Chapter 3: Review of Related Literature

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of the literature on research into the instructional leadership behaviour of Principals which has been conducted largely within the framework of school effectiveness. The early school effectiveness studies (e.g. Edmonds, 1979) have concluded that strong administrative leadership was a characteristic of instructionally-effective schools. Studies from a number of countries (e.g. Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Duke, 1987; Ubben & Hughes, 1987; Eberts & Stone, 1988; Rosenblum et al., 1994; Short et al., 1994; Hallinger & Heck, 1995 [North America]; Rutter et al., 1979; Reynolds, 1982 [England & Wales]; Duignan & Macpherson, 1987; Beare et al., 1989; Mulford, 1996 [Australia]); Leithwood et al., 1994 [Canada]; Goldring & Pasternak, 1994 [Israel]; Heck, 1993 [Singapore]) have also indicated that principals can, and do, make a difference both to teachers and to students, through their skills as instructional leaders (Wildy & Dimmock, 1993: 43). Such leadership has not been consistently provided in schools (Murphy et al., 1985: 365). This conclusion, according to Hallinger, (1992: 37), has given impetus to calls for principals to engage more actively in leading the school's instructional programme and in focussing staff attention on student outcomes.

This chapter identifies and reviews the tasks or behaviours principals should engage in more actively in leading the instructional programme in their schools. In the first section, a description of the concept of school effectiveness is presented. This introduces a conceptual framework developed by Murphy et al. (1985) that highlights the 14 variables which capture school effectiveness in terms of content and important organisational norms, structures needed to implement them and processes that facilitate their implementation. One of the variables identified is instructional leadership, which is the focus of this literature review.

The second section concentrates on the concept of leadership which is initially defined. The theory of leadership is briefly described linking it with the identification of the three main types of leadership. The three types of leadership are briefly described and are linked to the role of the principal,

especially in relation to their significance to instructional leadership. The Hersey and Blanchard model of contingency leadership is also explained and is related to the present study. The changing nature of the role of the principal is described to highlight the significant changes that have occurred over the years.

The third section describes and defines the concept of instructional leadership. An attempt is made to identify the exact nature of leadership behaviours or actions associated with relatively high levels of student achievement related to instructional leadership from a number of different authors or researchers. Out of this, five main instructional leadership actions or functions are identifed and described. These five functions forms the basis on which this study was conducted.

The Concept of School Effeciveness

Studies on school effectiveness in the 1970s began as an attempt to identify teacher behaviours that were associated with improved student learning. Many of these early researchers (e.g. Barr & Dreeben, 1978; Good, 1979; Clark, Lotto & McCarthy, 1980) believed that examples of school differences could only be found by examining what actually occurred in classrooms in order to detect direct causal links between teaching practices and educational outcomes.

Biskel (1983) (cited in Firestone, 1991: 12) points out that these early researchers shared three central assumptions:

> (1) *schools can be identified that are unusually effective in teaching poor and minority children basic skills as measured by standardised tests;*
> (2) *these successful schools exhibit characteristics that are correlated with their success and that lie well within the domain of educators to manipulate; and*
> (3) *that characteristics of successful schools provide a basis for improving schools not deemed successful.*

However, according to Angus (1986: 15), the research emphasis changed to seeking out connections between school-level policies and practices and important student outcomes, e.g. achievement, behaviour and self-concept in

the 1980s, evidenced especially from North American studies (e.g. Bell, 1983; Hallinger et al., 1983; Waterman, 1984; Murphy,1985).

This trend has continued into the 1990s as outlined by Dimmock (1991: 1):

> *Current trends to school-based management, national curricular frameworks, school-site curriculum planning, and system-level setting of performance targets is placing emphasis on student outcomes as the gauge of school performance. These developments are conspicuous and are likely to bring the curriculum and classroom to the forefront of the restructuring movement in the 1990s.*

Moreover, Dimmock (ibid) adds that underlying this shift of focus is a concern for quality of education, and a realisation that teaching and learning are critical activities in securing improvement in student learning. Quality of education, therefore, is increasingly seen as synonymous with student learning outcomes.

The 1990s promises to be the decade when reform and restructuring finally address the most important educational issues of all. Schools are essentially places for student learning. The curriculum and its transmission, together with school organisation and management, will focus on the objective of providing every student with a quality learning experience (Dimmock, 1991: 4). This viewpoint is also supported by Cowell (1996: 2), who proposed that:

> *a school should be considered effective according to the extent that it develops an institutional context which promotes the academic, personal, social, cultural and sporting development of its students whilst also successfully catering for the relevant needs of staff, parents and the community.*

Cowell adds that school effectiveness is about a great deal more than maximizing academic achievement. Learning, and the love of learning, personal development and self-esteem, life skills, problem-solving, and learning to learn, the development of independent thinkers and well rounded, confident individuals, all rank highly in the outcomes of effective schooling (Cowell, 1996: 2).

School Effectiveness: A Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework (see Figure 3.1) was presented by Murphy et al. (1985: 362) which involves 14 variables that capture school effectiveness in terms of content and important organisational norms, structures needed to implement them and processes that facilitate their implementation. Moreover, the framework also describes the variables in a way that shows the relation between the environment and technology of schools. The environment can be thought of as school climate while the technology is the instruction and curriculum of the school.

In reference to Murphy et al.'s conceptual framework, the school technology is represented by seven variables in two boxes. The inner box or delivery function, as described by Murphy et al. (ibid), includes:

(i) tightly coupled curriculum;
(ii) opportunity to learn; and
(iii) direct instruction.

These three variables can be subsumed under the rubric of "organising for curriculum and instruction".

Murphy et al. (ibid) describe the outer technology box as the direction-control-review-upgrading system for curriculum and instruction. It includes the variables of:

(iv) clear academic mission and focus (direction);
(v) instructional leadership (control);
(vi) frequent monitoring (review); and
(vii) structured staff development (upgrading).

As a group these four variables can be labelled "supporting curriculum and instruction". The technological variables are designed to capture all the important aspects of a school instruction and curriculum (Murphy et al., 1985: 362).

This particular study focussed on the instructional leadership variable, a type of leadership that is not consistently provided in schools. Such leadership can be exercised in different ways and styles, for example, directly through clinical

supervision-type approaches and indirectly through policy formulation and the control of the work structure under which teachers instruct.

