroom observations, and post-observation conferences to guide and assist teachers plan their lessons, use appropriate teaching techniques, and take decisions to improve instruction (Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) posit that questioning could be used at any stage of the supervisory process- planning a lesson, selecting instructional materials, during teaching, and assessing students.

A study of public school teachers perceptions about instructional leadership in the US revealed that supervisors who participated in the study often used questioning approach to solicit teachers actions about instructional matters (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). Participants in that study remarked that such questions served as guide to make them reflect on their actions, know what to do next, and evaluate what they did. In a similar study, all five participants in a 3-year longitudinal study agreed that using thought-provoking questions to guide teachers improved their instructional practice (Holland, 2004). The participants indicated that such 50 questions are designed to reassure teachers that supervisors are simply seeking information, but do not put teachers on the defensive by telling them what they should do or what they are not doing. The participants were from the same large urban school district and were being groomed as secondary administrators. Holland did not, however, mention the place (context) in which the study took place. It could be helpful if supervisors use probing questions to assess individual teachers content knowledge and instructional skills so as to provide the necessary guidance and assistance to improve instruction.

2.5 Instructional Supervision

Administration and supervision of learning is as old as educational system. Anuna (2004) defined school educational administration where supervision falls under as a process primarily concerned with creating, maintaining and coordinating the resources and energy within an educational institution for the purpose of achieving predetermined goals. Supervision of instruction is an integral part of educational administration and also a tool utilized by the educational administration to achieve the goal and objectives of educational system.

Instructional administration is the process by which the principles, methods and practices are used in secondary school setting in establishing, maintaining, and developing such institutions in the realization of the goals of that organization. When the plan is drawn, it is the responsibility of an educational administrator to organize resources, utilize resources and synchronize people's actions to actualize such educational plans. Supervision is the most versatile technique available for all educational administrators to provide leadership to teachers for the improvement of instruction (Nwaogu, 1980).

The National Policy on Education (2004) emphasizes the need to ensure quality control through regular inspection and continuous supervision of instruction and other educational services. In this respect, supervision was observed as a program for enhancing classroom work through direct visitation and observation. Also, supervision of instruction is regarded as the process of enhancing professional growth of teachers, the curriculum and improving the techniques of teaching in classrooms through democratic interactions between the teacher and the supervisor.

Instructional process and supervision help a lot in improving academic performance of students. This is because supervision of instruction aims at enhancing teaching and learning through proper guidance and planning, and devising ways of improving teachers professionally and thereby helping them release their creative abilities so that through them the instructional process is improved. Supervision helps teachers become acquainted with sources of assistance in solving their instructional problems (Afianmagbon, 2004). Supervision enhances teachers understanding of instructional process and assists them in the use of professional literatures, journals, free and inexpensive teaching materials, audio-visual aid and instructional equipments.

Ukeje (1992) is of the opinion that supervision of instruction helps to improve learning. According to him, instruction refers to the interaction between persons, materials, ideas, performances and objects of the contrived curriculum environment. It is the interaction of activities between the teacher and the leaner as part of the school environment. Through interaction the supervisor gets to know the administration and supervision of learning is as old as educational system.

For example, in Nigeria, supervision of instruction has evolved from what it was during the colonial era, when tasks were entrusted to the agents of voluntary agencies and some colonial personnel like the director of schools. In this respect, Taiwo (1980) sees supervision as techniques or means of enhancing classroom work through direct visitation and observation. For instance, clinical supervision normally consists of group of teachers, supervisors, including subject specialists supervisors working together to achieve set goals. It is based on mutual trust and harmonious interaction between teachers and supervisors. The goal of clinical supervision is to enhance the individual classroom teacher’s performance.

Normally, it takes place in the classroom through observation. In contemporary Kenya, supervision of instruction is regarded as the process of enhancing professional growth of the teachers, the curriculum and improving the teaching of teaching in the classroom through democratic interaction between the teacher and the supervisor. Ukeje (1992) is of the opinion that in education, the supervisor is expected to perform amongst others, two functions: they are curriculum improvement and improvement of instruction. The other ones are staff personnel development, students' personnel development, school business management and school plant maintenance.

Afianmagbon (2004) in his explanations reaffirmed that the word supervision was derived from the Latin Word, supervidee meaning oversee. He further expressed that apart from overseeing the work duties of subordinate, the term supervision mostly connotes the act of guiding, helping, co-ordinating, and directing teachers and other instructional staff, so that school programs are improved. Supervision is essential in the school system in order to effectively accomplish the purpose, goals, and objectives of educational programs-in question. Therefore, the effectiveness and success of educational system hinge on effective supervision.

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Instructional process and supervision constitute the leverage point for instructional improvement, teachers' competence and efficiency of the educational system. It is all the conscious efforts of designated officials to co-ordinate and direct the activities in an educational system with a view to improving teaching and learning. This is why Ebiringha (1987) stated that administration and supervision of learning help and encourage teachers to keep pace with changes and innovations in a dynamic environment. Through them, in-service educational programmes which stimulate continuous growth in teachers' abilities are introduced. Instructional supervision helps in academic performance of students in the sense that, in supervision of instruction, supervisors through time organize seminars, workshops, conference, short term course, long term course for teachers to update their knowledge. Ukeje (1979) stressed that on the job training and assessment in form of assessing lesson plans, assessing teachers' method of teaching, assessing teachers' ability in classroom management and evaluation processes are provided for teachers by supervisors. If teachers are updated in these ways, students' academic performance will improve.

Educational supervision helps to alert the teacher more in classroom management. According to Amaewhule (2005), the way a teacher manages his class is often seen as an index of his teaching effectiveness. Learning is an activity which takes place in an atmosphere free from disturbances and distractions. A teacher cannot therefore be said to be facilitating learning when conducting his class in a disorderly environment like when students are sleeping in the class, when students are inattentive or engaging in disruptive activity while lesson is on. A good teacher should watch these behaviours and put them to control and supervision helps to intimate teachers in this way.

Some researchers suggest that supervision was historically viewed as an instrument for controlling teachers. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004) refer to the dictionary definition as to “watch over”, “direct”, “oversee”, and “superintend”. They believe that because the historic role of supervision has been inspection and control, it is not surprising most teachers do not equate supervision with collegiality. Hoy and Forsyth (1986), for their part, noted that supervision has its roots in the industrial literature of bureaucracy, and the main purpose was to increase production. To them, the industrial notion of supervision was overseeing, directing and controlling workers, and was, therefore, management’s tool to manipulate subordinates. This negative consequence of external control of teachers work lives has resulted in the flight of both new and old teachers from education of both new and experienced educators (Ingersol, 2003).

Some researchers such as Bolin and Panaritis (1992), Glanz (1996), and Harris (1998) (as cited in Bays, 2001) argue that defining supervision has been a recurrent and controversial issue in the field of education. Harris for instance observes that current thoughts in the definition of supervision of instruction do not represent full consensus, but has listed some common themes across different definitions. These include supporting teaching and learning; responding to changing external realities; providing assistance and feedback to teachers; recognising teaching as the primary vehicle for facilitating school learning; and promoting new, improved and innovative practices. Harris, however, noted that questions of roles, relationships, positions, and even skills and functions remain without full consensus.

2.5.1 Teacher Supervision

According to Wehmeier (2004), supervision is the act of being in charge and making sure that everything is done correctly and safely. In our contemporary society, schools are considered as social systems, because they are bounded by sets of elements (subsystems) and activities that interact to constitute a single social entity. The effective functioning of every social system, schools included, is assumed to be dependent on the quality of their leadership. According to Mbiti (1974), *Leadership is an essential factor among all social animals, from insects ...to the apes and man himself. The necessity for leadership stems from the fact that each organization has needs which must be met. The nature of leadership is largely determined by the nature of the organization… The history of man is one of the organizations which are formed to meet group needs. Where there is an organization, there arises a need for a leader… if the activities of the organization are to be successful (p. 17).* All schools, like other organizations require leaders if they are to remain in business. Their products are knowledge, skills and values and are delivered through teaching and learning processes. The inputs required by the school in processing of its products are infrastructure, teachers and teaching/learning materials. Students are customers of school products, who desire to acquire adequate knowledge to enable them pass examinations, acquire competitive skills for the job markets and wisdom to succeed in life

Headteachers are mandated with the responsibility and duty to bring together and coordinate all the resources within the school for the achievement of desired educational goals. According to Birgen (2007), the ultimate responsibility for effective functioning of the school is the province of the headteacher, the chief

executive of the school. Maranga (1977) gave a comprehensive historical account of supervisory and inspectorial activities during the pre-independence and post-independence periods in Kenya. Supervision is, however, considered as that dimension or phase in educational administration which is concerned with improving educational effectiveness. This management practice evolved after it was realized that there was little that could be achieved by grouping employees together without a leader (Okumbe, 1999). In a school set up, supervision draws its foundation and data from the events that take place inside and outside the classroom. The analysis of events in the school and the relationship between the teacher and the head teacher form the basis of the programmes, procedures and strategies designed to improve the teaching and learning process (Mbiti, 1974). Eshiwani (1993) holds the following role of the head teacher as a supervisor in school: running and control of the school and for the maintenance of the tone and all-round standards. The organization and control of staff, both teaching and non-teaching, is all part of the head's duties. In particular, he/she must check the teaching standards by reference to schemes of work, lesson notes, records of work done and pupil's exercise books (p. 124).

It is through supervision that the head teacher gets a clear framework of activities and responsibilities of each member of staff in school. The management practice enables head teachers to evaluate the extent to which policies, objectives, activities and events laid down in the long and short term plans are successfully carried out. Supervision, therefore, as a basic requirement in school administration, brings on board tactics of efficient and proper personnel management with an aim of steering their efforts towards the desired educational goals of a community. As an aspect of administration, it assists in checking of punctuality, discipline, as well facilitating change from old ways to modern ways of doing things at the work place (school). The above implies

that it is a process of overseeing people at their places of work in order to ensure compliance with established plans and procedures (Saleemi & Bogonko, 1997).

Head teachers, as immediate supervisors in secondary schools, are responsible for maintaining punctuality, discipline and academic standards in schools. While stressing on the importance of quality and standards in education, the Ministry of Education, pointed out that with increased demand for education, some institutions might be tempted to compromise on standards, which would affect the quality of education. The Ministry also warned that undercover inspectors would soon be dispatched to educational institutions to establish the level of conformity with standards (*Daily Nation*, 2008). Although the sentiments from the Ministry of Education targeted institutions of higher learning, the message put across was adherence to quality and standards at all levels of the Kenyan 8.4.4 system of education. The Ministry of Education portrays supervision as an attempt, through second party intervention, to ascertain, maintain and improve the quality of work done (Olembo *et al.*, 1992). It involves the aspects of administration, which are aimed at maintaining the efforts of personnel in line with the goals of the organization. If head teachers perform their supervisory roles well, there is bound to be remarkable efficiency in the work carried out by the subordinates. Olivia (1976) conceptualizes supervision as a service to teachers, both as individuals and in groups, as a means of offering specialized help in improving instruction. Supervision improves teaching and learning through a deliberate emphasis on ways and means of instilling excellence in the quality of instruction. As a management practice, it offers professional service to secondary school executives for the purpose of interacting and influencing teachers so as to maintain or change and improve their service delivery to the students. It is through supervision that teachers are guided and influenced to strive towards the

desired educational goals and objectives. In order for the teaching and learning process to function efficiently, there must be a proper system of supervision (Mbiti, 1974).

