Instructional Supervision by Principals: An Appraisal from the Perspective of Teachers Job Performance in Some Selected Secondary Schools in Boyo Division

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INTRODUCTION:

Education is an indispensable catalyst that strongly influences the development and economic fortunes of a nation and the quality of life of its people. The training of citizens as a country’s human capital takes place in educational institutions (Mbua, 2003). One widely approved aim of education is to equip students with the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and competences that enable them to provide useful services to themselves and to the entire society.

What makes a school good or bad depends on the judgment that is made about its resources and activities. Inspection and supervision across the world have been considered a process of assessing the quality and performance of schools by internal and external evaluations. In recent years, many countries have re-examined their inspection and supervision systems in the face of demands that schools should be made more transparently accountable for the outcomes and standards that they achieve and, therefore, responsible for continuously assessing their performance. The priority of most countries has been to improve the quality of schools and the student’s achievement (De Grauwe, 2001) since learning outcomes depend largely on the quality of education being offered (Barro, 2006). De Grauwe (2001) puts it that national authorities rely so strongly on the school supervision system to monitor both the quality of schools and key measures of its success.

Instructional supervision occupies a very important position in the educational system of a country for checking quality control, quality assurance, enforcing adherence to standard of teaching and instruction, which are to be achieved for the betterment of students, parents, government, and professional development. The complexities, systemic workings and dynamic nature of education necessitates that there should be a selected and special instructional supervision within the secondary school system that is internally managed within the control and authority of the school principal.

Blasé (1999) premise that effective instructional leadership should impact positively on teacher motivation, satisfaction, self-esteem efficacy, teacher’s sense of security and their feelings of support. Glickman (1990) had supported this view by saying that:

Supervisory goal is to improve classroom and school supervision within the secondary school system that is more thoughtful, and more cohesive in their work...The
supervisor provides an enabling environment for teachers to explore their own physical and mental capabilities. He should be one who teaches truths about teaching to teachers. He helps when needed, protects the rights of others to self-discovery and encounters the teacher as a person of full importance.

Sergiovanni (2001) emphasized that effective leaders (principals) have a better understanding of how the world of schooling and leadership work. The head of an institution, as a leader, must understand that improvement on instruction is a goal-oriented direction that combines the school-wide needs with the personal growth needs of those involved. The school-based instructional supervision finds gaps between the competence, and performance of teachers by continuous formative and summative evaluations and their level of professional support and development by the head of the institutions leads to improvement in the teaching-learning process and a higher academic achievement of the students. Supervision is emerging as an ongoing process to ensure continuous reflection, dialogue, analysis, and planning for improving teaching. Supervision can therefore be seen as a force that shapes an organization into a productive unit (Glickman, 1990).

We may not really know the impact which performance of instructional supervision by principals has on teacher’s job performance in secondary schools in Boyo Division.

Statement of the problem
According to Mbua (2003), Principals are appointed from a pool of graduate teachers with teaching qualifications and experiences but without specialized preparation as educational administrators. The National Education Forum in Cameroon (1995) points out that the problem of education in Cameroon is inadequate trained personnel in the Cameroon Educational System. Most secondary school principals are not trained as school administrators and consequently do not possess adequate competences for instructional supervision in their schools (Ndongko, 1989).

The task of maintaining an effective machinery of a functional school system in Cameroon in general and in North-West Region in particular is one that demands a great deal of attention on the part of principals. The need for dedicated principals who are effective to encourage staff productivity cannot be over-emphasized. This may be due to political sentiments, which seemed to influence. Teacher appointments to administrative positions at the time of the National Forum was fairly chaotic and could be described with a series of negative adjectives: opportunistic, unfair, tribalistic, incoherent, bought, sold and so on (Tambo, 2003). This has accounted for a drop in the quality of students’ performance in public examinations such as the GCE, though an increase in the number of successes or percentage pass. The performance of students in secondary schools has been a source of great concern to stakeholders in the educational sector especially when considering the huge sums parents spend on the education of their children just to receive results that are not commensurate to the spending on children’s education. Also, an increase in educational wastage in terms of class repetition and school dropout has been a major concern. The challenge here is whether the principals are really doing their job. The public and other stakeholders argue that high student performance rate in examination is a standard for effective school. However, relevant qualification, experience and competencies should be considered when appointing principals.

In spite of the potential contributions instructional supervision can make towards the strengthening of performance, literature search reveals that little has been done to investigate the extent of supervision of instruction in secondary school principals in Boyo Division. This is the contribution this study focuses on.

Objective of the study
The following four specific objectives shall guide the study:
To investigate the impact of instructional supervision on teachers’ job performance.

BACKGROUND
Cesaire (1948) cited in MacOjong (2008) states that many educators today agree that the shortest road to the future is through the past. Inspection was the dominant method for administering schools. Its nature was authoritative, autocratic, and unscientific. In the beginning of the 20th Century, the concept of inspection was modified and came to be known as supervision. The term supervisor has its roots in Latin, where it means “looks over”.

Teachers for the most parts were seen by the 19th century supervisors as inept, that is, unskilled and ineffective. Bolin and Panaritis (1992) puts it that “teachers (mostly females and disenfranchised) were seen as a bedraggled troop-incompetent and backward in outlook”. Most teachers perceive supervision as inspectional, rather than a helping function. School supervision has come to be the main instrument of facilitating and ensuring quality improvement in schools.

Supervision gained in stature and authority in the early 20th century as it is seen to be as inspection, social efficiency, democracy, scientific, leadership, clinical, developmental and collegial. Many efforts have been made to extricate supervision from bureaucratic heritage. Cohn and Rossmillier (1987) and Brookover & Lezotte (1979), noted that the literature on effective schools tends to agree on the point that a strong, consistent and inspired leadership is an essential ingredient of effective schools.

Shifting the focus of instruction from teaching to learning, forming collaborative structures and processes for schools to work together and improve instruction; and ensuring that professional development is ongoing and focused towards school goals are among the key tasks that leaders in professional learning communities should practice (Lunenburg & Irby, 2006). According to Fullan (2010), Lunenburg (2003) and Marzano & Water (2010), school principals can accomplish this by focusing on learning, encouraging collaboration, using data to improve learning, providing support and aligning curriculum, instruction and assessment. Glickman has therefore reshaped supervisory behaviour by redefining supervision. He then invites supervisors to work with teachers in ways that will help teachers become the best people they can become, help teachers devise approaches to the world of information and curriculum content that will assure students development and student learning and student growth, and to help teachers become more sensitive, more caring, and more helpful to the students that they teach. Supervisors can help teachers become these kinds of people, not because government mandates particular programs or specific
Supervision is therefore any programme which helps teachers achieve more skills on qualitative and quantitative instructional delivery in classrooms (Nwaogu, 1980). Payne (1875) stated emphatically that “teachers must be held responsible for work performed in the classroom and that the supervisor, as expert inspector, would oversee and ensure harmony and efficiency”.

The ultimate goal of supervision is to improve instruction and student learning. McQuarrie and Wood (1991) state that “the primary purpose of supervision is to help and support teachers as they adapt, adopt and refine the instructional process they are trying to implement in their classrooms”. Some researchers believe that supervision provides a mechanism for teachers and supervisors to increase their understanding of the teaching-learning process through collective inquiry with other professionals (Nolan & Francis, 1992). Musaazi (1982) notes that achieving the purpose of supervision depends on the skills and efficiency of the supervisor in working with teachers. Neagley and Evans (1980) add that in order to achieve this, it requires a high level of leadership skills from supervisors.

Burke & Krey (2005) define supervision as instructional leadership that relates perspectives to behaviour, focuses on processes, contribute to and support organizational actions, coordinate interactions, provides for improvement and maintenance of instructional program and assesses goal achievement. Glickman, Gordon and Ross Gordon (2004) suggested that supervisors should perform the following roles:

- Providing personal development by providing ongoing contact with the individual teacher to observe and assist him/her in classroom instruction.
- Ensuring professional development by providing the learning opportunities that are supported by the school system.
- Providing group development through gathering together teachers to make decisions on mutual instructional concerns.
- Providing support to curriculum development through the revision and modification of content, plans and materials of classroom instruction.

It is imperative to distinguish between supervision and inspection. Both processes aim at checking the work of subordinates. Inspection is more outdated. It is aimed at evaluating the work of the teacher and it is focused on fault finding and putting punitive measures on defaulters. On the other hand, supervision is a modern concept with the aim of helping teachers improve on their work that is, becoming better teachers especially in their capacity to deliver quality instructions to the students. The term supervision is derived from the word “super video” meaning to oversee (Adepoju, 1998). It is interaction between at least two persons for the improvement of an activity. It is also a combination or integration of processes, procedures and conditions that are consciously designed to advance the work effectiveness of individuals or groups. According to Igwe (2001), supervision in a school system implies the process of ensuring that polices, principles, rules, regulations and methods prescribed for purposes of implementation and achieving the objectives for education are effectively carried out. Supervision involves the use of expert knowledge and experiences to oversee evaluate and coordinate the process of improving teaching and learning in schools.

Principals (supervisors) as school heads need to provide support to teachers, they have to be involved in the implementation of instructional programs by seeing what teachers are doing in the classrooms with the students. The principal oversees the activities of teachers and other workers in the school system to ensure that they conform to the generally accepted principles and practices of education. It becomes imperative that principals’ supervisory behaviour must be adequately positioned for effectiveness and efficiency to influence teachers in their job task.