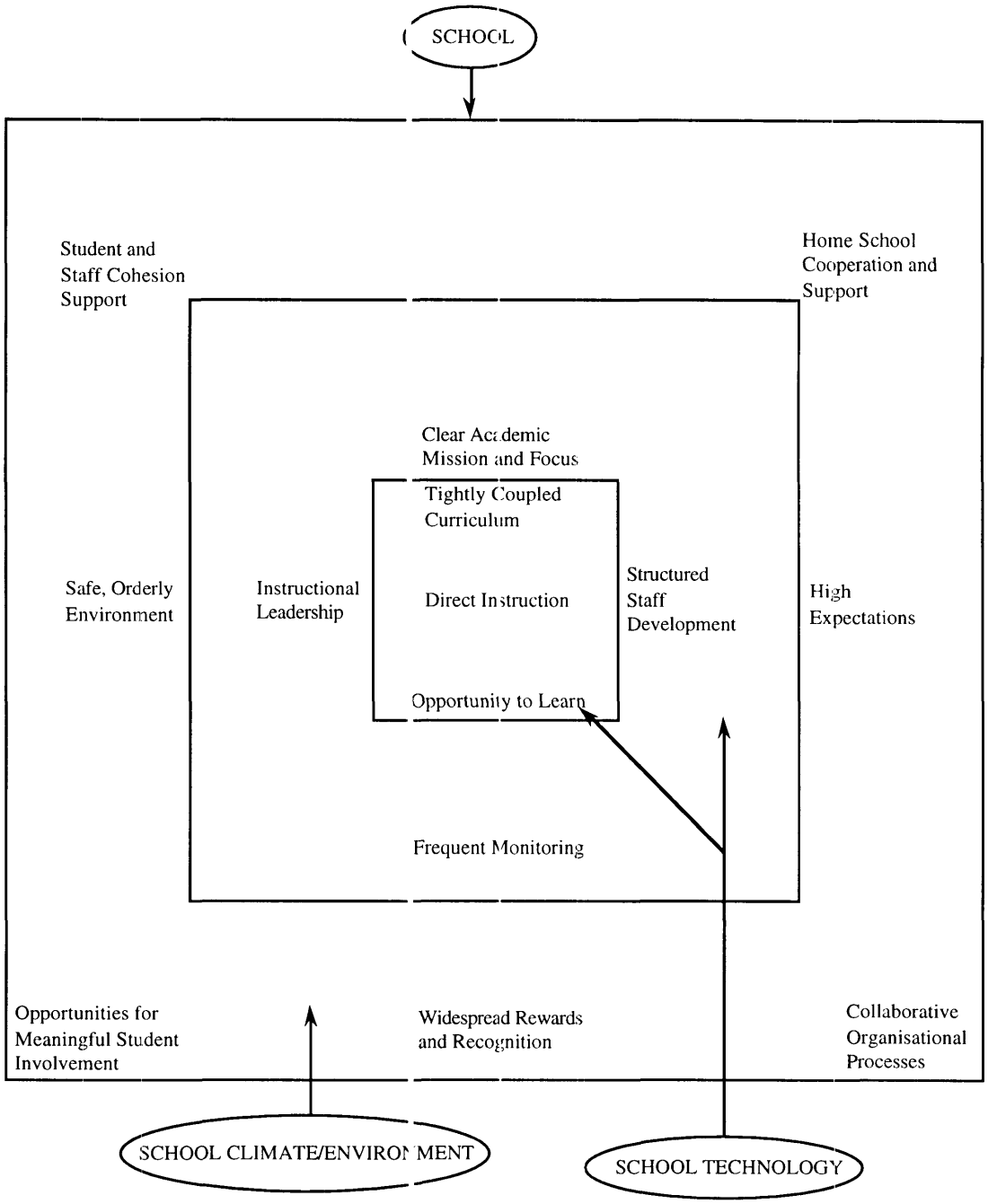

Figure 3.1 A School Effectiveness Conceptual Framework (Murphy, J.; Weil, M.; Hallinger, P.; Mitman, A.; 1985:363)

The Concept of Leadership

Leadership Defined

Many authors (e.g. Beare, et al., 1989; Owens, 1995) have referred to the diverse meanings of leadership by different authors, which is often a source of confusion as each scholar and practitioner has a different personal interpretation. Owens (1995: 116) points out that despite different definitions of leadership most have agreed upon two things:

1. *Leadership is a group function: it occurs only in the processes of two or more people interacting.*
2. *Leaders intentionally seek to influence the behaviour of other people.*

Moreover, Beare et al. (1989: 101) adds that the concept of leadership has penetrated more deeply than "the organisation" and the "activities associated with goal setting and goal accomplishment". Attention, according to Beare et al., has also been given to meanings and values. They quote Pondy (1978: 94), as an example, stating that:

> *the effectiveness of a leader lies in the leader's ability to make activity meaningful ... not to change behaviour but to give others a sense of understanding of what they are doing.*

In relating the emphasis placed by Pondy on the school situation, Beare et al. proposes that the exercise of leadership by the principal thus involves making clear the meaning of activity in the school by posing and securing answers to questions such as the following:

> *What are the purposes of our school?*
> *How should we as teachers work with students to reflect our purposes?*
> *What should be the relationship between our school and its local community?*
>
> (Beare et al., 1989: 101)

Starratt (1993: 18) when addressing the leadership of the principal indicates that major shifts in theory and research on leadership have taken place in the last fifteen years or so. There has been a major shift from a focus on functional leadership to a focus on substantive leadership – that is, from leadership

fuelled by functional rationality to a leadership fuelled by substantive rationality.

> *Functional rationality is a way of thinking that focuses on means rather than ends, on efficiency and technical problem solving, rather than on the significance of the final product. Substantive rationality tends to keep the large purposes of the organisation in mind, letting those closest to the various tasks of the organisation figure out the everyday details. It is a way of thinking that asks, 'Why are we doing this?', 'What does it mean?', What is its value to society, to human life?' Leaders energised by substantive purpose and significance will communicate that sense of purpose and significance to their colleagues.*
>
> (Starratt, 1993: 18)

Starratt (ibid) points out that this shift from functional rationality to substantive rationality will enable people in an organisation to have a greater sense of what they are collectively achieving and what value they are bringing to the organisation. Such purpose and significance will bring a sense of fulfilment to their working lives.