Ngala (1997) suggests that head teachers need to supervise teachers by ensuring that: lessons are planned early; lessons are structured with an interesting beginning; revision of previous knowledge and teachers' use of voice variation and summary of major points at the end; teachers use backups/teaching aids properly; teachers have a good relationship with their students and teachers follow up the curriculum strictly. Okumbe (1999) considers supervision as an administrative strategy aimed at stimulating teachers towards greater pedagogic effectiveness and productivity. The stimulation function of supervision enhances teachers to play important roles aimed at excellence in examinations, which reduces risks of teacher burn out. Although the duties and responsibilities of the head teacher are enormous, all are geared towards the attainment of the preset broad aims and specific objectives of the educational system. The school as an organization cannot escape its responsibility to the community in which it is set. The responsibilities range from effective use of human resources, to continued customer satisfaction and value for their money. Instructional supervision aids head teachers in coordinating, improving and maintaining high teaching and learning standards in schools.

Educational institutions aim at imparting learners with knowledge that develops them mentally, emotionally, socially and spiritually, apart from equipping them with economic skills for full participation in the development of the society (Maranya, 2001). It is, however, prudent to note that the greatest strength of any school is its personnel, the human resources. Teachers combine their relevant skills, experiences

and positive attitudes towards the profession, in order to raise the quality of the schools' academic performance to high and reputable standards (Mbiti, 1974). This combination is achieved through instructional supervision.

In a study by, Olatunji Sabitu1 and Ayandoja (2012). Impact of selected modes of instructional supervision activities on students' academic performance in senior secondary schools in Ondo state, Nigeria showed that there were significant impacts of checking of students notes on students' academic performance in English Language in Senior Secondary Schools Certificate Examination. This agreed with the findings of Hallinger and Heck (1998) that there was a significant impact of checking of students notes on students' academic performance in English Language in U.S. elementary schools. The study further agreed with the finding of Williams (2003) that there was significant impact of checking of students notes on students' academic performance in English Language in Secondary Schools in New York City. The finding is contrary to Firestone and Riehl (2005) that checking of students' note does not produce a direct effect on students' performance in English Language but is a mediating influence on teachers, curriculum, instruction, community, and school organisation. The study also revealed that there was a significant impact of class visitations by headteachers on students' academic performance in English Language in Senior Secondary Schools in Ondo State. This supports the finding of Harbison and Hanushek (1992), that there was a significant impact of class visitations by headteachers on students' academic performance in English Language in Secondary Schools in America.

The study equally revealed that there was a significant impact of checking of teachers punctuality and attendances on students' academic performance in English Language

in senior secondary schools in Ondo State. Furthermore, the findings revealed that there was a significant impact of moderation of examination questions and marking scheme on students' academic performance in Biology in senior secondary schools in Ondo State. The findings of Weiss and Pasley (2006), Bruce and Beverly (2002), agreed with this study that there was a significant impact of moderation of examination questions and marking scheme on students' academic performance in Biology in New York City secondary school. Finally, the study revealed that there were significant impacts of checking of student notes, class visitations by headteachers, checking of teachers punctuality and attendances and moderation of examination questions and marking scheme on students' academic performance in English Language in senior secondary school examination in Ondo State of Nigeria. This finding agreed with Gaziel (2007) that students performance in matriculation in Israel, depends on how school headteachers invest their energy in their instructional roles, maintain visibility, monitor students' performance, and coordinate curriculum, promote academic teachers' professional development.

In many countries officers responsible for inspection and supervision are classified as external and internal who may otherwise may be the headteachers. Officers operating from outside the school are termed external supervisors who are referred to as QASOS in Kenya. In other countries such as in Ghana, and other African countries, external supervisors function on least at three of the four levels: central, regional, district and local/school level (De Grauwe, 2001). Apart from Zanzibar where supervision and support tasks are not devolved to the school level or community but mainly remain fully controlled by the Ministry of Education at the central level, in all other countries school-site supervisors exist (De Grauwe, 2001). The head of school,

his/her assistant and other teachers are responsible for improving classroom instruction.

Typically, supervisors of instruction include headteachers, heads of department. Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004) note that what is crucial is not the persons title or designation, but rather his/her responsibility. In Kenya, headteachers of primary and school headteachers in secondary schools are responsible for school supervision. But at a higher level, heads of schools take up administrative tasks, whereas their deputies and heads of department supervise instruction. Assistant headmasters/headmistresses (academic) in senior high schools, vice headteachers (academic) in polytechnics, teacher training colleges and technical/vocational institutions, and heads of department in these institutions in Ghana supervise instruction.

Different titles are used in different countries for personnel responsible for direct supervision of instruction at the school level. In other countries, supervision of instruction is the responsibility of the school administrator (a title usually used for a head of a school district in New York City public schools), although literacy and math coaches are often called upon to facilitate the observation and supervision process (Glanz, Shulman, & Sullivan, 2007). Other teachers complement supervisory activities in their respective schools; lead teachers in Ghana, senior subject teachers in Namibia and Botswana, teachers-in-charge in Zimbabwe (De Grauwe, 2001), and coaches in New York (Glanz, et al., 2007). But in Ghana, unlike the other personnel mentioned above, the position of a lead teacher is temporary. When the intervention they lead is completed, their supervisory roles come to an end. It could be observed that headteachers, assistant headmasters (academic), vice headteachers (academic) in

Ghana and administrators in other countries are always at the forefront of 15 school-site supervision, whereas the other personnel mentioned above support supervisory activities.

In the New York City primary schools, coaches are often directed by administrators to visit classrooms to work with teachers to model lessons (Glanz, et al., 2007). They report that coaches are requested by teachers to share best practices with them. Glanz and colleagues indicate that the coaches act as follow-up to an administrators observation of a teacher or an assistant teacher in preparation for an observation. According to them, both administrators and coaches view the coach as an instructional mentor, but not an "instructional leader". Coaches were seen as collaborators, responsible for helping teachers to implement initiatives.

Researchers also suggest some differences between a coach and a supervisor of instruction (Glanz, et al, 2007; Hawk & Hill, 2003). Glanz and colleagues (2007) indicate that coaches are only trained in subject specific initiatives which they are supposed to coach. This presupposes that headteachers in the US are given special training, although coaches are not. In Ghana headteachers are occasionally given in-service training in general management issues, including supervision of instruction. Coaches, unlike school heads and other supervisors, do not have any formal training in classroom observation and supervision. Glanz, *et al*. (2007) and Hawk and Hill (2003) argue that the coaches receive training in specific subject areas, but not generic coaching skills. But supervisors are expected to advise and provide support to all teachers. Similarly, the main beneficiaries of coaching programmes in New Zealand are teachers who are new to a school, and those whose performance needs improvement (Hawk & Hill, 2003).

Empirical research studies have shown that contemporary instructional supervision practices have the potential to improve instruction and the entire school environment. However, while a direct relationship between contemporary supervision and improved teaching has been established, the further link to improved student outcomes is much more tenuous (Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006). Nevertheless, most researchers and practitioners believe that improved instructional supervision can improve student learning via improved teaching. Researchers have suggested various supervisory practices and behaviour which are likely to guide and equip teachers with the skills and competencies capable of improving their instructional practices and, which ultimately are likely to improve student outcomes (Blase & Blase, 2004; Dufour, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2009; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1993; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000).

One important aspect of supervision which researchers have theorised and shown empirically can improve instructional practices is informal visits to classrooms, also called “walk throughs” (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Rous, 2004). Researchers have found that such visits provide supervisors the opportunity to identify areas where teachers have difficulties and/or need improvement. Such knowledge helps supervisors provide assistance and support to teachers individually and in groups. Similarly, supervisors physical presence in the classrooms affords teachers the opportunity to seek assistance from supervisors, boost their morale and confidence, and encourages them to strive to improve student achievement.

Another important aspect of supervision advocated by researchers such as Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) is the pre-observation conference. Researchers have empirically shown that pre-observation conferencing between supervisors and

teachers improve teachers instructional practices (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008). When teachers and supervisors plan lesson observations together, teachers become aware of what will be observed, and the time and method of observation. During such meetings, supervisors discuss with teachers areas they want them (teachers) to improve. Such meetings provide opportunities for teachers to prepare adequately and feel confident during lesson presentation and, ultimately, provide the basis for improvement in teachers instructional strategies and practices.

Students' academic performance depends a great deal on the instructional materials used. This is because instructional materials help to make instructions practical and real thereby facilitating the understanding of the instruction. Most instructional materials require finance so educational administrators during educational budgeting make provision for instructional materials (Annuma 2004). But sometimes the money made available is not sufficient. Most schools do not have facilities such as laboratories, libraries and relevant books. Teachers and supervisors identify and see that these problems are solved.

Conductive environment contributes a lot to academic performance of students and as a result instructional processes and supervision strive actively in a conducive environment. Ezeocha (1990) states that classroom visitation is one of the essential duties of educational supervisor and in these visits, the supervisors finds out how conducive the place of learning are and plans will be made on how to improve learning environment to achieve the desired goals. Supervision and instructional process are mutually at work to improve the academic performance of students

because without supervision, educational administrators will fail in their task of maintaining standard and qualitative education.

Instructional and supervision processes must link up with institutional academic programs plans. To achieve the objectives of education, supervisors should involve academic programs plans. To achieve this, certain principles need to be strictly adhered to. According to Okendu (2006), such principles include participatory planning; this principle demands that the educational planning process must involve adequate participation of all the interest groups whose interests are to be affected by planned educational programs. And this includes students, teachers, school-heads, parents, employers of labour etc. There is also the principle of integration, specialization and administrative harmonization. Ebiringha (1987) seeing how important supervision is in academic performance of students enumerated the following as the functions of a supervisor: seeing teachers' lesson notes, checking their instructional materials, watching teachers do the actual teaching, evaluating the ability of teachers, identifying instructional problems, introducing changes, helping teachers realize their potentials to improve instructions, and ensuring that teachers keep accurate and up-to-date records, mandating teachers to provide students with feedback on their performances. instructional problems faced by the teachers. Once a problem has been identified by the teacher and then discussed with the supervisor, a solution will be recommended by the supervisor. Instructional process and supervision constitute the leverage point for instructional improvement, teachers competence and efficiency of the educational system. It is all the conscious efforts of designated officials to co-ordinate and direct the activities in an educational system with a view to improving teaching and learning. This is why Ebiringha (1987) stated that administration and supervision of learning help and encourage teachers to keep

pace with changes and innovations in a dynamic environment. Through them, in-service educational programmes which stimulate continuous growth in teachers' abilities are introduced. Instructional supervision helps in academic performance of students in the sense that, in supervision of instruction, supervisors through time organize seminars, workshops, conference, short term course, long term course for teachers to update their knowledge.

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teaching, evaluating the ability of teachers, identifying instructional problems, introducing changes, helping teachers realize their potentials to improve instructions, and ensuring that teachers keep accurate and up-to-date records, mandating teachers to provide students with feedback on their performances.

In a study by Okendu (2012), on the influence of instructional process and supervision on academic performance of secondary school students of rivers state, Nigeria tested the hypothesis that Teacher's classroom instructional process and supervision have no significant difference on the academic performance of secondary school students; instructional supervision has no measurable significant difference on academic program planning; and instructional processes have no significant relationship with supervision programs. On institutional administration and its bearing on classroom supervision the result was non-significant indicating that institutional administration has a direct bearing on teachers classroom supervision. Test on regular instructional supervision and its bearing on students' performance was significant. This result was in support of Nigeria National policy on education (2004). The test on instructional supervisions, a correlate of excellent instructional process was significantly in favour of the theoretical position of Afianmagbon (2004). The test on instructional supervision, a correlate of educational planning was also significantly in harmony with the theoretical ground of Ezeocha (1990).