According to Glickman (1990), three prerequisites that can facilitate collective instructional improvement for school success are knowledge, interpersonal skills and technical skills. To him supervisors have certain tasks at their disposal that enable teachers to evaluate and modify instruction. These supervisory tasks that have such potentials to affect teacher development include direct assistance, curriculum development, staff development, group development and action research. These tasks are expected to bring together organizational goals and teachers’ needs into a single fluid entity to improve student learning. For successful schools, education is a collective rather than an individual enterprise. Glickman describes it as “a cause beyond oneself”. This means that teachers see themselves as part of a larger enterprise as complementing and working with each other to educate students. The supervisory beliefs (philosophies) of supervisors are also vital as it looks at supervision as either being directive, collaborative or non-directive supervision.

Onasanya (2005) outlined seven principles for effective supervision. They include healthy environment, staff orientation, guidance and staff training, immediate recognition of good work, constructive criticisms, opportunity for improvement, and motivation and encouragement. These views have been strongly supported by English (2008) and Northouse (2010) who say principals must stimulate an environment in which new information and practices are eagerly incorporated into the system. According to Smylie (2010), high performing teams will accomplish four deferent things which are:

- They will clarify exactly what students should know and be able to do as a result of each unit of instruction.
- They will design curriculum and share instructional strategies to achieve those outcomes.
They will develop valid assessment strategies that measure how well students are performing. Then they will analyse those results and work together to come up with new ideas for improving those results.

Focusing on instructional supervision should be the principals’ utmost strategy to help teachers shift their focus from what they are teaching to what students are learning. The role of principals is to help the school maintain a focus on why it exists and that is to help students learn (Blasé, Blasé and Phillips, 2010; Smylie, 2010).

It has been observed that the training teachers receive from teacher training institutions is not enough to make them professionally proficient and effective, so the use of instructional supervision techniques becomes imperative to supplement their professional experiences and on the other hand, improve school performance. Principals of secondary schools are not only leaders but are administrators and as a fact of education policy, they have a potentially high influence on behaviour and output of the workers (teachers) placed under them. Whatever it takes, principals must continue to strive to meet leadership goals like that expressed by Governor Bill Clinton of Arkansas. He said “…strong leader create strong school….(they) have a vision…..they translate its vision into goals…..they create a school climate that supports these goals; and they monitor progress”.

Good teacher training and experience would place the prospective school administrator in a position to better appraise the realities of the educational system such as teaching, pedagogic trends, curriculum and students’ needs. Supervision of instruction is intended to send a powerful message to the teachers that what they are doing is very important, tough, and critical for the community as a whole. Teachers are at the forefront and supervisors are in the background providing the necessary support, knowledge, skills that enable teachers to succeed.

Cameroon takes interest in the development of man power (human capital) so as to measure up with world buoyant economic nations (Cameroon Vision 2035). According to Harbison (1973), a country which is unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and to utilize them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else. Tambo (2003) states that the educational policy in Cameroon has emphasized the extension of education up to the entire population, the forging of national unity and man power development for economic, social and political needs of the city. According to the Sector Wide Approach Document (2006), the 1961 Addis-Ababa Conference on Education in Africa, in its recommendation on economy, stated that “teaching in a good condition must be a productive investment which contributes to economic growth”. In this respect education is considered the nerve centre of the country.

The Cameroonian educational system, born out of a double Anglo-French heritage is varied and multifaced. In spite of this diversity, the supervision of the Cameroonian educational system is done by the state (government). By way of legislation or regulation, the state, defines the system of education; decides on the programme contents and textbooks to used; fixes the creation, opening, functioning and financing modalities of both schools and private training institutions; decides on the systems and evaluation modalities of pupils and students, organizes all national official examinations, and draws up the academic calendar for the entire country; controls private training schools and institutions.

Although the length of time at the secondary for both subsystems is 7 years, each subsystem is segmented differently into sub-cycles (5 years for the first cycle and 2 years for the second cycle in the Anglophone subsystem; 4 years for the first cycle and 3 years for the second cycle in the Francophone subsystem). The implementation of the 1998 Law on Orientation enabled the harmonization of the length of the cycles in both subsystems. Technical Education is divided into two cycles of 4 and 3 years respectively. Post-Primary Education is in charge of taking care of a number of pupils from the primary for two years (i.e. the SAR-SM). The BEPC marks the end of the first cycle in the Francophone subsystem while the General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level (GCE O/L) marks that in the Anglophone subsystem. On the other hand, the Baccalaureate marks the end of the second cycle in the Francophone subsystem while the General Certificate of Education Advanced Level (GCEA/L) marks that of the Anglophone sub system.

Secondary schools today are the key cornerstones for development because it is at this level that students acquire the requirements to improve intellectual flexibility and technical know-how to handle life situations. Cameroon education system keeps facing pressure. Schools are stressing due to student massification which entails an increase in the demand for school administrators. Cases of school wastage such as students dropping out of school and class repetition had been on a rise. This has increased government attention on education since the mid-1990s, evidenced by the 1995 National Education Forum held in Yaoundé - Cameroon. The 1995 Education Forum in Cameroon brought a landmark to the system as compared to the 1910 conference where the Germans issued the first education ordinance to control education in the whole colonial territory (Shu, 2000). The Forum was “a consultative body aimed at making proposals for the formulation of a new educational policy for Cameroon (Ndongko, 2000). The 1995 Forum gave rise to the 1998 Education law and other related policy such as the special status for Teachers (Decree No. 2000/359 of 5th December 2000), the organization of government schools and appointment of school administrative personnel (Decree No. 2001/041 of 19th February 2001) and school syllabus. This decree also includes the respective functions and roles of the school heads such as principals, vice principals, discipline masters, etc.

One major document that supports the way schools are to be managed by school administrators is the “Handbook for Heads of Secondary and High Schools (MINEDUC, 1996). This handbook was conceived and compiled by the then Minister of Education, Dr. Robert Mbella Mbappe, to help both the new and the old principals. It was to assist Heads of Secondary Schools and their collaborators in carrying out their duties, functions, and hence, increasing efficiency and rigour.
In 1997 on the occasion of the in-country workshop on the training of Head Teachers Trainers, jointly sponsored by the Commonwealth and the Ministry of National Education, Dr. Robert Mbella in his opening speech stressed that good school administration brings better discipline, better results, better management of scarce resources and better return on the enormous investment that parents and the state put in education. The public and other stakeholders argue that high student performance rate in examination is a standard for effective school.

Cameroon is one of the countries in Africa that seriously lacks trained school administrators. Chapman and Mulken (2003) in the World Bank Report on Secondary Education in Africa assert that principals in many parts of Africa have little or no formal preparation to effectively run schools. They conclude that, the central challenge of the near future would be to strengthen the capacity of principals to meet future challenges. Hart and Bredeson (1996) states that, principal leadership functions of planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating and controlling continue to be reflected in contemporary conceptualization of the work of principals elaborated in text books, reforms, and administrator preparation programme circular. A good example in Cameroon is the Handbook for Heads of secondary Schools (MINEDUC, 1996).

Law No. 98/004 of 14th April 1998 Section 2 in Cameroon states that Education shall be the top priority of the nation. Part III, Chapter 1, and Section 27; says “the head of an educational establishment shall be responsible in the maintaining of order in their establishments”. Vision 2035 from the President of the Republic, H.E. Paul Biya, says that in order to improve youth employability, it is urgent to increase in secondary school and higher education. This entails increasing in the number of school administrators to manage the schools. In order to achieve such ambition, bold actions are needed to ensure early guidance and counselling of students and use techniques for knowledge, communication and further training. The Sector Wide Approach Draft document (2005) states that the key is to strengthen teacher quality as part of a comprehensive strategy towards efforts aimed at improving the quality of educational services.

Schools exist to help students learn and one of the ways to ensure this happen is to help those who work with students at various levels to become better practitioners, to be the best they can be, more knowledgeable, more sensitive to the needs of different learners, more thoughtful, more resourceful, more flexible, more creative and more intelligent human beings. For these qualities to be achieved, well trained school administrators are needed to play a vital role for school improvement. Training is effective only if it has a demonstrable payoff and is transferred to the job. According to Newsstrom and Bittel (2002), training puts one in a favourable light; it wins the confidence and the cooperation of your workers in attaining organizational goals.

Tasks of supervision of instruction
Staff Development
Staff development has gained increased attention in both research and resource allocation across the nations. The term staff development many times referred to as professional development is used interchangeably with in-service training though there is a slight distinction. Staff development is the total learning experiences available to a professional that are both directly and indirectly related to his or her work. On the other hand, in-service training comprises the scientific learning experiences, sanctioned and supported by the instructional goal of the school (Orlich, 1989). Hence in-service training is a subcomponent of staff development though this study shall use it interchangeably. Staff development has the explicit purpose of updating and renewing teachers’ knowledge and technical skills for enhancing their efficiency. USAID (2011) supports this view by saying that the goal of in-service professional development is to improve the knowledge, skills, and commitments of teachers so that they are more effective in planning lessons, teaching, assessing students’ learning, and undertaking other responsibilities in the school community. Achieving this goal is critical because the teacher’s role is one of the most important factors contributing to high-quality education and successful student learning. Teaching, being creative and individualistic requires periodic rejuvenation of teacher’s attributes and upgrading of their technical know-how. Meaningful in-service education could be one way of maintaining at least the minimum level of efficiency in teachers. In-service education is often considered as a continuation of pre-service education.