As the field shifted to a focus on substantive leadership, there has developed a tendency to distinguish leadership from administration or management. Starratt (ibid) distinguishes the two using the following chart. The categories are self explanatory (see Table 3.1).

LEADER	ADMINISTRATOR
Is concerned with growth	Is concerned with maintenance
Is a director	Is a stage manager
Writes a script	Follows the script
Based in moral authority	Loyal and bureaucratic authority
Challenges people	Keeps people happy
Has vision	Has lists, schedules, budgets
Exercises power of shared purpose	Exercises power of sanctions and rewards
Defines what is real as what is possible	Defines what is real as what is
Motivates	Controls
Inspires	Fixes
Illuminates	Co-ordinates

Table 3.1 Polarised Qualities of Leaders and Administrators (Starratt, 1993: 18)

Obviously, as Starratt points out that while this polarisation serves the purpose of highlighting differences in absolute terms of leadership and administration, it does not conform to reality. In most cases, leaders also have to manage and if they can't they need to engage a good administrator and work closely with them. A more realistic view is of the leader-manager, or a leader manager team, such as Table 3.2 illustrates.

LEADER	LEADER-MANAGER TEAM	MANAGER
Is concerned with growth	Is concerned with institutional growth	Is concerned with maintenance
Is a director	Engages in reflective practice management	Is a stage manager
Writes the script	Communicates meanings of script	Follows script
Challenges people	Channels challenges into morally fulfilling and productive programs	Keeps people happy
Has vision	Institutionalises vision	Keeps lists, schedules, budgets
Exercises power of shared purpose	Enables power of professional and moral community	Exercises power of sanctions and rewards
Defines what is real as what is possible	Defines reality as what is possible for now, for our circumstances; tomorrow may be different	Defines what is real as what is
Motivates	Facilitates reflective practice	Organises
Inspires	Encourages	Fixes
Illuminates	Cheerleads, celebrates	Co-ordinates

Table 3.2 Collaboration of leadership and managerial talent (Starratt, 1993 : 19)

With the definition of leadership and the differences between leadership and management clearly outlined by Starratt in mind, it would be appropriate to turn our attention to the theory of leadership to briefly identify and describe the types of leadership that are or may be available for use by a leader.

Types of Leadership

Owens (1995: 120) points out that the two-factor leadership theory that dominated the study of leadership previously has largely been abandoned. The two-factor leadership approach generally defined the behaviour of leaders in two dimensions:

> *One dimension was the emphasis that the leader gives to getting the job done. Often called initiating structure, it involved structuring the work: delineating the relationship between the leader and the members of the work group, specifying the tasks to be performed, and endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organisation, channels of communication, and methods of procedure, scheduling, and designating responsibilities. It was also often called production emphasis or task emphasis. The other dimension was the emphasis that the leader gives to developing friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in relationships between the leader and followers. These behaviours were usually labelled consideration or concern for people.*
>
> (Owens, 1995: 120)

This two-dimensional theory held that leadership consisted of a mix of these two kinds of behaviours, and that effectiveness as a leader depended on choosing the right blend in various kinds of situations. The general tendency was for individuals to favor one or the other of these behavioural orientations while placing less emphasis on the other dimension.

In the two-dimensional approach to understanding leadership, great emphasis was given to leadership style. For example, one commonly hears complaints that educational leaders in the past emphasized the task, or managerial, dimension of leader behaviour – which is often evidenced in a autocratic leadership style – and few emphasized the consideration dimension, which is evidenced in a democratic style of leadership. Thus, individual styles of various leaders were described as tending to be autocratic or democratic, task oriented or people oriented, directive or collegial, and one may adopt a leadership style thought to be appropriate to the leader's personality, on the one hand, and the situation in which the leader works, on the other hand. All of this emanated from efforts to reduce the study of leadership to a science, and therein lay its weakness (Owens, 1995: 121).

In education today, recognition is rapidly growing that leadership cannot be reduced to formulas and prescriptions, but must be attuned to the human variables and confusions that normally abound in busy, complex, and contradictory – that is, messy – human organisations.

Owens reiterates that those who study leadership must bear in mind two things:

> *To understand that leadership is now undergoing great upheaval in all fields of human endeavor, not just in schools, and we have much to learn from enlightened leaders of business, industry, and the military, as well as from enlightened educational leaders.*
>
> *The direction of change in this upheaval is away from the old concepts of leadership as the downward exercise of power and authority, and toward developing respect and concern for the followers, and the ability to see them as powerful sources of knowledge, creativitiy, and energy for improving the organisation – sources heretofore largely untapped by administrators whose focus tended to be on hierarchical control.*
>
> (Owens, 1995: 121)

Leaders, according to Owens, are therefore not merely concerned with the leadership style and techniques that they intend to use but also with the quality and kinds of relationships that they have with followers. Leadership is not something that one does to people, nor is it a manner of behaving toward people: it is working with and through other people to achieve organisational goals. Leaders relate to followers in ways that:

> *Motivate them to unite with others in sharing a vision of where the organisation should be going and how to get it there;*
>
> *Arouse their personal commitment to the effort to bring the vision of a better future into being;*
>
> *Organise the working environment so that the envisioned goals become central values in the organisation; and*
>
> *Facilitate the work that followers need to do to achieve the vision.*
>
> (Owens, 1995: 122)

The theory of leadership that has shaped the way leadership practice is understood now is based on the work by James MacGregor Burns in 1978 (Sergiovanni, 1991: 125; Owens, 1995: 125-6). According to Burns (1978), leadership is exercised when persons with certain motives and purposes mobilize resources so as to arouse and satisfy the motives of followers. Burns identified two broad types of leadership, transactional and transformative.

> *Transactional leadership focuses on basic and largely extrinsic motives and needs; transformative leadership focuses on higher-order, more intrinsic, and ultimately moral motives and needs.*
>
> (Sergiovanni, 1991: 125)

> *Transactional educational leaders can and do offer jobs, security, tenure, favourable ratings, and more, in exchange for support, cooperation, and compliance of followers. In contrast, the transformative leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower.*
>
> (Owens, 1995: 126)

The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. This evokes a third, and higher level, of leadership: that is, the concept of "moral leadership" that began to receive so much attention in education in the 1990s. This type of leadership is also referred to as "authentic leadership".