Research findings from the null-hypotheses and analysis reaffirmed a mixed result. Statistical test run on teachers classroom instructional process and supervision in reference to students' academic performance was significant. This result was in favour of Ebiringha (1987) findings which indicated that teachers instructional process and supervision make a significant difference in secondary school student

performance. Whereas the test on instructional supervision and academic program planning was in favour of the null hypotheses (P <. 05). This very result was in conflict with Okendu (2006) theoretical explanations of instructional supervision and academic program planning. On Instructional problem, a correlate of supervision, the test result was not in favour of the null hypothesis and this significant result is in harmony with Anuna (2001) who proclaimed that instructional processes and relevant instructional materials facilitate the understanding of instructions.

2.6 Supervisory Activities

Theorists and empirical studies have described how supervisor characteristics and practices have the potential to improve instruction. The characteristics include personal attributes that supervisors possess and exhibit in the course of their work, as well as their knowledge of content, expertise and skills, behaviour, and attitudes towards teachers. The practices may include activities they go through and the techniques they employ while performing their roles as instructional supervisors. Blasé and Blasé (2004) note that there is a paucity of research that describes how instructional supervision is actually practised in schools, as well as how teachers are actually affected by such supervision. Blasé and Blasé (2004) cite other researchers to support their claim that what actually exist are exploratory studies of supervisory conferencing (Dungan, 1993; Roberts, 1991a); micro politics of supervisor-teacher interaction in public schools(Blasé & Blasé, 2004); and, related studies of precepting in medical schools (Blasé & 45 Hekelman, 1996; Hekelman & Blasé, 1996).

Many studies have referred to Blasé and Blasés (1999) study of “teachers perspectives on how headteachers promote teaching and learning in schools”. The data were provided by teachers who were taking a course at three major universities located in

the south-eastern, mid-western and north-eastern USA. The teachers provided a range of supervisor characteristics and practices which has served as an inventory to Blasé and Blasé. They grouped the characteristics into two: those which promoted effective supervision, and those which were found to be ineffective. The respondents in their study used terms like successful and effective to describe situations which they deemed appropriate to improvement of instruction.

2.6.1 Informal visits

Some researchers have theorised that supervisors frequent visit classrooms (walk-throughs) make their presence felt in the school (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Rous, 2004). Such visits are usually not planned, but to put teachers on the alert to ensure that they (teachers) make good use of instructional time, and chip in support to teachers when necessary. Rous (2004) reported that lack of contact between teachers and instructional supervisors in her study negatively affected instructional practices.

Empirical studies have also shown that informal visits motivated teachers to improve their instructional strategies and teachers time-on-task. In her study of selected public primary school teachers in the US, Rous (2004) found that most teachers believed that their supervisors frequent visits and calls were important activities, whereas others reported that their supervisors were not seen in the classrooms enough. She observed that teachers were energized when supervisors “dropped by” the classrooms and interacted with the students. This was seen as a demonstration of supervisors concern for teachers, students and programme. Similar studies conducted in Ghana have shown that frequent visits to classrooms are necessary to improve teachers time-on-task. Oduro (2008) and the World Bank report (Education in Ghana: Improving equity, efficiency and accountability of education delivery, 2011) have found that

some teachers in public primary schools in Ghana are in the habit of absenting themselves from school. The World Bank report revealed that only 109 out of 197 school days are fully operational as teachers spent other days engaged in activities such as collecting salaries, attending funerals, and travelling long distances to their schools.

2.6.2 Observing lessons

Lesson observation is one major function of supervisors. In almost all models discussed earlier, lesson observation has been seen as a major tool supervisors use to assess the content knowledge of teachers and their competency in instructional strategies and practices, so as to provide the necessary assistance to improve instruction. In such visits, it is imperative for the supervisor to focus on what was agreed upon to be observed during the pre-observation conference (Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 1990; Goldhammer, 1969; Miller & Miller, 1987). This is supposed to guide supervisors to stay on track and be objective in their practices.

Empirical studies have shown that although some supervisors were able to observe lessons, others were unable to do so. Some participants in Pansiris (2008) study indicated that their supervisors visited classrooms with the intention of supervising instruction but were unable to provide professional support to the teachers. However, other participants reported their supervisors observed classes and wrote notes based solely on what was occurring in the classroom. Pansiri did not show the proportion in each case. The group of participants who received feedback reported that their supervisors carried out classroom supervision positively.

Pansiri did not, however, indicate whether those supervisors who could not offer professional support to the teachers were not knowledgeable in the subjects been

taught or limited in expertise. Rous (2004) also reported that supervisors in her US study did not have enough time to observe lessons. Some participants in her study reported that their supervisors were not seen in their classrooms enough.

2.6.3 Trust and respect

Researchers believe that teachers have trust and confidence in a supervisor who is knowledgeable and an instructional expert. Supervisors are expected to be knowledgeable in content and teaching strategies to be able to provide assistance and support to teachers. Teachers trust in the headteacher's ability to assist and support them in their instructional practices is essential in the supervisory process (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). They suggest that teachers must be able to rely on supervisors for instructional assistance, moral boosting, and curriculum planning. They also suggest that supervisors should be honest to their teachers and be open to discussions. They finally propose that supervisors must have a working knowledge of the curriculum and pedagogy and, be a "master teacher".

Similarly, Holland (2004) posits that educators (supervisors) must demonstrate evidence that they have the necessary knowledge and skills to make important decisions about what they do and how they do it. She believes that credentials alone do not inspire trust, but rather how they are applied in practice. She also believes that teachers would trust a supervisor with whom they can confide. Teachers will not trust a supervisor who discusses teachers performances and instructional practices with other people, whether openly or surreptitiously.

Sullivan and Glanz (2000), on their part, believe the supervisor's continued attendance at in-service training helps him/her to be able to provide useful assistance, advice, and support to teachers; and thereby develop the trust that teachers have in

him/her. Having knowledge alone is not important, but using it judiciously to help teachers grow professionally is the ultimate objective. Pansiri (2008), in his study of teachers perspectives of "instructional leadership for quality learning" in Botswana, found that 77 percent of the public primary teachers who participated in his study trusted their supervisors. Rous (2004) study of public primary schools in the US state of Kentucky revealed, however, that although the supervisors in her study were knowledgeable, they neglected the teachers most of the time.

Rous (2004) in her study in the US public primary schools on "teachers perspectives about instructional supervision and behaviour that influence preschool instruction" found out that instructional supervisors in her study who showed respect for staff, families, and children and demonstrated caring for children and teachers facilitated classroom instruction. Teacher participants in this study reported that their supervisors did not force them to teach in limited ways, nor were they criticised by their instructional leaders for trying out new approaches and teaching strategies.

2.6.4 Listening

Listening to, and hearing the needs of teachers are one of the responsibilities of supervisors (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Teachers in Blasé and Blasés (1999) study indicated that their supervisors listened to their concerns and tried to assist them in any way possible. One respondent remarked that his supervisor shared upcoming units with him, and often offered additional ideas to enhance his lessons. Public primary school teachers in Botswana who participated in Pansiris (2008) study also indicated that their supervisors listened to their concerns, as well as being accessible and approachable.

2.6.5 Praise

Researchers have theorized and shown empirically that praising teachers significantly affects teacher motivation, self-esteem, and efficacy (Blasé & Blasé, 1999, 2004). They are also of the view that praise fosters teachers reflective behaviour, by reinforcing teaching strategies, risk-taking, and innovation/creativity. Praising teachers is a critical function in instructional leadership (Blasé & Blasé, 2004) and pedagogical leadership (Pansiri, 2008). In his study in Botswana, Pansiri (2008) reported that 70 percent of the public primary school teachers who participated in his study indicated that their supervisors praised them for demonstrating good teaching strategies. Blasé and Blasé (1999) also found that headteachers (instructional supervisors) in their US study gave praise that focused on specific and concrete teaching behaviour.

2.6.6 Offering suggestions

Another supervisory practice which researchers have found to be fruitful is the provision of suggestions to guide instruction (Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Suggestions serve as guides to help teachers choose among alternative plans, varied teaching strategies, and classroom management practices. Blasé and colleague (2004) observe that headteachers (supervisors) make suggestions in such a way as to broaden, or enrich teachers thinking and strengths. They note that suggestions encourage creativity and innovation, as well as support work environment. The teachers in Blasé and Blasés (1999) study overwhelmingly reported that successful headteachers (supervisors) offered suggestions to improve teaching and learning, vary their instructional methods, and help solve problems. The participants found headteachers

suggestions fruitful, and strongly enhanced reflection and informed instructional behaviour.

Rous's (2004) findings were consistent with the one mentioned above. Public primary school teachers in her US study reported that their headteachers commonly offered suggestions. The teachers acknowledged that when their supervisors offered helpful suggestions on instructional practices, it increased their ability to solve classroom problems. Rous observed that teachers in her study were willing to try suggestions which were offered sincerely and positively. The use of the word "helpful" in the report suggests that not all suggestions may be useful to the teachers.

2.6.7 Feedback

Visiting classrooms and providing feedback to teachers is considered one of the major roles of supervisors. Feedback provides teachers help them reflect on what actually took place in the teaching-learning process. Blasé and Blasé (2004) believe that feedback should not be a formality, but should serve as a guide for instructional improvement when it is given genuinely. Similarly, feedback (whether formally or informal, written or oral) should focus on observations rather than perspectives. Blasé and Blasé (2004) theorise that feedback reflectively informs teacher behaviour; and this results in teachers implementing new ideas, trying out a variety of instructional practices, responding to student diversity, and planning more carefully and achieving better focus. Teachers in Blasé and Blasés (1999) study reported that effective headteachers provided them with positive feedback about observed lessons. They indicated that such feedback was specific; expressed caring, interest and support in a non-judgmental way; and encouraged them to think and re-evaluate their strategies. Similarly, Rous (2004) also reported that in the US public schools, feedback offered

by supervisors was a formal behaviour, and was objective and based solely on class observation. Teachers in this study saw feedback to be constructive, and very helpful to them in their instructional practices. Pansiri (2008) also reported that 70 percent of public primary school teachers in Botswana who participated in his study indicated their supervisors provided them with constructive feedback about classroom observation. However, these findings are inconsistent with Bays (2001) findings in rural districts in the state of Virginia. She found that instructional support and specific feedback for teacher participants in the area of special education appeared to be limited.

2.6.8 Modelling lessons

Researchers have theorised that lesson demonstration can improve teachers instructional practices (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006). Supervisors use demonstration lessons to assist teachers individually and in groups. This practice is not only used to guide new and inexperienced teachers, but veterans as well. Supervisors may learn strategies from teachers during their classroom observations, and transfer such learned activity to other teachers to try them out in their classrooms.

Research studies have shown that supervisors use lesson demonstrations to help teachers to improve their instructional practices. US pre-school teachers in Rous (2004) study reported that their instructional supervisors modelled appropriate techniques, and admitted that such practices were a good source of assistance in dealing with children with special needs. Similarly, Blasé and Blasé (1999) found in the US that those supervisors in their study demonstrated teaching techniques during classroom visits. In Blasé and Blasés study, participants did not consider the

supervisors actions as intrusive, because the latter had already cultivated respectful and trusting relationship with teachers. On the flip side, 71 percent of the teachers in Botswana who participated in Pansiris (2008) study indicated that their supervisors neither gave demonstration lessons nor coached them how to handle certain topics or lessons. Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2006) also found in the US that supervisors in their study never modelled teaching. One participant remarked “headteacher does not model anything”.