According to Mizell (2010), professional development means a formal process success such as a conference, seminar, or workshop; collaborative learning among members of a work team; or a course at a college or university. It can also occur in informal context such as discussions among colleagues, independent reading and research, observation of a colleague’s work or other learning from a peer. This enhances teachers understanding and skills, enabling him or her to get ‘better equipped’ and thereby improve the quality of performance. They must have the capability to cater for different needs of teachers working under different conditions, facing particular problems and with varying degrees of technical ‘wearing out’. These needs are best analyze by Maslow in his hierarchy of needs where physiological needs (e.g. food, shelter) need to be meet before higher order needs. College and university programmes cannot provide the extensive range of learning experiences necessary for graduates to become effective public-school educators. They learn through experience over time. It is then that they gain skills to be effective in their task, role and responsibilities. This justifies the need for greater periodicity of in-service education that will greatly build the professional skills (Glickman, 1990).

Gardner (1994) contends that the most common form of in-service teacher education is that which provides an opportunity to teachers to update, refresh, and improve and try out new knowledge and skills in specially created situations such as workshops and seminars. To be effective, staff or professional development requires thoughtful planning followed by careful implementation with feedback to ensure its responds to teachers learning needs. It becomes effective when teachers improve on instruction or cause school administrators to become better school leaders (Mizell, 2010). It should be noted that expensive staff development does not guarantee it will be more effective; staff development on the cheap will almost have little or no impact (Jacob & Lefgren, 2002). What matters most is how it
is planned and implemented. Mizell (2010) adds that the professional development can be assessed through techniques such as surveys, text, observation, videos, recording and interviews. Glickman et al. (1998) opines that staff development can be meaningful especially when it leads to teacher renewal and instructional improvement in two ways:

- Teachers should have a smorgasbord (range) of learning opportunities to support their pursuit of their own personal and professional carrier goals.
- Teachers as part of a school should together define, learn and implement skills, knowledge and programmes that achieve common educational goals.

According to Mizell (2010), staff or professional development yields three levels of results.

- Educators learn new knowledge and skills because of their participation.
- Educators use what they learn to improve teaching and leadership.
- Students learning and achievement increase because educators use what they learned in professional development.

Teachers differ according to awareness, informational, personnel, management, consequences, collaboration and refocusing news. Teachers also vary from concrete to abstract in their thinking about particular in-service topics. Even experienced teachers confront great challenges each year, including changes in subject content, new instructional methods, advances in technology, changed laws and procedures and students leaning needs.

According to Mizell (2010), principals who are instructional leaders often choose to participate in professional development designed primarily for teachers so that they can support its outcomes as well as help develop their specific roles and responsibilities. If administrators (principals) become better leaders and teachers more effective and apply what they learn so that students achieve at higher levels, professional development is worth the cost.

Teachers and principals, who routinely develop their own skills, model for students that learning is important and sustainable programs.

Kedzior and Fifield (2004) supports that effective staff development is a prolonged facet of classroom instruction that is integrated, logical and on-going and incorporates experiences that are consistent with teachers’ goals; aligned with standards, assessments, other reform initiatives, and beset by the best research evidences. Elmore (2002) described it as a sustained focus time that is consistent with best practices.

**Direct Assistance**

Direct assistance is one of the crucial elements of a successful school (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2010). Direct assistance provides one-on-one support which are necessary to promote the attainment of knowledge, interpersonal skills and technical skills needed for efficient classroom instruction and management. Principals can support teachers through direct assistance such as classroom observation, discussing curriculum and destruction, analyzing student work samples and reflecting on videotaped practices. This support can also be indirect by selecting and assigning mentors and mentor team, arranging times for new teachers to meet with mentors or subject area colleagues and facilitates professional development opportunities. According to Glickman (1998), direct assistance help teacher confide, improve, and move with each other towards collective action.

Direct assistance is the provision of personal, ongoing contact with the individual teacher to observe and assist in classroom instruction (Glickman, 2010). Principals can make directive assistance effective by providing a clear focus (vision) on what the directions of the school are and have school-wide goals established. These goals can be met by providing professional development that would meet the needs of the school and the teachers.

Clinical supervision and peer coaching stand as the two current and most popular forms of direct assistance. McNair (2012) and Glickman (1998) supports that clinical supervision has five stages: (a) planning conference or preconference with teacher, (b) observation of classroom, (c) analysing and interpreting observation and determining conference approach, (d) post conferencing with teacher and (d) a critique of previous four steps. Administrators can also aid by communicating effectively through classroom observations and providing feedback that would assist the teachers in enhancing student learning.
Curriculum development is the revision and modification of the content, plans, and materials of classroom instruction (Glickman, 2010). It is really important that teachers participate in the development of the school's curriculum. First of all, when all the teachers in a particular department work together on a curriculum, then everyone involved with it has ownership of how and what is taught in each classroom. By having this, all classes at the same level but taught by different teachers will be teaching the same information, same performance assessments and exams. This will make each classroom valid. Second, everyone in a department will understand why certain concepts are taught in particular classes and at certain levels. For example, lower level science classes have to have certain content before going to higher-level classes. The Canadian encyclopedia (2009) quotes:

The primary focus of a curriculum is on what is on what is to be taught and when, leaving to the teaching profession decisions as to how this should be done. In practice, however, there is no clear distinction between curriculum content and methodology – how a topic is taught often determines what is being taught.

School administrators can effectively implement Curriculum Development by getting all teachers in each department involved in the development or the revising of a given curriculum. All teachers from all grades need to be involved in the development of a curriculum, as well as teachers that would teach similar concepts. The Canadian encyclopedia (2009) states,

Many attempts to change education by revising the authorized curriculum has not been successful – mandated innovations are not always implemented extensively or effectively in classrooms. In fact, because of widespread reliance on textbooks as a basic teaching resource, textbooks often constitute the de facto content of the curriculum, thus giving publishers a powerful role in curriculum development.

Curriculum according to Kelly, Edward and Blendin (1992) is a body of knowledge, content and or subject. It is a statement of procedural principles in the light of which teachers will seek to support and promote the education process. It consists of statement of the step-by-step, short term objectives by which aims are to be attained.

According to Gwynn (1974), principals should always consider the type and degree of curriculum implementation. Teachers should have problem-solving meetings for purposes of curriculum adaptation. He holds that teacher will implement curriculum successfully if they have been involved in its development and can adapt it to their classroom situation. Olembo et al., (1992) state that in curriculum instruction the main supervisory activities include determining goals and purposes, designing and developing courses, organizing learning activities, promoting changes and improvement in curriculum and instruction.

Teachers will implement curriculum successfully if they have been involved in its development and can adapt it to their specific classroom and school situation. Curriculum, well treated as a task for school action, is a powerful, relatively no
threatening intervention for enhancing collective thought and action about instruction.
Group Development

Learning the skills of working with groups to solve instructional problems is a critical task of supervision. When principals bring teachers together to deal with pressing mutual problems, they have the right to expect results. Unity, common purpose and involvement are very important in developing a cause beyond oneself as related to school success. According to Glickman (1990), a leader needs to be conscious of the elements of a successful group, select clear procedures for group decision making, be able to deal with dysfunctional behaviour, use conflict to generate helpful information, and determine appropriate leadership style. According to Bales (1953) as cited in Glickman (1998) there are two dimensions of an effective professional group development:

- **The task dimension:** This represents the content and purpose of the group meeting. This involves deciding on a new textbook, writing a new instructional schedule, coordinating a particular curriculum, or preparing an in-service plan.

- **The person dimension:** This comprises the interpersonal process and the satisfaction teachers derive from working with each other. Concern and sensitivity to teachers’ feeling create a climate of desiring to meet with each other from week to week to accomplish and implement the group task.

Group development is the gathering of teachers to make decisions on mutual instructional concern (Glickman, 2010). It is a skilful leader that can help a group run efficiently, and effectively. A leader also needs to beware of what makes a successful group: they need to have a clear view of the elements that help with its success. They must have procedures in place for group decision-making, and be able to deal with any problems that may arrive. Unfortunately, since being part of a group is such an everyday occurrence in professional, personal, and social life, we seldom stop to think about what makes some groups work well and others fail. It is unrealistic for the leader of a new group to expect the group to proceed naturally in a professional manner (Glickman, 2010).

Personalities of teachers can be different in a group as well as their methods of teaching in the classroom. When a number of teachers are grouped together, it is very unlikely that everyone within the group will work well with each other. As a teacher work together, the principal needs to practice skills that enable the group to become more cohesive, responsible and autonomous. Eventually the principal would hope to lessen his or her own control and influence so that the group becomes a wise and autonomous body.

Action Research

Action research in education is a study conducted by colleagues (teachers) in a school setting with the intention of having results that will improve instruction (Glickman, 1998). It is a core model of professional development that promotes collaborative inquiry, reflection and dialogue. It is a process that allows educators to learn about their own instructional practices and to continue to monitor improvement in student learning (Rawlinson & Little, 2004). Action research implies that the practitioners are the researchers. According to Guskey (2002), the idea of action research is that educational problems and issues are best identified and investigated where the action is at the classroom and at the school level. By integrating research into these settings and engaging those who work at this level in research activities, findings can be applied immediately and problems solved more quickly.