Moral or authentic leadership comprises three related ideas, as outlined by Owens, 1995: 126):

> *(i) That the relationship between the leader and the led is not one merely of power but is a genuine sharing of mutual needs, aspirations, and values. The genuineness of this sharing is tested by whether or not the participation of followers is a matter of choice that is controlled by the follower.*
>
> *(ii) That the followers have latitude in responding to the initiatives of leaders; they have the ability to make informed choices as to who they will follow and why.*
>
> *(iii) That leaders take responsibility for delivering on the commitments and representations made to followers in negotiating the compact between leader and followers.*

Moral leadership emerges from, and always returns to, the fundamental wants and needs, aspirations, and values of followers (Sergiovanni, 1992; Owens, 1995; Duignan & Bhindi, 1995). Owens (1995: 127) adds that:

> *... this is very different from the thin veneer of participation frequently used by administrators to give their relationships with followers some patina of genuine involvement when control remains firmly in the administrators' hands.*

Instructional leadership may be emphasized as a role the principal should actively participate in whether he or she is using the transactional, transformative or authentic leadership types. This will depend on factors such as maturity of institutional development, cultural context, and also the type of leader and the followers.

The Hersey and Blanchard Model

Hersey and Blanchard's model of contingency leadership is a useful and well-known construct for understanding and guiding supervisory leadership. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983: 192), Hersey and Blanchard suggest that the best leadership style is the one that matches the maturity level of followers. Maturity is defined by Hersey and Blanchard as:

> *the capacity to set high but attainable (achievement motivation), willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or a group.*

The essentials of Hersey and Blanchard's theory are shown in Figure 3.2.

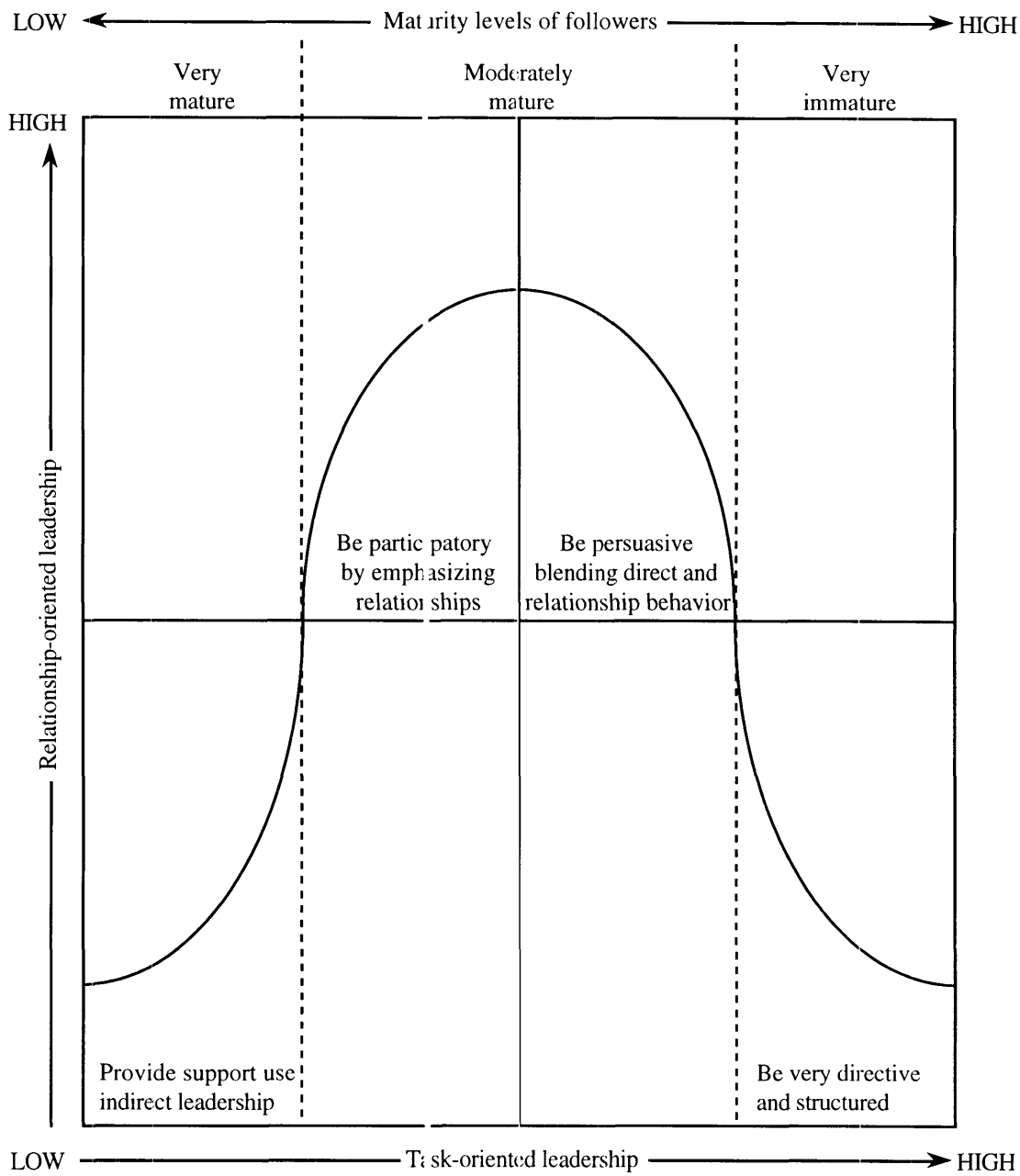

Figure 3.2 The Hersey and Blanchard Model emphasizing Maturity (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983: 92)

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983: 92) point out that according to the Hersey and Blanchard model, when the maturity level of followers is very low, Hersey and Blanchard recommend that the supervisor use a direct and structured style characterised by high-task orientation and low-relationship orientation. As the maturity level increases in a particular individual, supervisors should use a more integrated blend of task and relationship in their styles. Hersey and Blanchard also recommend that as maturity in followers continue to increase,

a more participatory approach to leadership characterised by high-relationship orientation should be used. And finally, for very mature followers who possess a great deal of self-responsibility or a great deal of knowledge about a particular event, a less directive and unobtrusive style is recommended. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983: 93) reiterate that in the Hersey and Blanchard model, the emphasis in leadership shifts from telling and selling to participating and delegating as maturity in followers increases.