2.7 Basic Skills in Instructional Supervision

Okumbe (1999) notes that in order to provide an effective supervisory leadership, supervisors must acquire basic skills which include conceptual skills, human relation skill and technical skills.

2.7.1 Conceptual Skills

This involves the ability to acquire, analyze and interpret information in a logical manner. Supervisors must understand both the internal and external environment in which they operate. They also need to understand the effects of the changes in one or more of those environments on the organization for which they work. They should enhance their supervisory effectiveness by acquiring newer and emerging concepts and techniques in supervision. Through further training and staff seminars the conceptual capacities of supervision can be expanded (Nyamu, 1986).

Supervision is generally defined as overseeing operations or performance of a person or groups (Free dictionary, 2011) Kadushin (1992) identifies three elements to effective human service supervision: Administrative, Education, and Support. Administrative supervision is primarily concerned with effective implementation of

agency procedures and policies. This includes the responsibility of the supervisor to assist employees to work to their best abilities as well as insuring agency requirements are implemented. The Educational function of supervision is related to the development of knowledge, skill, and ability to serve clients. The historic process includes reflection, exploration, and discussion of client interaction (Kadushin, 1992). Lastly, the third element of supervision according to Kadushin (1992) includes Support. Workers are recognized to have job-related stressors which require support. This support is required as part of supervision in order to maintain quality services under duress.

In support of Cogan (1973) and Goldhammers (1969) views, researchers have shown empirically that lesson observation provides supervisors the opportunity to assess teachers' instructional strategies, and also better provides them with the necessary guidance and support for instructional improvement (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2009; Tyagi, 2009). Questions posed and suggestions made during the observation process can serve as guides and prompts to help teachers reflect on their actions, behaviour and performances, and to make changes for improvement. When teachers' reflective behaviour and thought processes are enhanced, they are motivated to implement new ideas, vary their instructional strategies, and respond to student diversity (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). These behavioural changes on the part of teachers are likely to lead to improved student outcomes.

An equally important aspect of supervision advocated by researchers is the post observation conference proposed by Cogan and Goldhammer. Empirical evidence has shown that this strategy provides supervisors the opportunity to provide feedback and

suggestions to teachers about lessons observed (Blase & Blase, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Tyagi, 2009). Feedback that is non-judgemental and/or not characterised by fault-finding has potentially positive effects on teacher motivation, self-esteem, efficacy, and sense of security (Blasé & Blasé; 1999). Feedback focused on classroom behaviour encourages teachers to reflect upon their performances and re-evaluate their strategies to improve student learning. These researchers also believe that suggestions given by supervisors during post-observation meetings strongly enhance teachers reflective behaviour and their thought processes, and also enhance their planning to improve instruction.

Contemporary researchers of supervision have also found benefits in the provision of professional literature to guide teachers' instructional practices (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Tyagi, 2009). Providing materials about instruction can increase teachers' repertoire of knowledge and equip them with new strategies and skills to improve their instructional practices. Demonstrating teaching techniques and providing in-service training for teachers to improve their instructional practices are also considered important aspects of supervision (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Tyagi, 2009).

These researchers have found that teachers tend to learn new ideas about instructional supervision from these programmes. These activities increase teachers' repertoire of knowledge and skills, enhance their reflective behaviour, and foster their sense of creativity and innovation (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Teachers are, therefore, in a better position to plan their lessons well and manage their classrooms effectively, both of which are likely to improve student achievement.

2.7.2 Human Relations Skills

This refers to the ability of the supervisor to understand the teachers and to interact effectively with them. Human relations skills enable the supervisor to act both officially and humanely. A supervisor should be able to effectively link both the organizational and individual goals so that teachers can be milked dry of their professional potentials. The human skills are important for dealing with teachers not only as individuals but also as groups. The human relations skills can be acquired from both training and experience Okumbe (1987). Theorists and empirical researchers consider collegial meeting (where teachers meet and collaboratively discuss and take decisions on instruction) an important aspect of instructional supervision (Bays, 2001; Blase & Blase, 2004; Dufour, 2004; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1993; Sergiovanni, 2009; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). According to these researchers, when teams of teachers meet to analyse and plan instruction together, members gain insight into what is working and what is not. The team discusses new strategies to implement in their classrooms to improve instruction and, eventually, raise student learning. Researchers believe that collegial meeting encourages teacher reflection, creativity, and risk-taking (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Dufour, 2004). Collaboration among teachers and between teachers and their supervisors can help schools become learning communities.

Researchers have also observed empirically that leadership skills like praise, trust and respect, and good inter-personal relationships motivate teachers to perform their duties effectively (Blase & Blase, 2004; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Genuinely praising teachers for demonstrating specific instructional behaviour can increase teachers' motivation, self-esteem, and efficacy. Praise also fosters

teachers reflective behaviour, boosts their morale, and encourages risk-taking and creativity. Good inter-personal relationships among people are likely to result in trust and respect for one another (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). These researchers have found that teachers typically respect and trust supervisors who relate well with them both within instructional hours and other times of the school day. Teachers who trust their supervisors are often willing to confide in their supervisors and approach them for instructional assistance and support. Similarly, when teachers get to know that their supervisors respect them, as well as have trust in them, they are more likely to be willing participants in supervisors observation of their lessons, seek assistance and support from supervisors, and feel secure to try out new strategies. Trusting teachers and respecting their dignity serves as motivation for teachers to embark on activities which will result in improvement in their instructional practices.

Phillipson (2002), Jones (2004) and Adams (2007) each speak to the risk related to current shifts from public to private human service provision, with all the implications of a market driven efficiency focused approach. These authors highlight the new intersections for workers and clients when increased needs are present for clients impacted by growing poverty levels and workers arrive with supervision aimed at improvement of efficiency to benefit the “bottom line” of agency budget limitations. According to Thompson (2006) the established boundaries that separated managers from professionals are permanently blurred toward management, with loss of integrity and independence for supervision as a process for improving practice and providing space for reflection. Increasingly the supervisor bears the legal liability for worker actions and decisions. Given this layered structure of service provision and responsibility, the knowledge, skill and expertise of supervision is critical in the care

of vulnerable clients. This vulnerability requires that leaders in agencies designate resources professionally and ethically in the form of time, education, and workload distribution.

Effective assistance to teachers here will require those in supervisory positions to have extensive knowledge in the areas of collaborative effort, the learning process, and phases of developmental supervision. This is particularly important as teachers redesign the traditional learning environment through emphasis on constructive pedagogy and learning. Creating this new learning perspective should also bring with it awareness and acceptance of the fact that experience plays a major role in guiding the learner's mind. Thus supervisors need to appreciate that at the heart of this exercise lies the fact that teachers need to create an environment of encouragement for their students. Owens (2004) states that new learning requires an environment free from the confines of formality, impersonality and efficiencies currently found in many schools and classrooms. With supervisory assistance teachers can demonstrate that learning how to learn together constitutes a rich new learning experience for their students. Professionally, this can result in teachers needing to experience participation in collective staff endeavours focusing on innovation and experimentation, career fulfillment, and addressing the learning needs of students.

2.7.3 Technical Skills

This is just the understanding and being able to perform effectively the specific process, practices and techniques required of specific jobs in an organization. Although supervisors may not be expected to have all the technical answers, they need an overall knowledge of the functions they supervise and sources of specific

information while the supervisors can seek advice from specialists. They need to have enough technical knowledge in order to make sound judgments.

2.8 Internal and External Supervision

Educational Management in secondary schools involves the application of management principles in designing, developing and effecting resources towards achievement of educational goals. Today, the demand for effective management of schools is rapidly taking centre stage more than ever the world over (Okumbe, 1999). This effectiveness is judged by the extent to which schools acquire the necessary instructional materials and teachers, and how they provide a congenial organizational climate and generally meet the expectations of the society within which they are established (Okumbe, 1999). It is in our schools that education takes place and it is there that the success or failure of the national educational objectives will be determined (Orora, 1997). To achieve this objective, school executives are expected to apply appropriate management skills. The head teacher of any secondary school has a crucial obligation in discharging management duties in the school. Therefore, the overall management of schools rests with the head teacher working with and through the teachers to maximize their capabilities in the profession and achieve the desired educational goals.

The head teachers' visionary and moral contributions are expected to give teachers direction and the ability to perform in school. According to Drucker (1974), such contributions, in the final analysis, define school managers because their leadership positions demand from them knowledge of personnel management among others things. This is vindicated in the case of a school head teacher with the management responsibility of a team of teachers. The head teacher's skills in school management

influences the behaviour of the school in terms of how teachers teach, how much students learn and the overall school performance. This is because the significant proportions of key decisions made within the schools are made with the consent of the head teacher. Teachers play a crucial role in ascertaining whether or not the desired educational results are achieved. However, they expect to be provided with proper conditions for good teaching and learning (Mbiti, 1974). The head teachers have the endowment to create such conditions. Many scholars have attributed, to a large extent, the success of schools to those in the helm of leadership (head teachers). School heads give their institutions images of their potentialities through drive, support and skills to mould the mission, vision and motto statements to an approximate reality. School headteachers have a responsibility of removing administrative constraints that may prevent teachers from maximizing their efforts in rendering services to students.

In the school system, supervision is as antique as the teaching profession and has undergone series of evolution since the colonial era, it is directed towards sustaining and ameliorating the teaching-learning process in the educational system, this is because education plays an essential in the growth and development of any nation socially, politically, economically and this explains why it has country and the entire world. Instructional supervision is the art of over-seeing the teaching-learning process, therefore making sure that the school is administered, managed and leads in an effective manner to achieve the educational objectives The headteacher holds the major position in the programme of instructional improvement through effective and efficient supervision of teachers instructional performance through various supervisory techniques, the headteacher is thus faced with the responsibility of supervising teachers generally to improve their instructional effectiveness make recommendations and also manage both human and material resources towards

achieving the headteacher as the head of the school is the architect of the quality of activities in the school and the quality of academic achievement of students depends on the quality of instruction given by teachers. Thus, it becomes peremptory that headteachers supervisory functions must be adequately to influence teachers instructional performance. This desired expectation in education could be achieved through effective supervision since it creates the awareness of sound education philosophies in teachers Headteachers supervise and monitor the work and behaviour of teachers, in order to improve individual teachers competencies no matter how proficient they are deemed to be and provide students with quality learning.

The duty of ensuring that effective teaching and learning take place lies with the headteacher who employs various instructional performance. Thus, Nnabuo (1996) emphasized that the quality of instruction and the use of supervisory functions of headteachers in schools depend on the extent to which teachers perform their tasks. Effective supervision and the extent to which headteachers carry out their supervisory duties are based on sound principles which serve as a directive to positive actions that are aimed at improving teaching-learning process in the school system. Such principles include the principle of co-operation which ensures the articulation and integration supervisor (headteacher) and the supervisee (teacher). The principle of flexibility calls for innovations as it increases and sustains the quality of teaching and learning. The principle of democracy which encourages good atmosphere of interaction and interrelationship between the supervisor (headteacher) and supervisee (teacher). This principle is consistent with the contention that human beings react more favourably when their opinion is sough. In the school system instructional supervision is concerned with using methods, principles and practices of various techniques to establish, develop and execute the goals, policies, plans and procedures

necessary to achieve educational goals. Supervision therefore is concerned with the provision of professional assistance and guidance to teachers and students geared towards the achievement of effective teaching and learning in the school According to Rettig (2007) supervision provides opportunities for teachers to be groomed through discursive critical study of classroom interaction to carry out their teaching tasks in line with professional codes of conduct. If schools are not supervised adequately, it will have minimal effects on the students and the educational aim may not be achieved, therefore various instructional supervisory techniques should be applied. Many headteachers in the secondary schools ignore the supervision of instruction and this may lead to teachers poor instructional performance in schools. Supervision is thus directed towards sustaining and ameliorating the teaching-learning process by keeping records of teachers and students in schools. The philosophy underlying supervision is that all human beings in the educational system whether students, teachers, headteachers, administrators or supervisors are individuals of worth endowed with unique talents and capabilities. Infact supervision according to National Policy on Education (FRN, 2004) is meant to ensure quality control through regular inspection and continuous monitoring of instructional and educational service. The headteacher oversees the activities of both teaching and non-teaching staff in the school system using various supervisory techniques ensuring that they conform to the generally accepted principles of education. He also sees that high standards are maintained in the school in accordance with laid down rules and regulations. To Ojogwu (2001), supervision creates the awareness of sound education philosophies in teachers and makes them to be aware of educational policies and reforms in schools. Nakpodia (2006) defined supervision as that part of school administration which has

particular pertinence for the appropriateness of instructional expectation (products) of educational programmes.