Action research provides teachers and principals with an opportunity to better understand what is happening in their school. Creating the need for research and establishing an environment for conducting classroom action research is the responsibility of a school principal. Hence, a principal’s support of any new initiative is crucial in order for the practice to be sustained and impact student learning (Ralph & Little, 2005).

Emily Calhoun (1993) described three approaches to action research - *individual teacher research, collective action research and school-wide action research.* Even though the environments are different, the process of action research remains the same. This process uses data to identify classroom and school problems, creates and implements a plan of action, collects and analyses data and share the results and make instructional decisions to improve students learning continuously. Teachers engaged in action research depend more on themselves as decision makers and gain more confidence in what they believe about curriculum and instruction (Strickland, 1989). The value of action research is determined primarily by the extent to which finding lead to improvement in the practices of the people engaged in the research.

According to Glenda *et al* (2002) action research is based on the following assumptions:

- Teachers and administrators work best on problems they have identified for themselves.
- Teachers and administrators become more effective when encouraged to examine and assess their own work and then consider ways of working differently.
- Teachers and administrators help each other by working collaboratively.
- Working with colleagues helps teachers and administrators in their professional development.

For continuous learning to be experienced mutual trust and collaboration among educators should be the critical components of a school that seeks to embark on problem-solving instructional dilemmas through action research. For an effective action research, the principal must establish the environment in which research is viewed as a systematic process that affords greater opportunity for each teacher to direct his or her own professional growth. The emphasis is on application and its impact on identified measurable outcomes. Professional gains from action research according to Glenda *et al* (2012) include the following:

- Better knowledge about how to help students learn in schools.
- A way to evaluate the effectiveness of innovative strategies.
- A more professional stance.
- More enjoyment in staff works life.
- An ability to know whether what you are doing helps students or not.
- Better communication among educational professionals in your school.
Action research is focused on the need to improve instruction. The objectivity and rigor of research methodology can be questioned by classical researcher, but the benefit of the process for students and teachers seem to outweigh the loss of experimental purity.

**Supervisory approaches**

Teachers have different backgrounds; express different strengths and abilities in abstract thinking and different levels of concern for others. Hence supervisors must employ a framework that most appropriately matches the strategies to the context and the unique characteristics of the teacher (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Glickman et al, 1998; Wiles & Bondi, 1996). Principal’s belief about teachers affects how they view and treat teachers under supervision. Glickman present three approaches or styles to supervision (supervisory beliefs). They include the following:

- **Directive supervision**
- **Non-directive supervision**
- **Collaborative supervision**

**Directive supervision**

Direct behaviour revolves around expertise, confidence, credibility and limiting choice (Greiner, 1967; Glickman, 1990) of the supervisor believed to outweighs teacher’s own information, experience and capabilities. According to Glickman, the supervisor should be confident that he knows what best practice will work in helping the teacher because when he chooses to provide any practice, he or she becomes accountable for the results whether positive or negative. The teacher should also believe that the supervisor possesses a source of wisdom that he/she does not have and should be able to make judgment as to which practices or combination are feasible and realistic to bring a positive outcome. It is used when:

- the teacher believes the credibility of the supervisor and also when the supervisor is willing to take responsibility,
- teacher feels confuse and experienced is lost on the way, and
- when teacher does not possess accurate knowledge in an area

Directive supervision occurs when the supervisor takes primary responsibility for a decision. The decision is made by the supervisor who then gives the teacher a timeframe as to when the task should be completed. According to Gebhard (1984), the role of the supervisor is to direct and inform the teacher, model teaching behaviours and evaluate the teacher’s mastery of defined behaviours.

However, one problem with direct supervision is that it can make teachers see themselves as inferior to the supervisor and this can lower their self-esteem. Another consequence of direct supervision is that it can be threatening because of fear of disapproval from the supervisors. In other words, threat can cause teachers to become defensive towards the supervisor’s judgment. Another problem with direct supervision is that prescriptive approach forces teachers to comply with what the supervisor thinks they should do. In a case where people are coerced, controlled, directed and threatened, individual initiatives may be shifted and self-motivation may be discouraged. It can lead to ineffectiveness on the part of the teachers hence giving rise to a poor teaching and learning process hence the need for supervision.

Direct supervision puts the supervisor as the major source of information, goal articulation, and suggested practices. However, the principal is careful to solicit teacher input as he or she revises and refines the choices; ultimately, the teacher is asked to make a judgment as to which practices or combinations are feasible and realistic.

**Collaborative supervision**

Collaborative supervision presents outcomes that springs from mutual plan of action between the principal and the teacher. It consists of the following: clarifying, listening, reflecting, presenting, problem solving, encouraging, standardizing, and negotiating. Collaborative supervision is premised on participation. 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. Hence, during a collaborative approach, all parties are encouraged to share their opinions about the problem and how to solve it. The goal is to reach a decision by treating everyone as equals. Gebhard (1984) posits that within collaborative model, the supervisor’s role is to work with teachers and not direct them. The supervisor actively participates with the teacher in any decision that is made and attempts to establish a sharing relationship.

Glickman et al. (2004) 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 try to contribute and are willing to implement a plan they have been part of.

Collegiality and collaboration are very important in modern schools. Fullan and Hargreaves (1996) observed that teachers in schools with collaborative cultures have greater confidence and commitment to improvement and professional growth. Interns, beginning teachers, and individuals who are new to a school or teaching assignment may require a considerable amount of support from the more experienced colleagues (STF, 2002). These colleagues have a professional and ethical responsibility to lend appropriate types of support upon request.

Partnerships, collegial and collaborative relationships, coaching and mentoring are names that are also given to the supervision process in which learning, growing, and changing are the mutual focus for supervisors and teachers (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). Such approaches are developed for teachers and supervisors to be better equipped to change the culture of teaching from a hierarchical, isolating atmosphere to collaborative culture that promotes learning and growth for everyone involved (Arredondo et al, 1995).

According to Muleti (2005), collaborative supervision is consultative. Decisions are made through consultation where people are committed to the idea or service which they have helped to frame. In such a case they will exercise self-control, self-direction and be motivated. All these promote job interest and encourage both staff and students to set their own targets and find the best way of achieving them.

**Approaches to Collaborative Supervision**

Three approaches can be identified that facilitates collaborative supervision. They include peer coaching, cognitive coaching and mentoring.
Peer coaching
According to Glatthorn (1990), peer coaching seemed to be the most intensive process among all cooperative development models. The coaching approach uses cohorts and is often coupled with clinical supervision. Peer coaching provides opportunities to refine teaching skills through immediate feedback and through experimentation with alternate strategies as a result of the informal evaluation (Bowman & McCormick, 2000). During peer coaching, beginning teachers collaborate to develop a shared language, forums to test new ideas about teaching, and ultimately expertise (Glickman et al., 1998). Coaching emphasizes professional action by peers and is usually used along with clinical supervision. Teachers participate in small-group sessions, where they ask questions to clarify their perception on teaching and supervision. The value of analysis and feedback, which enhance the supervision process (Starling & Baker, 2000) can not be underestimated. Ebmeier and Nicklaus (1999) stated that peer coaching programs reduced the time burden on principals of both regular and collaborative supervision while increasing collaboration among teachers.

Cognitive coaching
Similar to peer coaching is the cognitive coaching approach (Costa & Garmston, 1994). The difference between these two approaches, as Showers and Joyce (1996) puts it, is that peer coaching focuses on innovations in curriculum and instruction, whereas cognitive coaching aims more at improving existing practices. Cognitive coaching may pair teacher with teacher, teacher with supervisor, or supervisor with supervisor, but when two educators in similar roles or positions come together, the process is called peer supervision (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000).

Cognitive coaching can help teachers expand their repertoire of teaching styles and exploring untapped resources within themselves. The cognitive coaching process is built on a foundation of trust which is fundamental to success (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). Teachers have the opportunity to learn more about themselves in the teaching-learning process. As the result of the coaching process, teachers are encouraged to reach autonomy – the ability to self-monitor, self-analyze, and self-evaluate – which is another ultimate goal of cognitive coaching (Garmston et al., 1993). At the same time, teachers have to realize their interdependence as a part of a greater whole within their school.

Mentoring
Over the past decade, reports and related research have come out advocating the enhanced use of mentoring to assist novice teachers within their first years of teaching. Mentoring is a process that facilitates instructional improvement wherein an experienced educator (mentor) works with a novice or less experienced teacher (protégé) collaboratively and non-judgmentally to study and deliberate on ways of improving instruction in the classroom (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Smith (2002) stated that traditionally, many beginning teachers entered the classroom with only minimal opportunity to interact with students and more importantly, learn from master teachers. Mentoring can serve to augment the succession planning and professional development of schools. Mentors can model a culture of collaboration and collegiality in which best thinking occurs through collective judgment, which is considered to be the best way teachers teach (Hopkins-Thompson, 2000). Mentors should be respected teachers and administrators highly skilled in communicating, listening, analyzing, providing feedback, and negotiating. They have to be trustworthy and committed to the process. They need to believe in personal and professional development and be adept at adjusting their expectations of the protégés (Hopkins-Thompson, 2000).