Changing Nature of the Role of the Principal

There have been significant changes in the role of the principal (Hallinger, 1992; Johnson, 1992; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993; Deal & Peterson, 1994; Glickman, Allen & Lunsford, 1994; Johnson, 1994; Murphy, 1994; Gurr, 1996; Mulford, 1996), however, these changing roles have not occurred in the same ways in all countries. The changing roles have tended to reflect the structure and organisation of education departments which vary from country to country.

In the United States of America for example, Glickman, Allen and Lunsford (1994: 207-8) found that the majority of principals when questioned thought that their roles had significantly changed. The change had been between that of a traditional, directive administrative role to one of facilitator, encourager, supporter, enabler and organiser and vice versa. Further evidence of such change in the principal's role is provided by Bennet et al. (1992: 24) who found that:

> *In general, principals sense that they are now spending more time than they should on local school management central and district office functions. Administrative aspects of their job divert effort away from those concerns that principals believe deserve more attention -- their own professional development and instructional leadership.*

Similarly in Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom, the role of principals has progressed from being an administrator to an instructional leader and now more correctly described as a transformational leadership role. This is what McConnell and Jeffries (1991) (cited in Murphy, 1994: 35) found in their study:

> *Principals (in New Zealand) who formerly had time for direct classroom support of teachers and their students, and were involved in demonstration teaching, special programmes or coaching now found the demands of restructuring had shifted the emphases of their actions, time and commitment. They felt that a management emphasis had taken over from instructional leadership.*

In PNG, most principals in the high schools have tended to fulfil the role of principal primarily as an administrator and only on occasions as an instructional leader. PNG is still far from an environment of change appropriate to transformational leadership that is being experienced now in the western countries because of the early stage of maturity of its institutions and the roles being performed by leaders and followers.

The role of the principal in PNG high schools has always been perceived as that of administrator/manager and public relations representative. There has been a lack of emphasis and negligible training on the instructional leadership role of the principal.

Furthermore, research on school effectiveness conducted in PNG so far has not specifically addressed the role of the principalship in much detail (e.g. Vulliamy, 1986 & 1987; Weeks, 1990; Sengi, 1995). Since 1992 the PNG education system has been going through a restructuring process, however, it is not very clear how this restructuring will affect the role of the principal. This still remains a worthwhile research area for further investigation.

Although there is some evidence of the devolution of decision making similar to the environment in western countries, the nature of the devolution of decision- making in PNG is different. The responsibility for school administration was handed over to the provincial governments by the national government in 1977. The principal of a school is responsible to the Advisor-Education in the Division of Education in each Province resulting in a tight control over school decision-making. School-based management has not yet been introduced in the PNG education system.

Papua New Guinea is in a transition stage from a highly centralised system, reflected in a principal as an administrator and the devolving situation towards a transformational or authentic role. Thus, the appropriate role of the principal at the present stage in PNG is somewhere between the

administrative and transformational/authentic roles. Notwithstanding the leadership styles utilised by principals it is essential for a principal in the PNG context to have an instructional leadership role because instruction (teaching) in schools is deficient.

Concept of Instructional Leadership

Many research studies focussing on the instructional leadership behaviour of principals have attempted to clarify the concept of instructional leadership. The researcher has selected three definitions as the basis of discussion for this study.

Keefe and Jenkins (1984: i) defined instructional leadership as:

> *the principal's role in providing direction, resources, and support to teachers and students for the improvement of teaching and learning in the school.*

Acheson and Smith (1986: 3) defined instructional leadership as:

> *leadership that is directly related to the processes of instruction where teachers, learners, and the curriculum interact. To exert leadership over this process, the principal or other leader must deal with – in the case of teachers – supervision, evaluation, staff development, and inservice training. In governing the content of instruction, that is, the curriculum, the instructional leader must oversee materials selection and exercise choices in scope and sequence, unit construction, and design of activities.*

However, a number of researchers including Gersten et al., (1982), Hallinger and Murphy (1985), Acheson and Smith (1986), Weber (1989), Heck et al. (1990a), van de Grift (1990), Willis and Bartell (1990), and Wildy and Dimmock (1993) have all accepted De Bevoise's (1984: 15) definition of instructional leadership that encompasses:

> *those actions that a principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in* [staff as well as] *student learning.* [De Bevoise adds that] *generally such actions focus on setting schoolwide goals, defining the purpose of schooling, providing the resources needed for learning to occur, supervising and evaluating teachers, coordinating staff development programs, and creating collegial relationships with and among teachers.*

Two terms have been used as convenient labels for these behaviours/actions – instructional management and instructional leadership. The latter term was used in this study to describe what DeBevoise calls those actions that a principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning.

The Contexts of Instructional Leadership

It is important to examine the contexts in which the principal must function in order to understand how principals can affect the instructional environment of schools. Weber (1989: 193) points out that principals operate in a multilevel world, working with influences both within and outside of the school – with community members and their interests as well as with teachers, students, and other administrators. Personal characteristics and beliefs also affect principals' decision-making processes and their style of instructional leadership.

The Community Context

Studies (Dwyer et al., 1983; Hallinger & Murphy, 1983) have shown that the impact of the community on the behaviour of principals and the nature of their work was evident. These studies have concluded that the attention of principals is often devoted to matters external to the school thereby affecting the instructional process of the school. Moreover, it was also found that the socioeconomic status of the community also influenced how a principal tended to manage instruction (Weber, 1989: 194).

The Institutional Context

Schools can be considered as institutional "cultures" with their own particular characters. But unlike many other institutions – corporations, political parties, and churches, for instance, schools do not tend to be hierarchical in structure, with neatly established lines of authority and communication, particularly in high schools (Weber, 1989: 194-5).

In schools, instructional leaders work within a context in which teachers need to be trusted as well as trained. Principals need to work with the existing resources in a school and improve the quality of instruction through strategies of persuasion and change. When attempting to manage instruction, principals should not disregard the existing norms in their schools.

Bossert (1986: 113-4) pointed out that studies have reported that Principals of successful schools have the following characteristics.