Furthermore, Akinwumi (2002) sees supervision as all efforts of designated school officials towards providing leadership to teachers and non-teaching staff aiming at the improvement of instruction. It involves the stimulation of instruction. It involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, a selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction methods of teaching and the evaluation of instruction. Emuakpo stated that when the headteacher is effective, the teachers become adequate and competent in the practice of their profession and the students have greater chances of getting the kind of education they need to play their roles in the society.

In conclusion, the headteacher supervises his heads of departments and teachers by checking their scheme of work and lesson notes making sure they go to classes, regularly, checking absenteeism, rewarding hardworking teachers and punishing indolent ones assigning administrative duties to them and encouraging them to do the right things at the right time. He provides the materials for effective discharge of assigned duties and he encourages experimentation. All these are inputs into the quality of the educational systems. This study tested two hypothesis on the relationship between headteachers supervisory strategies and teachers instructional performance. Hypothesis one which stated that there was no significant relationship between headteachers supervisory strategies and teachers instructional performance in terms of teaching materials was rejected. The findings of this study was in accordance with the view of Akiwumi (2002) that instructional materials are indispensable in teaching as they will help teachers perform effectively in their job. Therefore,

adequate teaching depended largely on headteachers supervisory strategies coupled with the availability and usage of teaching aids as they facilitate the understanding of abstract concepts and provide opportunity for the learners to manipulate objects in the classroom.

The result of hypothesis of the second revealed that there was a significant relationship between teachers' instructional performance and students' performance. This study is in line with Rettig (2007) who stated that supervision provides opportunities for teachers to be groomed through discursive critical study of classroom interaction to carry out their teaching tasks in line with professional code of conduct

Of all the major tasks of a school headteacher, none is as sensitive and challenging as the one relating to the supervision of students, school personnel, instructional programmes, school plants and statutory records. Instructional supervision occupies a unique place in the entire education system and it becomes absolutely expedient to give it prominent attention. Quite often, school headteachers show their concern by demanding that the school should teach better than in the past. If quality education is to be given in schools and to improve the standard of education generally, then instructional supervision by the headteachers must be accorded high priority. In the school system, it is the responsibility of the school headteacher to develop and maintain staff competence. In the school setting the instructional supervision activities by the head of the department (HOD) include the following: checking of lesson notes, checking of scheme of work, checking of teachers' punctuality, checking of teachers regularity in class, checking of students' notes, moderation of examination question papers and moderation of making schemes. To carry out these tasks, the HOD must

design supervising techniques and also encourage the staff to exercise their talents when necessary so that in the end, instruction and instructional procedures can be improved.

According to Drucker (1974), such contributions, in the final analysis, define school managers because their leadership positions demand from them knowledge of personnel management among others things. This is vindicated in the case of a school head teacher with the management responsibility of a team of teachers. The head teacher's skills in school management influences the behaviour of the school in terms of how teachers teach, how much students learn and the overall school performance. This is because the significant proportions of key decisions made within the schools are made with the consent of the head teacher. Teachers play a crucial role in ascertaining whether or not the desired educational results are achieved. However, they expect to be provided with proper conditions for good teaching and learning (Mbiti, 1974). The head teachers have the endowment to create such conditions. Many scholars have attributed, to a large extent, the success of schools to those in the helm of leadership (head teachers). School heads give their institutions images of their potentialities through drive, support and skills to mould the mission, vision and motto statements to an approximate reality. School headteachers have a responsibility of removing administrative constraints that may prevent teachers from maximizing their efforts in rendering services to students. It is vital to note that teachers are key players in the school.

According to Fisher (2011), supervision includes all efforts of school headteachers directed to provide leadership to the teachers and other educational workers in the improvement of instruction. Supervision involves the stimulation of professional

growth and development of teachers, selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction, methods of teaching and evaluation of instruction. In any organization, careful planning and effective supervision cannot be over estimated. Educational Management in secondary schools involves the application of management principles in designing, developing and effecting resources towards achievement of educational goals. Today, the demand for effective management of schools is rapidly taking centre stage more than ever the world over (Okumbe, 1999). This effectiveness is judged by the extent to which schools acquire the necessary instructional materials and teachers, and how they provide a congenial organizational climate and generally meet the expectations of the society within which they are established (Okumbe, 1999).

It is in schools that education takes place and it is there that the success or failure of the national educational objectives will be determined (Orora, 1997). To achieve this objective, headteachers are expected to apply appropriate management skills. The head teacher of any secondary school has a crucial obligation in discharging management duties in the school. Therefore, the overall management of schools rests with the head teacher working with and through the teachers to maximize their capabilities in the profession and achieve the desired educational goals. The head teachers' visionary and moral contributions are expected to give teachers direction and the ability to perform in school.

Robinson (1969) pointed out that as a resident supervisor, the head teacher would know about the teachers, students and process in his/her school than an external supervisor. The head teacher is the chief executive in a secondary school. He/she is charged with the responsibility of overseeing that the learning opportunities of

students are provided. Lovell and Wiles (1975) stated that the school was the basic action agency for development activities of learning opportunities for students. These activities can only be developed through instructional supervision. Campbell *et al* (1983) said that principles should devote their time to the development of instructional programmes, visit classrooms to check their implementation of such programmes and that they should confer with teachers after such visits about ways to improve teaching of such programmes.

Nyamu, (1986) in a study of supervisory strategies employed by head teachers in primary schools in Northern Division of Nairobi observed that supervisory methods that head teachers used were inadequate since they were limited to checking of teachers' professional records. He suggested that head teachers should be equipped in supervision methods in order to improve teachers' productivity. Olembo (1992) identified major functions of supervisors such as working closely with teachers to establish problem and needs of students, building strong groups, morale and security effective teamwork among teachers. This defines headteacher as a team builder who is fully in control of the school programmes. Learning is a life long pursuit and therefore educators need to be continuously educated in order to improve quality of education hence high student performance. The Republic of Kenya (1988) recognized the important roles of the head teacher as an instructional supervisor when it recommended the training of head teachers as first line inspectors of their schools. The Republic of Kenya (1999) also stated that heads of institutions are facilitators in the implementation of the total curriculum. It argued that the head teachers set the tone of the school's effectiveness in teaching and learning hence good performance.

The headteacher also has a role of co-ordinating and directing his or her subordinates. Coordination is the process where the effort of a group synchronized so that the desired goal is obtained. The responsibility for coordination in a secondary school rests mainly on the head teachers. It involves seeing that all the work is effectively done in harmony towards the common objectives of the school. Directing involves guidance towards improved performance and motivating the teachers to work effectively towards achieving the goals Appleby (1984). Okumbe (1988) in his research on effectiveness of supervision and inspection highlighted the role of the head teachers to include; observation of classes holding conference with teachers, developing syllabi, curriculum guide and purposeful units of instruction and lesson plans. He is expected to help in appraising teaching effectiveness and follows up improvement of classroom instruction. He is expected to observe classes and hold conferences with teachers about possible ways they may strengthen their teaching. Supervisory leadership should encourage innovation among teachers and enlarge their repertoire of teaching strategies and techniques.

Griffins (1994) agreed with Campbell on head teachers' visits to the classrooms by noting that

> *"They need to observe their teachers formally on a regular basis, make notes in the classroom and work with a clear commitment to discussing their observations with a teacher promptly. In order to provide opportunities for in-school professional development. They need to monitor the standards being achieved by their students. They should develop and implement strategies for the systematic monitoring of the work of their schools in order to evaluate standards of achievements, curriculum strengths and weaknesses and the quality of teaching and learning.*

However, results from research and experience is that most head teachers do not perform the roles as expected especially classroom observation. If the roles stated above are not carried out as expected students performance will be below because teachers will not have carried out instructional activities as expected. The importance of school teachers and their profession is mainly based on the fact that, the success or failures of Kenya's education system depend on them Olembo (1975). It is thus evident that the headteacher's responsibilities in instructional supervision are divergent and they involve all areas and programmes in the schools.

2.9 Challenges Faced by Head Teachers in Instructional Supervision

The headteacher is the central focus in all the things that happen in the institution. The headteacher has to oversee all aspects regarding to curriculum and instruction, teaching staff personnel, physical facilities and materials resources and student personnel. The headteacher has to develop the school's facilities bearing in mind where to house the educational programme, the population to be served by the facility and ensure that financial resources are readily available by the school expansion Olembo, *et al* (1992). Inyiega (1997) observed that resources and facilities that a school would need for the achievement of a schools' mission are qualified teaching staff, support staff, physical facilities, textbooks, laboratories, library facilities, furniture, stores and enough playgrounds. There is acute shortage of physical facilities and equipment in any secondary schools, insufficient educational facilities, equipment and supplies lead to overuse of some of the facilities that are available in the schools. Most schools lack enough classrooms which lead to overcrowding of students during learning.

Olembo *et al* (1992) contented that the head teacher must ensure that all the physical facilities in the school are available and well maintained. Commission of inquiry into Education system (1999) received views from members of the public that the standards of educational attainments which were falling were attributed to various problems such as inadequate and unsustainable physical facilities, equipments, learning and teaching materials and inappropriately trained teachers as well as overloaded curriculum.

A study carried out by Mbaabu (1993) revealed that lack of physical facilities, materials, equipment and tools was a major problem that head teachers were faced with in Kenya. Lack of adequate resources hinder the fulfillment of curriculum needs in the respective secondary schools with student increase in the number of students in secondary schools (implementation of the free secondary education from January 2008). The head teachers' role of management of physical facilities becomes complex and hence a problem.

Olembo *et al* (1992) stated that the head teacher integrates the personnel functions with the instruction and to coordinate and supervise the various personnel services. He /she should communicate with the pupils and as part of his supervisory role, attempt to influence and control their behaviour. The unbecoming behaviour of students such as drug abuse and truancy cases is a challenge to the head teachers' supervisory roles. Students' unrest is being the order of the day in these days. They protest to things such as poor quality uniform, substandard meals and mismanagement of the respective institutions by the head teachers Amoro (1996) – Kenya Times). Poor staffing frequent transfer of teachers, lack of equipment and funds as well as

interference in management by sponsors and politicians contribute to such strikes and riots in secondary schools (Baraza and Papchaga, Daily Nation).