Administrative monitoring (Glatthorn, 1984) is a process by which the supervisor monitors the staff through brief unannounced visits, simply to ensure that the teachers' responsibilities are carried out properly. Administrative monitoring gives the principal information about what is happening in the classrooms, and enables him or her to be aware of problems patterned to the teaching and learning of the school. Teachers see the principal as actively involved and concerned. The administrative method is successful when there exists a mutual trust between the teachers and administrator, and when performed by a sensitive and trusted leader.

Non-directive supervision
Non-directive supervision assumes that an individual teacher knows best what instructional change needs to be made and has the abilities to think and act on his or her own (Glickman, 1990). Gebhard (1984) stated that, non-directive supervision gives the teacher freedom to express himself and clarify ideas and it makes a feeling of support and trust to exist between the teacher and supervisor. When teachers possess greater expertise, commitment and responsibility for a particular decision than the supervisor does, then a non-directive approach is appropriate. The purpose of this approach is to provide an active sounding board for thoughtful professionals.

A leader who adopts the non-directive approach may not use the five steps of the standard format for clinical supervision. Glickman indicates that the supervisor may simply observe the teacher without analyzing 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 non-directive 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 supervisor's knowledge and expertise is minimal. Glickman (1990) and Tamashiro (1980) 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.

Types of supervision
Clinical supervision
Clinical supervision is one of the supervisory types that involves a teacher receiving information from a colleague who has observed the teacher’s performance and who serves as both a mirror and a sounding board to enable the teacher critically examine and possibly alter his or her own professional practice. Goldhammer and Cogan as cited in Glickman et al. (2001), were stimulated by frustrations encountered as university supervisors (Harvard University,
supervision discovered that some teachers feel the need to be told what to do when they first begin to teach. He attributes this to their insecurity in facing students without having the skills to cope with that situation. Teachers from a number of countries have also pointed out that if the teacher is not given direction by the supervisor, then the supervisor is not considered qualified. The roots of directive supervision grow deep. However, there is a way to direct teachers without prescribing what they should do. This way is through a model that Freeman (1982) called alternative supervision. In this model, the supervisor’s role is to suggest a variety of alternatives to what the teacher has done in the classroom. This limits the number of choices for teachers, and it can reduce anxiety over not knowing what to do next. However, it still keeps the responsibility for decision making with the teacher. There is simply less choice. Freeman points out that alternative supervision works best when the supervisor does not favour any one alternative and does not sound judgmental. The purpose of offering alternatives is to widen the scope of what a teacher will consider doing.

Creative supervision
DeBono’s idea that “any particular way of looking at things is only one from among many other possible ways” serves as the basis of creative supervision (DeBono, 1970). The models of supervision which have been presented thus far limit our way of looking at supervision. The creative model allows freedom to become creative not only in the use of the models presented, but also in other behaviours we may care to generate and test in our supervisory efforts. There are at least three ways the creative model can be used. It can allow for:

- a combination of models or a combination of supervisory behaviours from different models,
- a shifting of supervisory responsibilities from the supervisor to other sources, and
- an application of insights from other fields which are not found in any of the models.

Working with only one model can be appropriate, or limiting. Sometimes a combination of different models or a combination of supervisory behaviours from different models might be needed. Freeman (1982), for example, selects a particular supervisory approach according to the type of information the teacher is seeking. If new teachers are trying to find out “what” to teach, he uses a directive approach. If they want to know “how” to teach, he uses an alternative approach. If they want to know “why” they teach, he uses a non-directive approach. A principal will like to work with teachers through alternative supervision and will sometimes model the alternatives.

Contextual framework
The quality of educational outcome depends heavily on the quality of the school administrator and the teachers employed. Research in the United State of America reveal that teacher quality is the single and most important variable in determining student achievement (AFT, 2000). It is no surprise, then, that improvement in teacher education is frequently suggested as solution to educational problem.

According to the Sector Wide Approach document, the social demand of education in Cameroon corresponds to the request for places in the educational system expressed by
both students and families. On the other hand, the economic demand corresponds to the request for quality labour expressed by the productive system. Hence, for the development of quality labour force, which is always in school, government needs to take caution on the quality of school heads they appoint. Also strategies to achieving such task should be put in place. However, the conduct and character of the principal should not be exempted when considering the development of the future labour force of a country.

The 1961 Addis – Ababa Conference on Education in Africa states in its recommendations that “Teaching in good conditions must be a productive investment which contributes to economic growth”. This recommendation greatly points to the principal in achieving it because they are the ones who are charged with the implementation of the text. According to the Sector Wide analysis, the value of formal education has been diminishing since the 80s. Education no longer meets the same value as was the case before the 80s. Not only has the product (student quality) fall short to correspond to the needs of economic demand, the quality has also been very low. Output no longer satisfies its main consumers; the family and the enterprises. There is thus need to reshape the school so as to meet consumers’ taste; men who find fulfilment through access to knowledge and enterprises that are developed with a man-power trained to their taste.

Education should enable youths to develop harmonious personality whose quality and knowledge contribute to enhance the value of the entire nation (Tambo, 2003). Teachers and principals are the most expensive and possibly the most critical component in establishing quality in education system. New and effective approaches to the preparation, deployment, utilization, compensation and condition of service for teachers, accompanied by more effective school leadership are therefore needed to achieve higher standards in secondary education.

In 1996, the then Minister of Education in Cameroon, Dr. Robert Mbella Mbappe, produced a Handbook for Heads of Secondary institutions which was to serve as a tool in the preparation of secondary school heads (principals or administrators) in carrying out their responsibility. The functions of a principal in the Cameroon context are in four dimensions which are pedagogic, administrative, financial and social functions. These functions are interrelated.

Decree No. 80/293 of July 1980 defines the duties of the administrative members and organs of the secondary general and technical schools. Part II, chapter 1 of the decree states that:

- Secondary general and technical high schools have at their summit a head.
- The head of an institution shall ensure its administrative, pedagogic and financial management. In that capacity, he/she shall have authority over all members of the staff. He/she shall preside over all the meetings of the various councils of the school. He/she shall represent the school on all occasions.
- The head of schools shall ensure that timetables, syllabuses and school regulations are complied with. He/she shall, in particular, inspect classroom.
- The head of the school shall uphold moral standards and ensure discipline within the school.

The pedagogic function requires intelligence, dynamism, pedagogic competence, open mindedness, team spirit, respect for others, tact and personal commitment.

- The head (principal) must stimulate pedagogic activities and students’ creativity with a view to promoting an active school life through group work, openness, club animation and the smooth running of the resource centre.
- He/she coordinates the teaching team and solves personal and practical problems.
- At regular intervals he/she convenes the teaching staff and various councils to take stock, provide school life with information, compare methods and evaluate results.
- The principal should devote him/herself to frequent checks of the teaching activities. To achieve this, he/she should occasionally visit class record of workbooks and attend classes.

The principal administrative role may extend to interpersonal relationship, which may usher conductive climate in the school as incentive for productivity or achievement as Besong (2001) noted when he studied head teachers’ effectiveness in Cross River State - Nigeria. He found out that effectiveness of head teachers is instrumental in the accomplishment of objectives through cooperative action born by the administrative prowess (skills or capacity) of the principal.

Skills required in supervision

Kartz (1955) cited in Mbua (2003) has identified three skills upon which effective performance and consequently successful administration rest. These are technical, conceptual and human skills. Ochieng (2007) posits that educational management should provide instructional supervisors with opportunity to acquire and practice important skills required in supervision.

Technical Skills

Okumbe (1998) states that, technical skills include understanding and being able to perform effectively, the specific processes, practices or techniques required of a particular job in the organization. It is, therefore, imperative for the supervisors to possess superior knowledge about curriculum and instruction in order to provide extra leadership in all areas of school curriculum and current trends in education. Since curriculum undergoes changes and revision, it is very important for the principal to be abreast with these changes in order to be able to provide informed guidance on technical issues.

Conceptual Skills

These are the abilities to apply concepts and information to practice. Vukey and Epah (2003) add that conceptual skills in school administration presuppose a “big picture and broader perspective and even creative perception of the school system”. According to Okumbe (1998:183), conceptual skills involve the ability to acquire, analyze and interpret information in a logical manner. Supervisors must understand both the internal and external environments in which they operate. It is imperative that the supervisor should enhance their supervisory effectiveness by acquiring emerging concepts and techniques in supervision.

Human Skills

According to Hoy and Miskel (1996), human skills deal with psychosocial relationships. These are the ability to relate
with teachers, students, and the community as a whole. According to Okumbe (1998), human relation skills involve the ability to understand other people and to interact effectively with them. Rue and Byars (1982) see human relation skills as the ability to work well with other people. Human relations approach entails the aspect of recognizing and appreciating fellow human beings as having feelings. The skills are also important for dealing with teachers not only as individuals but also as groups. The skills can be acquired from training. Effective supervisors balance the application of their skills between the work to be done and a concern for the people who perform this work (Newstorm & Bittel, 2002).

**The principal as a supervisor**
The office of the principal is one key structure that is expected to effectively monitor and evaluate instruction in the various aspects of education in secondary schools (Handbook for Heads of Secondary and High Schools, 1996). The principal should therefore devote himself to supervise the teaching-learning process of the school so as to attain expected educational goals.