1. ***Goals and Production Emphasis.***
   Effective principals are actively involved in setting instructional goals, emphasizing basic skills instruction, developing performance standards for students, and expressing the belief that all students can achieve (Wellisch et al., 1978; Brookover et al, 1979).

2. ***Power and Decision Making.***
   Effective principals are more powerful than their colleagues, especially in the areas of curriculum and instruction. They are seen as leaders and are effective in maintaining the support of parents and the local community (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1980; Lipman, 1982).

3. ***Management* [of Instruction].**
   Principals in effective schools devote more time to the coordination and management of instruction and are more skilled in instructional matters. They observe their teachers at work, discuss instructional problems, support teachers' efforts to improve, and develop evaluation procedures that assess teacher and student performance (Clark, et al., 1980; Bossert et al., 1982).

4. ***Human Relations.***
   Effective principals recognize the unique styles and needs of teachers and help teachers achieve their own performance goals. They instil a sense of pride in the school among teachers, students and parents (Rutter et al., 1979; Brookover et al., 1979).

These characteristics form a picture that may help to clarify what instructional leaders can hope to accomplish in the pursuit of instructional excellence. They appear to be the outgrowth of school norms, that is, the expectations collectively held and generally striven after by principals and teachers in schools.

Nevertheless, Little (1982: 338-9) noted that successful schools always have two vital norms that help to shape teachers' interactions with principals and with each other. First, there is a norm of collegiality, by which teachers expect to work closely together as colleagues. Second, there is a norm of continuous improvement, meaning that teachers often scrutinize and discuss their teaching practices, and that experimentation in teaching strategies is

encouraged. These norms testify to the mutual support and professional interactions among the staff in effective schools.

The Management Styles of Instructional Leaders

In addition to the community and institutional influences, a third factor also affects principals' management behaviours – their personal characteristics. Management styles of successful principals vary widely. Some principals manage by maintaining existing norms in a school and influence others by suggestions, other principals exercise control over instructional practices at the classroom level, monitoring and even changing teachers' lesson plans (Weber, 1989: 195).

Of course, principals' behaviours are not solely controlled by their temperaments, they are also influenced by the surrounding community and by the school itself. Nevertheless, principals do seem to exercise their authority with distinctly individual styles. Such stylistic preferences also have some influence over the way principals structure their schools and over which behaviours they reward and how they reward them.

Although successful principals possess a wide range of personal characteristics, a few traits seem to be present in most successful instructional leaders. The educational welfare of the students in their care is probably the single most important concern of successful principals. With their eyes on this ultimate goal – improved student learning – good instructional leaders are able to modify or alter their preferred modes when situations require.

Blumberg and Greenfield (1986 (cited in Weber, 1989: 196) points out that many of the effective principals they studied were innovators who retained improving student learning as their goal but continually sought new ways to achieve this goal. Successful principals defined what was possible for them to do only after testing the limits. They avoided prior assumptions about what could and could not be accomplished.

Another quality of successful principals was the predictable routine established by effective instructional leaders. Routine activities performed by principals can help keep schools moving toward long-term goals such as maintaining norms of student behaviour, suggesting changes in teaching, or developing an awareness of the distractions and changes underway in the

school. The effects of these routine actions can be substantial if a principal carefully selects the routine he or she promotes.

In general, as Weber (1989: 195-6) reiterates:

> *... successful principals have a pragmatic understanding of the school environment that assists them in their efforts to improve student performance. Such pragmatism requires influencing the school environment, first through modes of behaviour that encourage positive learning outcomes, and second through routine activities that make their work reliable and visible.*

Research into Instructional Leadership

Research into the instructional leadership behaviour of principals has been conducted largely within the framework of school effectiveness. Different authors have attempted to specify and validate the exact nature of leadership behaviours/actions associated with relatively high levels of student achievement. Table 3.3 presents the main categories of instructional leadership behaviours/actions described by the following authors: Jackson et al., 1983; Daresh & Liu, 1985; Hallinger and Murphy, 1985; Patterson 1977; Duke, 1987; and Weber, 1989 and 1997.

When comparing and contrasting the work of these authors, the researcher concludes that there is no consensus emerging on the exact nature of instructional leadership. Certain general areas of administrative responsibilities appear consistently. However, these studies have provided evidence of what principals and other educators think are the behaviours/actions associated with instructional leadership.

Duke 1987	Hallinger & Murphy 1985	Jackson et al 1983	Patterson 1977	Daresh & Liu 1985	Weber 1989 & 1997
Teacher supervision and development	Defines the mission Frames goals Communicates goals	Establishes school goals and standards	Helps individual staff	Provides staff development	Defines the mission
Teacher evaluation	Manages curriculum and instruction Knows curriculum and instruction Coordinates curriculum Supervises and evaluates Monitors progress	Establishes positive school climate and expectations for success	Helps groups of teachers	Conducts teacher supervision and evaluation	Manages curriculum and instruction
Instructional management and support	Promotes school climates Sets standards Sets expectations Protects time Promotes improvement	Establishes curriculum and instruction that emphasize the basic skills	Is concerned about professional growth of teachers Develops curriculum Supports staff improvement	Facilitates instruction Acquires resources and maintains facilities Resolves student problems	Promotes a positive learning climate
Resource management		Establishes coordination linkages and parent community support	Conducts staff conferences on curriculum		Observes and gives feedback to teachers
Quality control coordination trouble-shooting			Conducts special-purpose conferences Counsels pupils Helps staff understand pupils and central office Is concerned with teacher suggestions, problems and requests		Assesses the instructional program

Table 3.3 Instructional Leadership Behaviours/Actions (After Duke, 1987: 75)

The combination of the behaviours/actions of instructional leadership identified by Weber (1989 & 1997) and Hallinger and Murphy (1985) created the framework of this study. Weber and Hallinger and Murphy's models were selected over the other authors' models for the following reasons:

i) Both models places emphasis on the same key dimensions: mission definition, management of curriculum and instruction, and school

climate promotion, which indirectly also addressed the behaviours identified by the other authors.

ii) Their descriptions of instructional leadership behaviours/actions were derived from research studies on school effectiveness.