Students' strikes in Kenya are common features of deviant behaviour. The consequences of such behaviour include incidences of rape, violence, disobedience to school authority, drug addiction and damage to school property for example St. Kizito tragedy in Meru District in 1991 which led to the death of nineteen female students and several others injured. Strikes hamper learning and teaching processes causing financial difficulties to schools and parents and creating bad relationship between, teachers, students and parents. They disrupt teaching programmes making it difficult for the teachers to cover the syllabus and effectively prepare candidates for national examinations. Effective management of students require that a comprehensive effort is made by the management to ensure that the student activities and operations in organizations are effectively and efficiently administered. This calls for an educational manager who is properly grounded in the techniques of effective educational management. For an educational management to be an effective students' manager, he/she must not only be conversant with the concepts and newer perspectives in educational management, but also be a constant operator of the management techniques (Okumbe, 2001).

Every organization has people who perform different tasks. All these people come form diverse backgrounds and thus there is no way they are going to view things and situations in the same way. Bringing people and their differences towards a common goal is what managing people is all about. A leader's most important and most difficult job is managing people. This is posing a serious challenge in instructional supervision in secondary school. Teachers are important stakeholders within the

school community. They form a fundamental resource in an educational organization. The professional role of a teacher is a demanding one and stretches from classroom teaching, curriculum development, examination process pedagogical material preparation and evaluation (Okumbe, 2001).

Human beings are the single most important resource any institution can have and as such must be protected, motivated, encouraged, supported and prudently utilized to achieve the desired school objectives of doing well in National Examination. Eshiwani (1993) attributes poor results to “arm chair” head teachers who do not know what goes on in the classroom. Olembo *et al* (1992) contents that attempts on the part of the head teacher to motivate stimulate and influence teachers as well as supervision of the work done by the teachers and involvement in assisting teachers to evaluate their teaching performance. Head teachers experience teaching staff shortage, staff discipline cases, staff motivation issues and evaluation of teachers in their respective secondary schools which hinder realization of curriculum demands.

2.10 Summary of Literature Review

An attempt to briefly review the historical development of instructional supervision was made. It has been indicated that instructional supervisory practices and trends have evolved from autocratic manner to current democratic way. Instructional supervision has been seen as the process of bringing about improvement. In instruction by working with people and things to maintain or change the school operations in ways that directly influence the teaching process employed to promote students learning. Specific roles of head teachers such as assisting teachers, coordinating and directing consultation with teachers and evaluation of instructional supervisor has been tackled. Perception of teachers towards the role of headteachers

as an instructional supervision has been tackled. Supervisory skills needed for effective instructional supervision for example technical skills, conceptual skills, human relation skills and managerial challenges faced by the headteachers in their roles as instructed supervisors have been looked at.

The ever changing school curriculum poses problems to the headteachers. Physical facilities and materials are inadequate and unsustainable hindering fulfillment of curriculum requirements. The unbecoming behaviour of students in terms of students strikes riots, drug abuse and illicit relationships are a great challenge to headteachers. Teaching staff shortages, evaluation of teachers' staff disciplined cases and teacher motivation issues frustrate headteachers efforts in meeting instructional supervisory roles. It was therefore evident that instructional supervision skills used by the supervisor, age and gender of the supervisor, the professional qualification of the supervisor, the experience and the supervisory activities greatly affects the performance of students at KCSE in Machakos County.

2.11 Theoretical Framework of the Study

The study was based on Rationale of supervision theory of development (Robinson, 1969). According to this theory, supervision of professionals in education is necessary to fulfill a number of functions. Robinson points out that supervision of professionals in education is designed to make the job of teaching easier. Activities such as ensuring that there are adequate number of teachers', selection of teachers based on merit, checking that teachers have instructional documents such as schemes of work, lesson plans, records of work, organizing for regular student assessment and evaluation, staff development and promoting of community relations.

Robinson says that the job of teaching is easier where teachers are motivated. This can be done by rewarding of teachers, certificates of recognition, involving them in decisions that affect their work and provision of teaching materials. Another fact of this theory is that supervision of classroom instruction is necessary to ensure that efforts of all teachers are coordinated. Robinson suggests that this can be done through proper time scheduling and clustering of students according to their grades. An important concept developed by Robinson is that of a "working team". For him, much of the co-ordination of their effort would come from the "team" rather than from super ordinates in the authority structure.

Programme development is an aspect of Robinson's theory which he attributed to be important in supervision this includes professional growth of teachers. Programmes designed for professional growth of teachers should result in improvement of instruction. The headteacher should organize for in-service courses for his/her teachers depending on the need of the school. This would help the teachers keep abreast with the dynamics of curriculum and acquire new knowledge and practice that comes along with the changes. Instructional supervision centres on classroom instruction and its rationale is to strength instructional skills and improve performance. Thus one of the major components of instructional supervision is improvement of instruction. For instructional supervision to improve, the supervisor (Headteacher) "must carryout the following activities, classroom instruction observation and providing feedback, staff development, staff and student motivation, provision of instructional materials and resources and create an environment ideal for effective curriculum implementation.

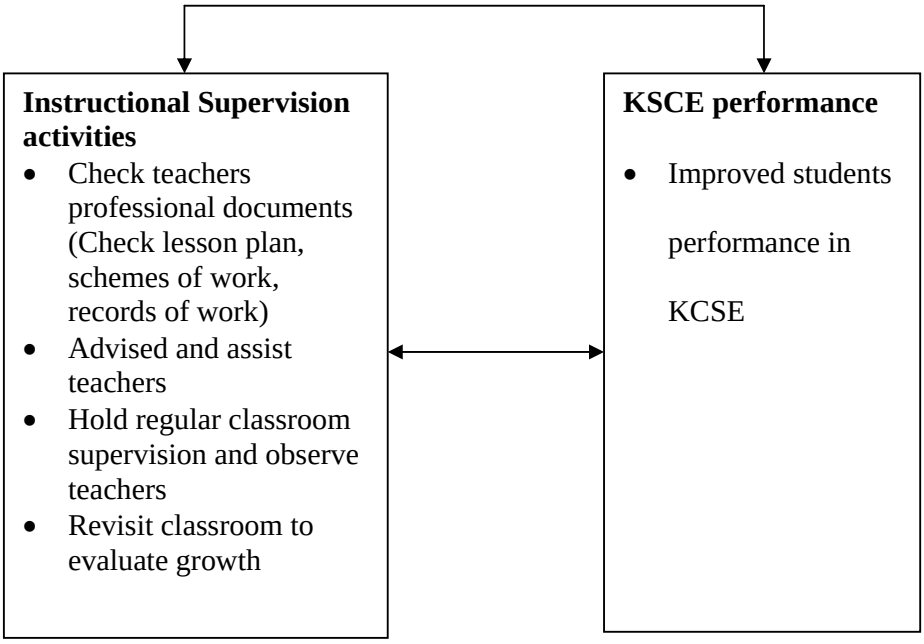
One strength of this theory is that it offers guidelines to school supervisors and administrators on what duties are expected of them. It organizes the position held by the headteachers as supervisors in schools and even further singles out the roles expected of him/her in instructional supervision which is the focus of this study. Its weaknesses is that it will tend to fail if there is no strong, continual commitment from top management. It necessitates considerable training of school headteachers to be able to apply this theory. At the same time it does not offer suggestions' on how to handle challenges that may arise from time to time. This is especially so considering that headteachers have other administrative duties in schools apart from instructional supervision.

2.12 Conceptual Framework of the Study

The study has been conceptualized based on the variables that was to be used in the study. In this conceptual framework it was to be conceptualized that high academic achievement was being influenced by effective internal supervision. The focus was on the headteachers' instructional supervisory skills which were central independent variables. Effective internal supervision depends on the headteacher and eventually determines the kind of results. The headteachers' internal supervision led to effective teaching resulting into high academic achievement which is the independent variables. Internal supervision included instructional supervisory skills of the headteacher, regular checking of teachers' internal professional records, regular class supervision and regular revising of the classroom to evaluate growth. The conceptual model was useful in the study in various ways, first the study was based on the premise that instructional supervision plays a significant role in determining academic performance.

Second, instructional supervision encompasses a variety of tasks and roles whose effective operationalisation positively affects academic achievement. Figure 1.1 presents the conceptual framework for the study.

Figure 2.1: A model of the instructional role of the head teacher in academic achievement



Independent Variables **Dependent Variables**

Source: Robinson (1969)

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights on the research design, target population, sampling procedures and sample size, research instruments which was used in data collection, validation of instruments, validity and reliability of the instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis techniques.

3.2 Research Design

The research adopted a correlational study research design. This research design describes quantitative terms the degree to which variables are related. It involves collecting data in order to determine whether and to what degree a relationship exists between two or more quantifiable variables Mugenda and Mugenda (1999). Correlational study research design was appropriate for the study since it established if a relationship exists between instructional supervision and student performance in K.C.S.E in Machakos County. The method used for the study was ex-post facto. In ex-post facto method, the researcher starts with observation of the dependent variables in retrospect for their possible relationships and the effect of the independent variables. The design was recommended for this study because it involved studying conditions or events that had already occurred. The dependent variable (KSCE performance) had already occurred while the factors influencing the level of performance in KCSE could not be manipulated (Independent variables).

3.3 Target Population

The study targeted all public secondary school headteachers in Machakos County. According to Machakos County Education Director, there are 270 public secondary schools. Therefore the target population was 270 headteachers.

3.4 Sampling Procedure and Sample size

According to Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) a sample is a small group obtained from the accessible population. This sub-group is carefully selected so as to be representative to the whole population.

To obtain a representative sample of schools, systematic sampling procedure was used. The schools in the eight sub-counties were arranged randomly. By list every n^{th} item (n^{th} = 7) was selected from the list. A total of 41 schools were selected which translated to 15% (Best and Khan, 2004). The entire sampling procedure yielded a total of 41 subjects for the study (41 headteachers).

3.5 Research Instruments

The necessary data was collected using questionnaires. The questionnaires were preferred for their suitability to this study. They were suitable because they allowed the researcher to reach a larger sample within a limited time. They also ensured confidentiality and this gathered more cordial and objective replies. The questionnaires were prepared for headteachers. Borge *et al* , (1993) observed that questionnaires are often used to collect the basic descriptive information from a large sample.

3.5.1 Headteachers Questionnaire (Appendix II)

Questionnaires were designed with questions and statements related to the objectives of the study. The questionnaires consisted of 3 sections. Section A solicited for personal data, section B, captured educational and professional training and preparation and section C dealt with supervisory activities they carryout.

3.6 Validation of Instruments

The validity and reliability of the instruments were done as they were used in the actual study.

3.6.1 Validity of Instruments

Kothari (2005) defines validity as a criteria which indicates the degree to which an instrument measures what is supposed to measure. It was necessary to ascertain the validity of the instruments used to collect data so that the research findings could be reliable. In order to ascertain content and face validity, the questionnaires were presented to two lecturers in the department of educational management and curriculum instruction at Maasai Mara University who are experts in the area for scrutiny and advice. The contents and impressions of the instruments were improved based on the experts advice and comments. The questionnaires items were then constructed in a way that they related to the questions.

3.6.2 Instrument Reliability

Grinnel (1993) observed that reliability measures the degree of accuracy in the measurements as instrument provides. It ensures that instrument generate similar data when used by independent researchers to ensure reliability of the questionnaires. The researcher piloted the instruments in one randomly selected public secondary school in Machakos County before the actual study. The school was not included in the main study. Questionnaires were subjected to pilot study through test-retest method. One headteacher participated in the piloting of instruments. The answered instruments were scored manually. The same instruments were administered to the same subject after a period of two weeks and responses between the answers obtained in the first

and second tests was made. The procedure to be used in pre-testing the instruments was identical to those that were used in the actual study. To establish the co-efficient of the internal consistency of the research instruments, split half method was used. The results were analyzed and reliability co-efficient was calculated using Spearman Brown formula.

$$a = \frac{2r}{1+r}$$

Where a = reliability coefficient

r = actual correlation between halves of the items.