Nwosu (1997) lists the leadership qualities of a principal as a supervisor to include the capacity to: appreciate the human dignity and individual worth of teachers; respect the individual differences in teachers; appreciate the potentialities, and delegate function, and authorities where and when necessary. Above all, Nwosu maintains that the supervisor should be resourceful. Ani (2007) highlights the professional qualities of a good supervisor to include:
- professional certificate in education
- broad general education
- knowledge of pedagogy
- in-depth knowledge of the subject matter
- ability to evaluate and explain factors in productive teaching and learning
- willingness and ability to continue and encouraging personal and professional growth

Goodlad (1983) maintains that “the key to an effective school is an effective school principal”. In this light, Barbary (1999) highlighted the bench marks and behavioural traits of effective principals as:
- Establishment and maintenance of a harmonious school climate and culture
- Emphasis on student achievement
- Ability to establish instructional strategies
- Frequent evaluation of student progress
- Coordination of instructional programs
- Willingness and ability to support teachers
- Interfacing and outsourcing with the external community.

Newstrom and Bittel (2002) established a set of criteria against which supervisory candidates are judged. The most sought-after qualities in a supervisor are:
- Energy and good health
- The social skills to get along with people
- Job know-how and technical competences
- Self-control under pressure
- Dedication, dependability, and perseverance
- High self-esteem and a positive outlook toward others
- Teachability
- Communication skills

- Problem-solving skills
- Leadership potential
- A positive attitude toward management.

In addition, personal characteristics sought include creativity, stress tolerance, initiative, independence, tenacity, flexibility and risk taking.

Andrews and Sauber (1987) characterized principals as having high visibility, good communication skills, instructional expertise and ability to provide support and resources to teachers. Allan Queen, Principal of Derita Elementary School in Charlotte North Carolina, asserts that many characteristics associated with successful businessmen are also found in successful principals. These characteristics included organized, visionary, humanistic, competent, available, creative, honest, attentive, humorous, critical, firm, flexible, fair, punctual, motivational, dedication, communication, patience, evaluator, stamina, loyal, and literate. Mbua (2003) identified some characteristics that should portray the behaviour of a principal. They include the following:

**Aloofness**
This is behaviour that is characterized as formal and impersonal. The Principal "goes by the book" and prefers to be guided by rules, regulations and policies rather than dealing with the teachers in an informal, face-to-face situation. His behaviour is universalistic rather than particularistic. To maintain this style, he keeps himself at least "emotionally" at a distance from his staff.

**Production Emphasis**
This is behaviour characterized by close supervision of staff. The principal is highly directive and plays the role of a "straw boss". His communication tends to go in only one direction and he is not sensitive to feedback from the staff.

**Thrust**
This refers to behaviour by the principal which is characterized by his evident effort in trying to move the organization. Thrust behaviour is marked not by close supervision but by the principal's attempt to motivate the teachers through the example which he personally sets. Apparently, because he does not ask the teachers themselves to give anymore than he himself willingly gives his behaviour, though starkly task-oriented, is nonetheless viewed favourably by the teacher.

**Consideration**
This is behaviour where principals have the inclination to treat the teachers "humanly”, to try to do a little something extra for them in human terms. Different tasks that constitute the responsibilities of a principal of an educational institution require a total mastery of regulatory texts, syllabuses and pedagogy. Hence, to achieve a greater performance level, character development is very important to the principal. Omwuka (1981) views supervision of personnel (teachers) as a means by which subordinated staff of the school are mobilized and motivated towards the achievement of the aims and objectives of the school they serve. It involves the process of finding and controlling the conditions for improving leaning and teaching situations.

Supervision can be considered more or less as overseeing the execution of what has been put in place by the planning
process or educational stakeholders. Ogunsaju (1983) acknowledges that supervision is a function which can be performed in various forms in any school organization. Principals as instructional supervisors should therefore be concerned with the problem of excellence in quality.

**Purposes of supervision**

Wanzare and Da Costa (2000) accepted that effective supervision of instruction is conducted for several specific reasons which include the following as supported by a number of authors.

- Encourages human relation
- Fostering teacher motivation
- Providing a mechanism for teachers and supervisors to increase their understanding of the teaching-learning process through collective inquiry with other professionals
- Monitoring the teaching-learning process to obtain the best results with students
- Instructional improvement Enabling teachers to become aware of their teaching and it's consequences for learners
- Enabling teachers to try out new instruction in safe, supportive environment
- Effective professional Development of teachers

The UBE Handbook on Training School Supervisors as contained in Ani (2007) list the following instructional purposes to help in teachers' professional development.

- Ensuring that teachers perform their assigned function effectively.
- Ensuring that teachers are capable of carrying out their teaching responsibilities.
- Ensuring that new teachers receive training that will enable them function effectively on the job.
- Ensuring that teachers are given assistance whenever there is need.
- Providing professional information to the teachers.
- Guiding teachers to the sources of instructional materials.
- Providing technical assistance to the teachers especially in the areas of teaching methods and the use of instructional materials.
- Ensuring that discipline is maintained during classroom instruction.
- Helping or suggesting how to improve on the performance of incompetent teachers.
- Providing an enabling environment to discover teachers with special abilities and qualities.

Sergiovanni (1992), summarizing the reasons for supervision, noted

'We supervise for good reasons. We want schools to be better, teachers to grow and students to have academically and developmentally sound learning experiences; and we believe that supervision serves these and other worthy ends.'

The aim of supervision is therefore to bring teachers together as knowledgeable professionals working for the benefit of all students. It is focused on changing the attitude of many schools that a classroom is an island unto an attitude that teachers are engaged in a common task that transcends any classroom – a course beyond oneself (Glickman, 1989). Supervision ensures that the professional environment is supportive of the teaching and learning process. The ultimate objective of supervision is to improve the quality of teaching and learning. This means that you need to play the roles of a planner, organizer, leader, helper, evaluator or appraiser, motivator, communicator and decision-maker (Beach and Reinhartz, 1998).

**Basic principles for effective supervision**

Research has been carried out on whether administrators (principals) have any effect on school outcomes (Bernard, 1938; Halpin, 1966 and Likert, 1967). Bosset (1982) and Ellet & Walberg (1976) focus their studies on administrative effect on school outcomes. While Bosset et al (1982) embarked on administrator’s effect; others focus on organizational and teacher effectiveness, among which are Brookover et al (1979) and Glickman (1998). They all identified the characteristics of effective schools. Fisher (2011) wrote on selected effective supervision as all efforts of school officials in providing leadership to teachers' improvement of instruction delivery to the students in the classroom. It involves stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, monitoring education objectives, materials of instruction, and evaluation of instructional supervision. Effectiveness is the ability to plan, organize and coordinate many and often-conflicting social energies in a single organization so adroitly (Adams, 1963) as cited in Besong (2001). Supervision is guided by school goals and objectives

According to Newstrom and Bittel (2002), five managerial functions that supervisors needs to seriously consider for effective supervision are planning, organizing, staffing, energizing and controlling. Such managerial process is seen in the figure that follows:

![Figure 4: The Managerial Cycle by Newstrom and Bittel (2002).](image)

Planning is the function of setting goals and objectives and converting them into specific plans. The planning process established policies, standard operating procedures, regulation, and rules. In organizing, the supervisor lines up all available resources and do effective allocation of these resources. In the staffing function, the supervisor figures out exactly how many and what kind of employee will be needed. They interview, select and train employees. In Cameroon, this is common mostly in lay private schools where the principal to a certain extent has powers to recruit teachers. The supervisor energizes the vital human resources by providing motivation, communication and leadership. In controlling, the supervisor must periodically keep score on how well the plans are working out. Hence, a supervisor has to measure results, compare them with what is expected, judge how important the differences may be and therefore take whatever action is needed to bring results into line.
According to Ipaya (1996), effectiveness is a part of function assumed by someone; a set of specific responsibilities, assumed by a professional in a setting. He outlines the following conditions that are necessary for effective supervision to take place:

**Healthy Atmosphere**
The environment should be free of tension and emotional stress. The atmosphere should be that which gives incentive to work.

**Staff Orientation**
The quantity and quality of work should be specified in clean and clear terms. New staff should be given the necessary orientation. They should have a schedule to know where to get information and materials to help them perform the work satisfactorily well.

**Guidance and staff training**
Staff needs guidance on how to carry out the assignment. Standards should be set as information given should be able to rule out the possibility of rumours. They should always arrange and participate in staff training.

**Immediate Recognition of work**
Good work should be recognized. Acknowledgement of good work serves as incentives to others. Incentive of merit, recommendation for promotion and improve performance.

**Constructive criticisms**
Poor work should be constructively criticized. Advice and personal relationship should be given to the affected staff. Such criticisms should be made private and with a mind free of bias.

**Opportunity for improvement**
Staff should be given opportunity to prove their worth and for aspiring higher levels. They should therefore be allowed to use their own initiative in performing their job and taking decisions that motivates them to work harder.