Actions Central to Instructional Leadership

Weber (1989) identifies the following activities as the central functions of the instructional leadership role expected of a school principal:

1. Defining and Communicating the School Goals;
2. Managing the Curriculum and Instruction;
3. Promoting a Positive School Climate;
4. Observing and Providing Feedback to Teachers; and
5. Assessing the Instructional Program.

According to Weber, if these activities are carried out effectively and efficiently, these activities may improve or maintain conditions that will encourage student learning and student achievement as well as promote growth in staff in schools. These central functions are now described in turn.

Defining and Communicating the School Goals

Research studies (e.g. Dwyer et al., 1983; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986; McCorley, 1988; Senge, 1990; Sergiovanni, 1991; Starratt, 1993; Leithwood et al., 1994) have shown that schools where the principals have a mission towards student achievement in academic excellence, tend to direct the activities of the school, the community and resources towards accomplishing that goal.

Leithwood et al.'s study is a classic example of the others. In their study they found that:

> *teachers' commitment to change in instructional programs was affected the most by leadership that gave direction, purpose and meaning to their work. Especially strong influences were the vision-creating and consensus-building practices of school leaders.*
>
> (Leithwood et al., 1994: 92)

But what is meant by a vision for an instructional program? A vision, according to Bennis and Nanus (1985: 89) is:

> *a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organisation .... as vague as a dream or as precise as a goal or mission statement .... a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organisation, a condition that is better in some important ways than what now exists.*

McCorley (1988: 15) argues that school leaders must have a vision of what it is they want to do, and where it is they want to go. However, Senge (1990) (cited in Weber, 1997: 259) points out that teachers (including the principal) should collaborate as a team to share personal visions or values and come up with a shared vision of what it is that the school must do and where it is the school must go. McCorley (1988: 13) adds that it should not be only the teaching staff but include the non-teaching staff, the students and the parents. Ideally, this effort will unite the whole school community behind their common articulation of the vision and the purposes of the school. Harchar and Hyle (1996: 28) also support the view that an excellent instructional leader must lead the teachers, the students and the community in creating a combined vision of an excellent school. Key elements required for successful instructional leadership, according to Harchar and Hyle, includes establishing vision, developing trust, fostering collaboration and demanding respect for all in the school community.

Studies on School Climate and Leadership (e.g. Bolster, 1989; Dinham et al., 1995) have found that lack of consultation and poor communication between school leaders and others who make up the school could have deleterious effects on staff and student morale and cohesiveness.

Therefore, Hallinger and Murphy (1985: 221-2) reiterate that the principal's role is to frame schoolwide goals and communicate these goals in such a way that a sense of shared purpose exists, linking together the various activities that take place in classrooms throughout the school to both staff, students and the parents. In framing school goals, Hallinger and Murphy (ibid) add that the emphasis should be on fewer goals around which staff energy and other school resources can be mobilized. A few coordinated objectives, each with a manageable scope should work best. The goals should incorporate data on past and present student high performances and include staff responsibilities for

achieving the goals. Staff, students and parents' input should be sought during the development of the goals.

In communicating school goals, Hallinger and Murphy (ibid) also add that the principal should ensure that the importance of the school goals are understood by discussing and reviewing the goals with staff, students and parents periodically during the school year, especially in the context of instructional, curricular, and budgetary decisions.

Managing the Curriculum and Instruction

In managing the curriculum and instruction, the principal as instructional leader has the opportunity to monitor the implementation of the shared-vision and common goals of the school. Gurr (1996: 229) points out that the principal is responsible for the standard of instruction and relies heavily on delegation of tasks and responsibilities to others to supervise the instructional process. This is an indirect form of instructional leadership. The tasks delegated include promoting quality instruction, supervision and evaluation of instruction, monitoring student progress and coordinating the curriculum. The principal's role is one of monitoring what is happening and particularly in setting directions for the delegated tasks.

Weber (1997: 260) on the other hand, argues that the major task confronting an instructional leader in implementing curriculum and instruction change would be recognizing the instructional options available to teachers and then selecting, with teachers, those options that best fit the constraints provided by the school environment. The school's vision and common goals which are focussed on student achievement and academic excellence cannot be accomplished if instructional resources are not available to support the teaching efforts put in by teachers. This requries the principal as instructional leader to work closely with teachers.

Weber (ibid) reiterates that the principal as instructional leader needs to have credibility as a good teacher and therefore needs to know about instructional methods and trends in order to provide informed advice and communicate priorites for improvement in a class or a program when describing and analysing teaching practices with teachers. Weber (ibid) suggests the basic trends and classroom supervision areas are:

Trends in Media and Methods:	***Classroom Supervision Areas:***
Textbook Selection	*Teaching Styles*
New Technologies	*Class Size*
Teacher-Developed Materials	*Grouping Practices*
Computer Software	*Use of Time and Space*
Personalised Instruction	*Instructional Strategies*
Direct Instruction	*Instructional Media/Materials*
Mastery Learning	*Homework*
Cooperative Small-Group Learning	
Study Skills	

(Weber, 1997: 260-1)

It is unrealistic to expect the instructional leader, i.e. the principal, to be an expert in each of these areas, nevertheless, as Weber (ibid: 261) points out, if training and opportunities for study are spread among both principal and teachers, a school can have both theoretical and working knowledge of most of these areas or it can be available through consultants.

In Niemeyer and Hatfield's (1989) (cited in Weber, 1997: 261) model of the process of curriculum supervision, they noted that the process involves multiple participants and broad-based leadership. An evolving curriculum requires input from the whole school's instructional and support staff, such as librarians. It is highlighted in their model that:

> *decision-making is most effective when done by a leader with a support team providing reinforcement and assistance needed to get the job done.*

Glatthorn (1992) (cited in Weber, 1997: 261-2) lists some functions that such support teams can and do perform (See Table 3.4).