"r" was calculated using the Pearson product moment formula.

$$r = \frac{\Sigma(X_1 - \bar{X})(Y_1 - \bar{Y})}{\Sigma\sqrt{(X_1 - \bar{X})^2 \Sigma(Y_1 - Y)^2}}$$

Where X stood for scores from first half and Y stood for scores from the second half of the pilot sample. $\overline{X}$ and $\overline{Y}$ were their respective means. Pearson Product Moment formula for test-retest was employed to compute the correlation co-efficiency in order to establish the extent to which the content of the questionnaires were consistent in eliciting the same responses every time the instruments were administered. The reliability yielded a coefficient of 0.7289 and this was deemed to be reliable (Orodho, 2008).

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

A letter was obtained from the Department of Curriculum and Educational Management to help the researcher get a research permit from the National Council for Science and Technology. The District Education Officers (DEOs) and District Commissioners (DCs) of various districts in Machakos County were contacted before

the commencement of the study. The headteachers of the schools who participated in the study were informed about the study. The researcher also requested the offices to issue her with an introduction letter to the schools. The questionnaires were administered personally during piloting and the actual study to allow the respondents to have ample time to study and respond appropriately. The researcher and the research assistants visited the respondents on the agreed dates and then issued the questionnaires personally to the headteachers. The researcher and the research assistants collected the instruments after they were completely filled.

3.8 Data Analysis Techniques

Data analysis was facilitated by use of SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) computer package. The research questions elicited both qualitative and quantitative data. Quantitative data analysis was analyzed using descriptive statistics and presented in tables, charts and percentages.

The level of significance for the study was set out at 0.05 level of confidence. The statistical significance of the difference between sample means with respect to specific variables were tested using two sample t-test. The relationship between the dependent and independent variables (student performance and instructional supervisory skills) was tested using Pearson Product Moment and chi-square test and a coefficient of 0.7289 was realized.

Table 3.1 Data Analysis Technique

NULL HYPOTHESES	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES	DEPENDENT VARIABLES	DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES
HO_1 There is no significant relationship between the instructional supervisory skills used by an headteacher and students academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.	Instructional supervisory skills	Students academic performance	Descriptive statistics two sample t-test, Pearson and Chi square test.
HO_2 There is no significant relationship between the age and gender of the instructional supervisor and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.	Age and gender of the instructional supervisor	Students academic performance	Descriptive statistics two sample t-test, Pearson and Chi square test.
HO_3 There is no significant relationship between professional qualification of the instructional supervisor and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.	Professional qualification of instructional supervisor	Students academic performance	Descriptive statistics two sample t-test, Pearson and Chi square test.
HO_4 There is no significant relationship between experience of the instructional supervisor and students' academic performance and KCSE in Machakos County.	Experience of the instructional supervisor	Students academic performance	Descriptive statistics two sample t-test, Pearson and Chi square test.
HO_5 There is no significant relationship between the supervisory activities used by the headteacher and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County	Supervisory activities	Students academic performance	Descriptive statistics two sample t-test, Pearson and Chi square test.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an analysis and discussions of the respondent's characteristics and tests of the study hypotheses. The characteristics of the respondents were given using descriptive statistics, tabulations and also t-tests. Descriptive statistics used included frequencies, number of respondents, and percentages. The tabulations were basically bar graphs and the associated proportions utilized in generating the graphs. The t-tests were performed based on the dependent variable (the students' academic performance) to establish the mean difference between two categories in a binary variable (for example gender, if the headteacher had received supervisory skills or not). The study hypotheses were tested using Pearson chi-square test.

4.2 Questionnaire Return Rate

Questionnaire return is the proportion of the questionnaires returned after they have been issued to the respondents. In this study 41 headteachers responded to the items.

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

This section provided the details for the descriptive statistics for the variables; age, professional qualifications, and experience in terms of the number of years as a headteacher all disaggregated by gender.

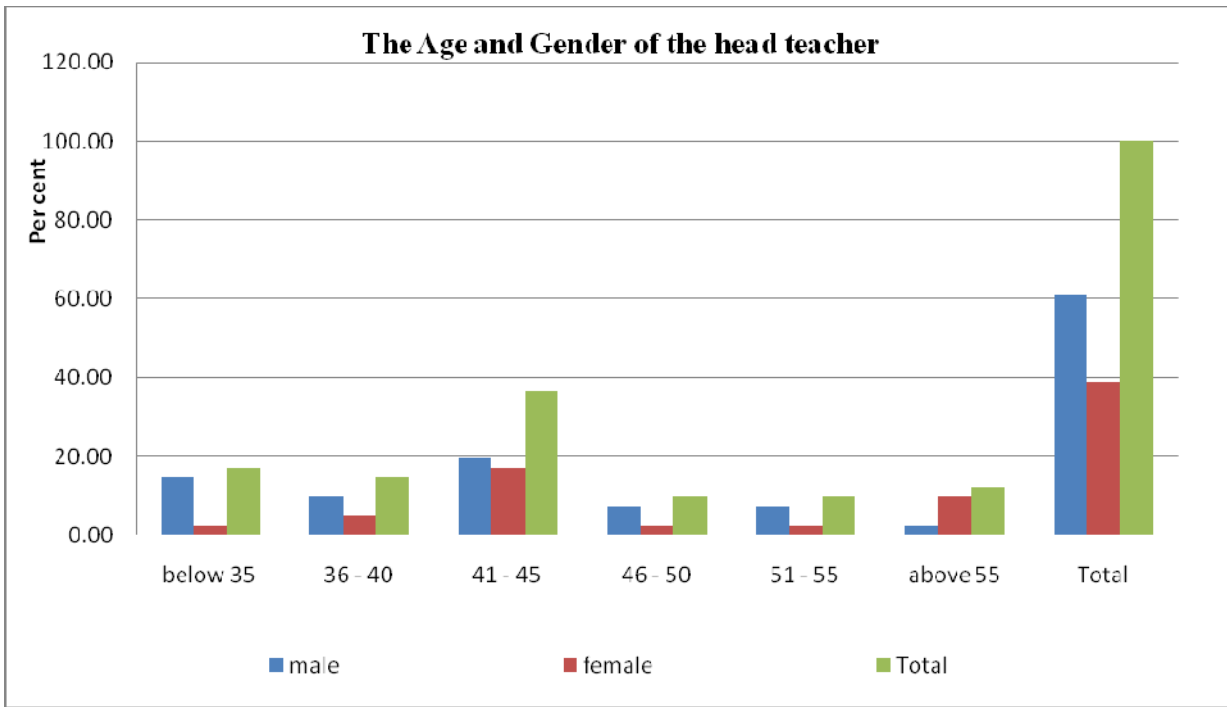


Figure 4.1: The age and gender of the head teacher

From the table on age and gender of the head teacher, it was clear that most (60.98 per cent) of the headteachers covered by the survey were males, with the rest (39.02 per cent) being females. This showed that the one-third requirement for either gender to be in administrative position had been met in regard to headship of secondary schools within Machakos County. Further disaggregation of the data by age revealed that more than one-third (36.59 per cent) were in the age bracket of 41-45 years, and almost the same per cent of males and females were within that age bracket. Only 17.07 per cent of the headteachers were aged below 35 years, with 14.63 per cent being males. This showed that the number of 35 years in the headship positions was below one-fifth, with female being under-represented in school headship.

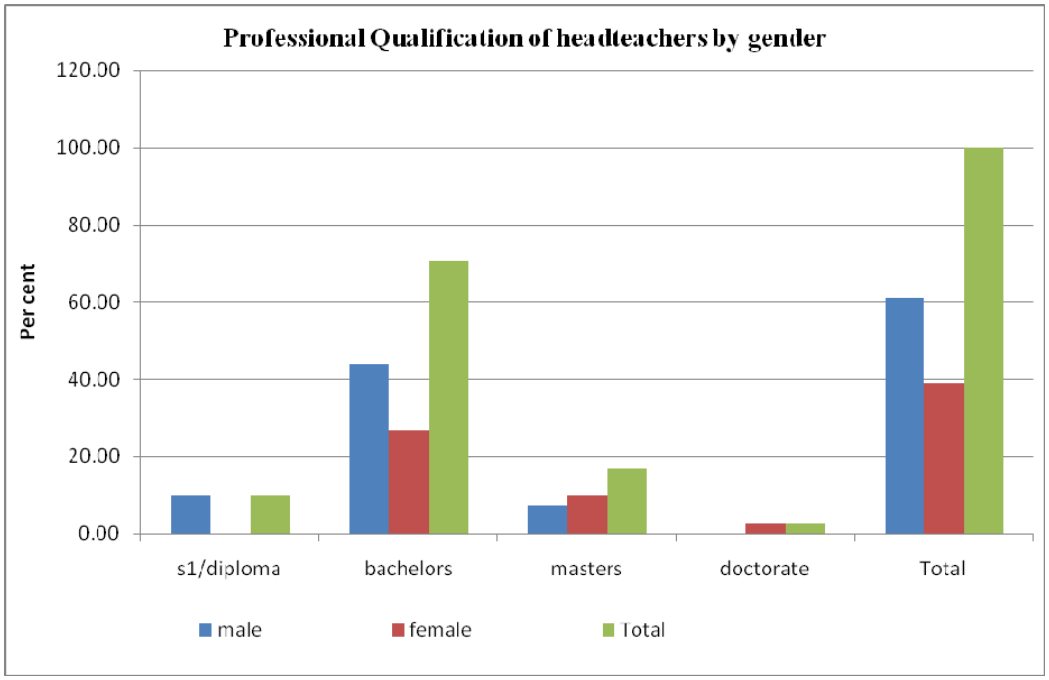


Figure 4. 2: Professional qualification of head teachers by gender

The tabulation of head teachers by professional qualification and gender revealed that most (nine in every 10) of the headteachers had a minimum of a bachelors degree, with seven out of 10 having attained a bachelors degree, 17.07 per cent had a masters degree while 2.44 per cent possessed a doctorate. It is worth noting that none of the male head teachers possessed a doctorate, though also none of the female headteachers surveyed had the lowest educational level attained being diploma while 9.76 per cent male head teachers had attained a diploma level.