The implication of effectiveness is that when a principal maintains high morale discipline and decorum (decency or dignity) among his staff and also students, he exhibits a personality of effectiveness worthy of emulation. Uche (2002) identified effectiveness in a series of his studies related to effectiveness, that it is a symbol of good administrative style of the incumbent, team work, morale or motivation of staff, good teaching conducive social climate and counseling as well as rules and regulations. The principal’s ability to control and maintain school facilities, initiates projects and completes both the new ones and also those abandoned by his predecessor(s) is exemplary of effectiveness. Blasé and Blasé (1998) concluded that principals who are most successful, plan carefully for teachers to have adequate feedback, information, and assistance for their professional growth and development.

**Impediments to effective supervision of instruction**
Effective supervision of instruction whether internal or external can only succeed if the conditions are fertile. Some of the impediments to effective supervision of instruction in schools include:
- lack of experience on the part of the supervisor
- Favouritism
- lack of personal, leadership and professional qualities
- lack of incentives on the part of the government and others

Teacher supervision can be both rewarding and frustrating. Duke and Stiggins (1986) concur that effective teacher supervision can lead to improved performance, personal growth and professional esteem. If the supervision is poorly done, anxiety or boredom can result. Talented teachers may even be driven from the profession. The principal must carefully plan supervision in order to yield a positive outcome.

**The role of the principal in instructional supervision**
A role which is a dynamic aspect of a position is the purpose or influence of someone (principal) in a particular situation. It is concerned with what a person does. Principals reflect to teachers their values and beliefs, about their roles as instructional leaders, and concepts, and apply their new knowledge and skills in real school context (Fenwick & Pierce, 2002). It has been emphasized that leaders need to practice reflective thinking to meet emerging challenges.

Reflective learning can assist teachers in acquiring the knowledge and skills to make better judgments in ambiguous situations (Densten & Lain 2001). Through reflection, principals provoke in teachers the ability to notice odd and unexpected things, frame a puzzle or question from them, become curious, inquire and explore, and be willing to adjust student learning experiences accordingly (Blasé et al, 2004).

In instructional supervision, a head should be knowledgeable and delegate some powers to other senior teachers or groups of teachers (Singhal et al, 1986). In an extract from the of STED Framework (NCSL, 2001), it emphasizes the vital connection between what the principal can do and what happens in the classroom. Effective principals provide a clear vision and sense of direction for the school. They prioritize. They focus the attention of staff on what is important and do not let them get diverted and sidetracked with initiatives that will have little impact on the work of students. They know what is going on in their classrooms. They have a clear view of the strengths and weaknesses of their staff. They know how to build on the strengths and reduce the weaknesses. They can focus their programme of staff development on the real needs of their staff and school. They gain this view through the systematic programme of monitoring and evaluation. Their clarity of thought, sense of purpose and knowledge of what is going on mean that effective principals can get the best out of their staff, which is the key to influencing work in the classroom and to raising the standards achieved by students.

The Handbook for Secondary and High School Heads presents the role of principals as follows:
- **Management** which deals with the organization and implementation as concerns the use of means (financial, material or human) available in the school.
- **Creation of links** which involvesconcerting with the various partners within the local and regional world, especially carrying out animation and innovation in the sphere of pedagogic and educational sector.
- **Spirit of Dialogue** with all members of the education community so as to ensure total participation of all the
education community in decision making, taking initiatives and discussions.

- Considering all the school and the environment can provide in order to achieve a more complete educational task.
- Creating **team spirit** and animating various work groups.
- **Good relationship**, that is, the principals' relationship with the teachers and the outside world should be good; creating a suitable work climate which will enable both young and old to work and blossom under the most suitable conditions of freedom of action, responsibility and action, either as a team or as a group.
- **Decision making** on students, programmes, staff, services, or resources. By facilitating the implementation of innovations and initiatives taken especially as concerns education, the principal shall thus, in the exercise of his duties, by meeting the challenges of the real renovation of the education system, as well as attaining national objectives in the sphere of instruction, training and education at large.

Okorie (1998) cited in Mbuam (2003) outlined the following leadership roles needed by principals to promote school improvement.

- **Having a vision**: Principals should have a vision of what their schools should be. They should have vision of what is desirable and possible or attainable in that school context.
- **Promoting and protecting values**: When the principal defines his vision, there is need to empower teachers to make the vision a reality. All should be focus on promoting school values and goals. Principals as value promoters should always be ready to advise those whose conduct violets the school values.
- **Empowering of Teachers**: Teacher empowerment is very vital. Research shows that the more teachers are empowered, the more they are able to achieve. According to Kane (1990) cited in Mbuam (2003), teacher empowerment is freeing teachers from bureaucratic dictum and giving them greater latitude to do what they know in the classroom.

The Wallace Foundation (2013) presents the following changing role of the principal as a supervisor:

- Define and clearly communicate throughout the organization the role and required competencies of principals.
- Narrow principal's supervision responsibilities and spans of control.
- Strategically select and deploy principal, matching skills and expertise to the needs of schools.
- Provide supervisors with the professional development and training they need to assume new instructional leadership roles.
- Provide early and sustained support to new principals in the form of coaches.
- Hold principals accountable for the progress of schools, and ensure alignment in the processes and measures used to assess teachers and principal's performance.
- Provide clear, timely, and actionable evaluation data to principals.
- Commit district resources and engage external partners in the process of developing future school and district leaders.

According to Glickman (1990), the role of supervision is to change the attitude of many schools that classroom is an island unto itself to an attitude that school administration is engaged in a common school-wide instructional task that transcends any one classroom - a cause beyond oneself.

**Evaluation of Instructional Supervision**

Various types of educational evaluation are used for instructional programmes. According to Glickman (1990) it is not sufficient to know intuitively that a programme is good or bad. Rather, decisions about revising, improving, or discarding need to be with multiple sources of information. Research on school-based instructional supervision focuses on the following three areas of evaluation.

- **Continuous formative evaluation:**
  This is by providing help to teachers so as to improve on their performance. It could also be done by establishing teacher-principal rapport, reflective practices, instructional conferences, classroom observation, and analysis of teaching and learning, and application of findings and conclusions for providing further instructional support.

- **Teacher self-evaluation or summative evaluation:**
  This is by rating and ranking teachers at one point of time, either in the beginning or at the end of the academic session of school. On the basis of this evaluation, teachers may reveal their existing performance and competencies and find out the areas where there is gap between the competence and performance.

- **Professional development**
  This would require professional support activities on the basis of both summative and formative evaluations of teachers.

All the three variables of school-based supervision may have connectivity and a school can start anywhere. If it starts from professional development of teachers at school level, it can observe the teachers' performance through continuous formative evaluation. At the end of the year, the principal can conduct summative evaluation. Furthermore on the basis of both kinds of evaluation, professional development activities can be conducted at school level by the principal.

**High expectation from students, teachers and other stakeholders**

Students have proven that high expectation have a positive impact on students' performance. More attention should be paid to high expectations of teachers. In other words, teachers who are expected to teach at high effective levels are able to reach the level of expectations, particularly when teacher evaluation and teacher professional development are geared towards improving instructional quality.

Rosenthal & Jacobson (1968) in their findings showed that changes in teachers’ expectations can produce changes in students’ achievement. When teachers expect students to do well, students tend to do well; when teachers expect students to fail, they tend to fail. Jeannie (1985) also confirmed that teachers’ expectation about their students strongly affect how teachers treat these students in a way that create self-fulfilling prophecies. Expectation therefore can create reality. As principals’ belief in their teachers, teachers should also believe that all students can learn.
On-going screening of student performance and development
Glickman describes this as regular monitoring of student progress. Schools should use assessment data to compare their students with others from across the country. This allows schools to identify problematic areas of learning at the classroom and school level so that solutions can be generated as to how to best address the problems.

The existence of goal and direction
According to research, a successful school principal actively constructs goals and then effectively communicates them to appropriate individuals. Glickman supports this by saying that there should be goal congruence between various stakeholders. School principals must also be open and willing to incorporate innovations into goals for school processes and practices.

Hence input from all stakeholders is vital for the development of school goals. Students’ performance has been shown to improve in schools where all the community works toward goals that are communicated and shared among all in the learning environment. Schools should be characterized by values such as openness to trust, mistakes, acceptance of diversity – building a healthy school climate and culture (Glickman, 1998).

Extend of organization and security
For maximum learning, students need to feel secured. Respect is a quality that is promoted and is a foundational aspect of a safe school. There is also a number of trained staff and programmes such as social workers (counsellors) who work with problem students before situation get out of hand. Other factors that influence effective schools include time for instructions, teacher quality, parental trust and participation, and teacher quality.

The Principal is the key to building a better school. Thus, successful schools have a clear sense of purpose, strong instructional leadership, true professionalism among the staff, and ambitious academic programmes. It necessitates the engagement of principals in thoughtful and careful reporting and analyses of past practices and experiences. This provides the principals valuable insights into their leadership progress.

METHODOLOGY
This paper made used of the cross-sectional survey design that involves asking the same or similar set of questions to sample opinions, ideas and feelings on how principals perform their task of instructional supervision in secondary schools.