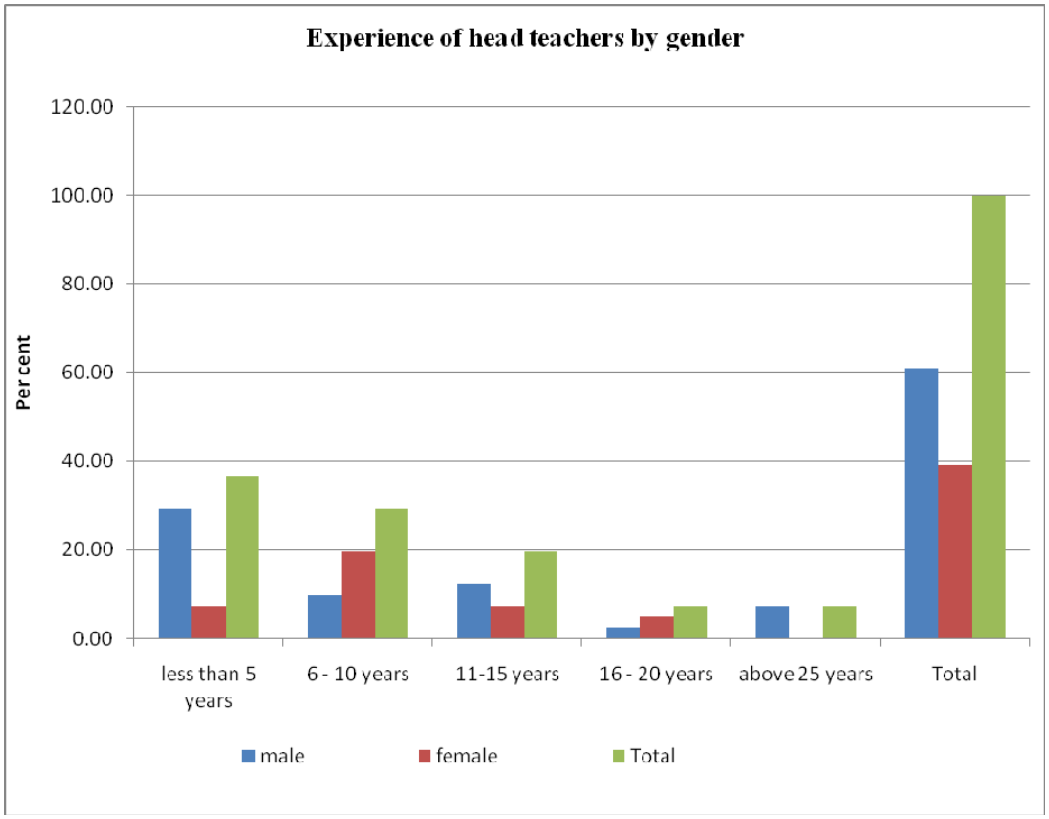


Figure 4. 3: Experience of headteachers by gender

An analysis of the experience of headteachers exhibited a decreasing trend whereby the proportion of headteachers with fewer years of experience was greater than those in the subsequent more number of years in the headship position. However, after disaggregating the data by gender there was an oscillatory trend for the male teachers, whereas the female teachers showed a decreasing trend save for those female headteachers with less than five years of experience in that administrative position. Moreover, none of the female head teachers had an experience of more than 25 years as head teachers. This in itself may indicate that over 25 years the policy for allowing and motivating female teachers to administrative (specifically headship) positions had not yet been developed, in addition by then the gender mainstreaming policies and advocates was neither instituted into the countries policy documents nor implemented.

4.4 Tests of Study Hypotheses

$H0_1$: There is no significant relationship between the instructional supervisory skills used by the head teacher and students' academic performance at KCSE in Machakos County.

In regards to supervisory skills in possession of the headteachers and their supervisory activities, the headteacher's information provided the best responses, since they could objectively assess their supervisory skills. Hence, for this section of analysis and in testing anything regarding supervisory skills and administrative activities, the study relied upon the information provided by the headteachers. This was with an exception of whether a headteacher had received training in instructional supervision or/and human relations which could adequately be captured by relying on the headteacher's response.

Table 4.1: Two-sample t-test with equal variances for students' academic performance by headteachers training in instructional supervision

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Yes	29	3.586207	0.23021	1.239736	3.114636	4.057777
No	12	3.583333	0.31282	1.083625	2.894831	4.271836
Combined	41	3.585366	0.18471	1.182701	3.21206	3.958672
diff		0.002874	0.41113		-0.82871	0.834454

Diff = mean (yes) - mean (no) t = 0.0070

Ho: diff = 0 degrees of freedom = 39

Ha: diff < 0 Ha: diff! = 0 Ha: diff> 0

Pr (T < t) = 0.5028 Pr (T >t) = 0.9945 Pr (T > t) = 0.4972

A two sample t-test with equal variance showed that schools with head teachers who said they had received training in instructional supervision, scored an average of 3.59 points while those without the training had a score of 3.58 points, which was almost the same and even from the credible t-test for the difference, it was evident that the difference (0.003) was statistically equal to zero. Hence students' academic performance was the same irrespective of whether the head teacher possessed training in instructional supervision or not.

Table 4.2: Two-sample t-test with equal variances for students' academic performance by headteachers training in human relations

Group	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	Std. Dev.	[95% Conf.	Interval]
Yes	26	3.576923	0.22987	1.172112	3.103497	4.050349
No	15	3.6	0.320714	1.242118	2.912138	4.287862
Combined	41	3.585366	0.184707	1.182701	3.21206	3.958672
diff		-0.02308	0.38834		-0.80857	0.762415

Diff = mean (yes) - mean (no) t = -0.0594

Ho: diff = 0 degrees of freedom = 39

Ha: diff < 0 Ha: diff != 0 Ha: diff > 0

Pr(T < t) = 0.4765 Pr(T > t)= 0.9529 Pr(T > t) = 0.5235

Similar findings emanated from a two-sample t-test for students academic performance in relation to whether the school head teacher had received training in human relations or not. The statistical test showed that the mean was the same for the two categories and hence the performance did not change with the head teachers training on human relations. Other trainings seemed not to be adding much to

headteachers in terms of supervisory skills because already they had been trained and the training received in colleges was enough both instructional supervision and in human relations.

Table 4.3: Headteacher's response on the instructional supervisory skills

Instructional supervisory skills used		Yes (1.0)	No (0.0)	Index
Are you able to acquire information pertaining instructional supervision	Frequency	34	7	
	Per cent	83.83	16.17	83.83
Are you able to analyze the information acquired during instructional supervision	Frequency	33	8	
	Per cent	80.86	19.14	80.86
Are you able to interpret the information acquired during supervision	Frequency	34	7	
	Per cent	81.85	18.15	81.85
Do you understand the internal school environment that affects instructional supervision	Frequency	34	7	
	Per cent	83.83	16.17	83.83
Do you understand the external school environment that affects instructional supervision	Frequency	34	7	
	Per cent	82.84	17.16	82.84
Are you able to interact with teachers in the school	Frequency	32	9	
	Per cent	79.21	20.79	79.21
Do you discuss his/her observations with you after supervision	Frequency	32	9	
	Per cent	78.88	21.12	78.88
Are you good in relating with other teachers	Frequency	31	10	
	Per cent	74.92	25.08	74.92
Are you able to apply supervisory skills during	Frequency	31	10	

supervision	Per cent	76.57	23.43	76.57
Are you able to make sound judgments' on supervision	Frequency	33	8	
	Per cent	79.54	20.46	79.54
Average percentage score		**80.23**	**19.77**	**80.23**

From the frequencies on the headteachers instructional supervisory skills, about four in every five headteacher concurred that they had the skills and used them in discharging their duties.

Table 4.4: Pearson chi-square test on association between head teachers supervisory skills and students academic performance

Supervisory Skills	**2 (D-)**	**3 (D)**	**4 (D+)**	**5 (C-)**	**6 (C)**	**7(C+)**	**Total**
Are you able to acquire information pertaining instructional supervision?	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Are you able to analyze the information acquired during instructional supervision?	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Are you able to interpret the information acquired during supervision?	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Are you able to understand the internal school environment that affects instructional supervision?	0	0	0	0	0	0	1

Are you able to understand the external school environment that affects instructional supervision?	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Are you able to interact with teachers in the school?	0	1	1	0	0	0	3
Do you discuss observations with your staff after supervision?	1	1	1	0	0	0	2
Are you good in relating with other teachers?	1	1	0	0	1	0	2
Are you able to apply supervisory skills during supervision?	1	2	0	0	0	0	4
Are you able to make sound judgments' on supervision?	1	1	1	1	0	0	5
Does supervision improve examination results in your school?	1	10	5	2	1	0	21
Total	6	17	10	5	2	1	41

Pearson chi^2 (50) = 95.7197 Pr = 0.000

In testing for the existence of association between headteachers supervisory skills and students academic performance, the study utilized a chi square test. In the case of the weighted index for instructional supervisory skills used by the head teacher, a p-value of 0.000 was realized. This indicated that the null hypothesis of no association was

rejected, implying that the two variables were related. Specifically, students' academic performance depended upon the weighted score of the head teachers instructional supervisory skills. Hence, as the weighted index score increased this led to improvement in students' academic performance.

Table 4.5: Pearson chi-square test for the association between students' academic performance and the head teachers' ability to acquire information pertaining to instructional supervision

Are you able to acquire information pertaining instructional supervision?	2 (D-)	3 (D)	4 (D+)	5 (C-)	6 (C)	7 (C+)	Total
no	1	2	1	1	0	1	7
yes	5	15	9	4	2	0	34
Total	6	17	10	5	2	1	41

Pearson chi^2 (5) = 12.5088 Pr = 0.028

A chi-square test for the association between students' academic performance and whether the headteacher was able to acquire information pertaining to instructional supervision produced a p-value of 0.028. This meant that the null hypothesis of no association was rejected at the five per cent level of significance and hence students' academic performance depended on the head teachers' ability to acquire information pertaining instructional supervision.

Table 4.6: Pearson chi square test for the association between students' academic performance and the headteachers' ability to analyze the information acquired during instructional supervision

Are you able to analyze the information acquired during instructional supervision?	2 (D-)	3 (D)	4 (D+)	5 (C-)	6 (C)	7 (C+)	Total
no	2	2	2	1	0	0	8
yes	4	15	8	4	2	1	33
Total	6	17	10	5	2	1	41

Pearson chi^2 (5) = 9.2153 Pr = 0.101

A chi square test for the association produced a p-value of 0.101 showing that the null hypothesis of no association could not be rejected at the five per cent level of significance. This implied that students academic performance did not depend on the head teachers' ability to analyze the information acquired during instructional supervision.

Table 4.7: Pearson chi square test for the association between students' academic performance and head teachers ability to interpret the information acquired during supervision.

Are you able to interpret the information acquired during supervision?	2 (D-)	3 (D)	4 (D+)	5 (C-)	6 (C)	7 (C+)	Total
no	2	2	2	1	0	0	7
yes	4	15	8	4	2	1	34
Total	6	17	10	5	2	1	41

Pearson chi^2 (5) = 8.5870 Pr = 0.127

The test for the association between students' academic performance and head teachers ability to interpret the information acquired during supervision revealed a p-value of 0.127, showing that the null hypothesis of independence cannot be rejected at the five per cent level of significance. This implied that students' academic performance did not depend on head teachers' ability to interpret the information acquired during supervision.

Table 4.8: Pearson chi square test for the association between students' academic performance and the head teachers understanding of the internal school environment

Do you understand the internal school environment that affects instructional supervision?	2 (D-)	3 (D)	4 (D+)	5 (C-)	6 (C)	7 (C+)	Total
no	1	2	2	2	0	0	7
yes	5	15	8	3	2	1	34
Total	6	17	10	5	2	1	41

Pearson chi^2 (5) = 7.1889 Pr = 0.207

In testing for the association between the two variables using the chi square test, a p-value of 0.207 was realized, which showed that the null hypothesis of no association could not be rejected at the five per cent level of significance. This implied that students' academic performance did not depend on whether the head teacher understood the internal school environment that affected instructional supervision.

Table 4.9: Pearson chi-square test for the association between students' academic performance and the head teachers understanding of the external school environment

Do you understand the external school environment that affects instructional supervision?	2 (D-)	3 (D)	4 (D+)	5 (C-)	6 (C)	7 (C+)	Total
no	1	2	2	2	0	0	7
yes	5	15	8	3	2	1	34
Total	6	17	10	5	2	1	41

Pearson chi^2 (5) = 16.3294 Pr = 0.006

A chi-square test for the association between students' academic performance and whether the head teacher understood the external school environment that affected