The study was carried out in the North West Region of the Republic of Cameroon, precisely Boyo. Boyo Division has four SubDivisions namely Fundong, Njinikom, Belo and Bum Sub Division with Fundong being the Divisional Headquarters. It should be noted that Boyo Division is rich in nursery, primary and secondary schools with over 51 secondary schools. For the 51 secondary schools, 40 are government (public schools) and 11 are private schools (5 confessional or mission or faith-based schools and 6 lay private). Boyo Division has a teacher population of about 789 including those involved in school administration and supervisory practices or structures like principals, vice principals, Academic Deans, Heads of Departments etc. The targeted population involved teachers and principals of secondary and high schools in Boyo Division. There are 51 principals in Boyo Division; one in each secondary school. These principals are assisted by vice principals or senior discipline masters. The accessible population for the study was made of teachers and principals in three main divisions namely Fundong, Njinikom, and Belo Sub Division. The table below shows the distribution of schools according to Sub Division in Boyo Division. (See school map for Boyo Division for schools are location page 133)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Sub Division</th>
<th>Name of School</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>FUNDONG</td>
<td>G.B.H.S FUNDONG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>PUBLIC SCHOOLS</td>
<td>G.H.S ADEK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.H.S ABUH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.H.S MEI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.H.S AKEH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.S.S ILUNGA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.S.S NGOLAIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.S.S AJUNG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.S.S ACHAIN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.S.S NGWAH-EBOSUNG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.S.S FUJUA-LAIKOM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.T.C MEETTE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.T.T.C FUNDONG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.T.C BOLEM</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.T.C AKEH</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.T.C FUNDONG VILLAGE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td>G.T.H.S FUNDONG</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The sample used in this study was made up of 30 secondary schools within the Division out of 51 which constitute 58.82% of the total number of secondary schools. To obtain a sample, the name of each school was written down with respect to Sub Division and put into three containers and after stirring each of the containers, 10 schools were picked randomly from each Sub Division giving a total of 30 schools. Njinikom Sub Division had only 9 schools and so all the schools were selected. To make up the total sample, Fundong had an additional selection reason being that for the total number of schools in the Division, Fundong has the highest number of secondary schools.

At the level of the 30 schools, a sample of 10 teachers per school was selected at random irrespective of area of teachers’ discipline. The principals of the selected school were automatically selected. There was a single questionnaire for the principal and 10 copies of the questionnaire to the teachers making a total of 11 questionnaires for each school. These questionnaires were randomly distributed to get respondents view on instructional supervision with respect to research objectives and or questions.
### Table: Distribution of Administrative and Academic Staff strength according to Sub Division for the selected Schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School/Location</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Principal</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BOYO DIVISION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fundong Sub Division</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. G.B.H.S Fundong</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. G.H.S Meli</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. G.H.S Ilung</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. G.S.S Aduk</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. G.S.S Ngwha-Ebosung</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. C.K.C.H.S Fundong</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. F.A.C Fundong</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. G.H.S Abuh</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. G.T.H.S Fundong</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. G.T.C Fundong Village</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. G.S.S Ngolain</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td>185</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NJINIKOM SUB DIVISION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. G.H.S Njinkim</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. G.T.H.S Njinkim</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. G.S.S Yang</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. J.M.C Njinkim</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. SAMAGS Njinkim</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. G.C.A Njinkim</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. G.T.C Sho</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. G.S.S Kikfuini</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. G.C.A Wombong</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>182</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>BELO SUB DIVISION</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. G.B.H.S Belo</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. G.S.S Ibal-Acha</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. G.H.S Mbingo</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. G.S.S Baingo</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. G.T.H.S Njinikejem</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. G.H.S Anyajua</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. G.T.C Akeh</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. ST. BEDE’S Ashing</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. A.B.C Achah</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. B.C.H.S Njinikejem</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td>176</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>313</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>GRAND TOTALS</strong></td>
<td>474</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>789</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The instrument for data collection was a questionnaire whose items were developed using the Delphi Technique. It was cross checked by the supervisor.

The questionnaire was administered to 30 principals and 300 teachers in Boyo Division giving a total of 330 questionnaires. The research carried along a permission letter from the Supervisor in the Faculty of Education as proof that the researcher was a student of the Faculty of Education. The researcher also obtained permission from the Delegate of Secondary Education for Boyo to administer the questionnaire in secondary schools in Boyo. The researcher personally went to schools to administer the questionnaire. Upon arrival in each school he met the principal or vice principal to explain purpose of visit and to have access to teachers so as to administer the questionnaires.
Questionnaire administration was through a direct delivery technique, that is, the researcher personally (sometimes with the facilitation of the principal or Vice principal who calls staff attention) handed the principal's questionnaire to the principal and the teachers' questionnaire to the teachers and waited for the responses before leaving the school.

For the principals, 30 questionnaires were distributed and 30 were returned giving a response rate of 100%. For the teachers, total number of questionnaires distributed was 300 and 274 returned giving 91.33%.

This study used descriptive statistics to collect quantitative data. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 for windows from close Likert-type items was used to analyze the quantitative data. Coding was done and the data from completed questionnaires was entered on the SPSS version. According to Orodho (2005), SPSS is convenient in managing and analyzing large amounts of data. The data were edited so as to ensure completeness of responses and descriptive statistics. According to Gay (1976), the commonly used method in reporting descriptive survey (measures of central tendency) is by using means, standard deviation, frequency distribution, calculating the percentages, and tabulating them properly.

The following formulae were used in the calculations.

\[
\text{Mean (} \bar{x} \text{)} = \frac{\sum x}{n}
\]

\[
\text{Standard deviation (SD)} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{n}}
\]

Where \( \Sigma \) is the symbol for “sum of”

\( x \) is the symbol for raw score

\( \bar{x} \) is the symbol for the mean

\( n \) represents the number of scores in the distribution

Based on the fact that the questions were weighted on a four point Likert scale, the cut-off mean of 3.0. Hence a mean greater than or equal to 3.0 (≥3.0) was considered high while a mean below 3.0 (<3.0) was considered low.

FINDINGS

The table below presents a summary of analyses of the impact of instructional supervision on teachers’ job performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Option</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S/D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I am satisfied with the frequency of supervision given to me by the principal.</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Supervision has helped me improve on my teaching and use of teaching aids.</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My principal ensures that teachers follow the provided syllabus for their subjects.</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Principal usually monitors my teaching method.</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Principal makes regular visits to observe me teach.</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Principal encourages teachers to share their work-related problems with them or other colleagues or mentors and propose possible solutions.</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Principal usually organizes indoor academic seminars.</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Principals ensure that teachers frequently attend seminars and workshops to update their skills and knowledge on pedagogy</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Principals provide facilities for teachers' research such as libraries, ICT, etc.</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teachers always have a one-on-one rapport with the principals concerning academic issues</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Principals' interaction gives me confidence to confide and trust him to improve on students' output.</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I now manage classroom routines and procedures efficiently without loss of instructional time</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Supervision has helped me to be flexible and responsive in meeting the learning needs of students</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows that many teachers prove their satisfaction at the level of supervisory attention given to them by their principals as seen by a mean of 3.1. Teachers admit that the use of teaching aids has improved their teaching methods (mean of 3.8). Principals follow up teachers for syllabus coverage as shown by a mean of 3.3. Also, principals monitor teachers teaching methods as shown by a mean of 3.2. They also do regular classroom visits with mean of 3.5. Principals also provide facilities and resources for teachers to attend seminars. This is given by a mean of 3.3. A one-on-one rapport between principal and teachers has greatly encouraged teachers as shown by a mean of 3.9. Supervision of instruction has also helped teachers to manage classroom routines and procedures efficiently without the loss of instructional time (mean of 3.4). Teachers can now demonstrate flexibility and responsiveness in meeting the learning needs of students as shown by a mean of 3.1. However, principals hardly organize indoor seminars or workshops as seen by a mean of 1.2 which is far below the cut-off mean of 3.0. This may be due to insufficient or limited resources at their disposal. Somehow, they mostly send teachers to seminars organized at divisional and regional levels. Generally, teachers admit that instructional supervision has a positive impact on their professional growth and development and in effect it positively influences student’s outcome.
All 13 items revealed a positive perception about instructional supervision. However, some teachers see supervision as a punitive measure while others see it as a sharing exercise between the principal and the teacher and so turn to cherish principals’ involvement in their teaching and learning. This is supported by Glickman (1990) who states that supervisory goals is to improve classroom and school instruction by enabling teachers to become more adaptive, more thoughtful, and more cohesive in their work. The supervisor provides an enabling environment for teachers to explore their own physical and mental capabilities. The principal should be one who teachers’ truths about teaching to teachers. This was further supported by McQuarrie and Wood (1991) who stated that the primary purpose of supervision is to help and support teachers as they adapt, adopt and refine the instructional process they are trying to implement in their classrooms.

**Conclusion**

Principals should understand how the world of schooling and leadership operate based on the educational policy and text related to their task. He should focus on improving instruction that is goal-oriented because it gives direction that combines the school-wide needs with the personal growth needs of those involved. Supervision is emerging as an ongoing process to ensure continuous reflection, dialogue, analysis, and planning for improving teaching. Teachers are at the forefront of successful supervision; supervision is in the background, providing the support, knowledge, and skills that enable teachers to succeed.

When improved instruction and school success do not materialize, supervision should shoulder the responsibility for not permitting teachers to be successful. A good teacher when combined with a good administrator is likely going to produce good results. However, it is best if the teacher can do self-supervision. Effective instructional leadership has been shown to result in school improvement and effectiveness (Lezotte, 2001). However a principal who fails to perform his/her task should be ready to welcome failure.

**REFERENCES**


Articles