Functions	Examples
1. Plan	Exchange lesson plans Develop common plans Critique plans
2. Schedule	Allocate time Group students
3. Diagnose Student Problems	Identify and diagnose problems of learning, motivation, and discipline Make referrals
4. Teach	Exchange classes Present lessons together Assist in large-group sessions Lead small-group seminars
5. Assess Learning	Develop, administer, and evaluate alternative forms of assessment
6. Develop Curricula and Instructional Materials	Develop integrated units Develop enrichment and remediation materials
7. Identify Organisational Problems	Monitor learning and organisational climate Identify developing problems
8. Provide for Professional Development	Induct new teachers Use peer coaching Conduct action research Conduct professional dialogues

Table 3.4 Functions of the Instructional Team (Glatthorn, 1992, cited in Weber, 1997: 262)

According to Glatthorn (1992), when teachers' inputs are incorporated into curriculum management, this effort requires the remaking of the decision-making lines of authority to include more of those professionals who actually carry out the curriculum policies in the classroom. Weber (1997: 263) stresses the importance of teachers' contributions in decision-making by stating that:

> *Making participation, and even leadership, accessible, acknowledges that teachers' contributions are powerful in improving the instructional program.*

An essential part of managing curriculum and instruction is for the instructional leader to monitor student progress. Studies (e.g. Stallings and Mohlman, 1981; Brookover et al., 1982) have claimed that instructionally effective schools emphasise both standardised and criterion-referenced testing. Hallinger and Murphy (1985: 222) reiterate the importance of testing in schools by stating that:

> *Tests are used to diagnose programmatic and student weaknesses, to evaluate the results of changes in the school's instructional program, and to make classroom assignments.*

In addition to what Hallinger and Murphy have stated, tests can also be used as indicators of achievement (i.e. what has been learned).

Hallinger and Murphy (ibid: 223) add that a principal, as an instructional leader, plays a key role in testing in several ways:

> *(i) They provide teachers with test results in a timely and useful fashion,*
> *(ii) They discuss test results with the staff as a whole and with grade-level staff and individual teachers,*
> *(iii) They provide interpretive analyses that describe the test data in a concise form for teachers, and*
> *(iv) They use test results for setting goals, assessing the curriculum, evaluating instruction, and measuring progress toward school goals.*

Weber (1997: 263) points out that the broader curriculum does not include only what is taught but it includes what is learned, that is, not only teachers' experiences but students' experiences as well. The issues in curriculum management, such as coverage and technique, intertwine with the areas of learning climate and program assessment.

Promoting a Positive Learning Climate

The greatest influence that appears to affect students' learning is the sets of *beliefs*, *values*, and *attitudes* that administrators, teachers, and students hold about learning. Lezotte et al. (1980) (cited in Weber, 1997: 263) defines *learning climate* as:

> *the norms, beliefs, and attitudes reflected in institutional patterns and behaviour practices that enhance or impede student learning.*

According to Weber (1997: 263-4), students form attitudes about academic learning, at least in part, from the adults within and beyond the school. This includes the principal, the teaching staff, the non-teaching staff and the parents. Weber (1997: 264) points out the importance of this statement by stating that in studies of both effective and ineffective schools, it was found

that the norms for learning come from the staff's requirements of students, that is:

> *the amount of time needed for studying, the amount of work assigned, the degree of independent work students can do, the degree of preparedness students feel about the work given them, the appropriate behaviours for school, and the staff's judgements of whether students are capable of learning.*

Of all these variables, as pointed out by Weber, all are controllable by the adults in the school, the most important being the expectations and judgements about students' abilities to learn.

To maintain a positive learning climate, Brookover et al. (1982) (cited in Weber, 1989: 204) point out that an instructional leader has three tasks:

> *(i) raise teacher expectations of students;*
> *(ii) communicate high expectations to all students; and*
> *(iii) establish an instructional program that requires a mastery of objectives and also supports it.*

According to Weber (1989: 205), there are undoubtedly many ways the instructional leader can bring about each of these goals. For example, principals can share positive achievement data with teachers. Sharing good news about effectiveness in one area can have a "ripple effect", motivating teachers to increase effectiveness in other areas as well. Ultimately, the good news can affect student achievement too, by conditioning teachers to expect good performances in formerly successful areas.

In support, Heck and Marcoulides (1990b) (cited in Weber, 1997: 264) found in their study that an instructional leader can take several actions to enhance the learning climate in the school. They recommend three activities for improving a school's learning climate:

> *(i) communicating instructional goals;*
> *(ii) establishing high expectations for performance; and*
> *(iii) establishing an orderly, positive learning environment with a clear discipline code.*

In the process of developing a positive learning climate, Hallinger and Murphy (1985: 223) point out that the principal can communicate expectations for students and teachers through the policies and practices recommended by

the school. In the words of Hallinger and Murphy, this is how a principal may influence student and teacher attitides towards learning:

> *the principal can influence student and teacher attitudes through the creation of a reward structure that reinforces academic achievement and productive effort; through clear, explicit standards embodying what the school expects from students; through the careful use of school time; and through the selection and implementation of high-quality staff development programs.*

Another way to improve a school's instructional climate is by increasing the amount of time devoted to instruction. Weber (1989: 207) argues that studies have proved that time-on-task is highly related to achievement. The more time students spend on learning, the better the outcomes. Students also gain more interest in subjects and a better attitude toward learning. This idea is supported by Gurr (1996) as well as Stallings and Mohlman (1981) (cited in Weber, 1989: 208), who call attention to the importance of providing teachers with periods of uninterrupted instructional time by limiting interruptions of classroom learning time. Stallings and Mohlman add that:

> *The principal can control this area of activity through the development and enforcement of schoolwide policies. Principals who successfully implement policies that limit interruptions of classroom learning time can increase allocated learning time and, potentially, student achievement.*
>
> (cited in Weber, 1989: 208)

Principals can also promote a positive school learning climate by promoting professional development. Hallinger and Murphy (1985: 223), points out that principals have several ways of supporting teachers' efforts to improve instruction:

> *(i) [Principals] can inform teachers of opportunities for staff development and lead in-service training activities.*
>
> *(ii) [Principals] can ensure that staff development activities are closely linked to school goals and that participation is either schoolwide or centered on natural groupings. This function also involves helping teachers integrate skills learned during staff development programs and assisting in classroom implementation.*

According to Weber (1997: 270), recent research (e.g. McCaslin & Good, 1992; Watts & Castle, 1993) has suggested that when teachers are provided with time for professional development, it helps to reduce the chances of burnout and a lack of fulfilment in their work and, at the same time, increases the need for professional collaboration. Weber (ibid) adds that:

> *schools can increase professional-development time in a number of ways that involve varying degrees of change from the status quo: restructuring the school day, for instance, adding instructional time to the first days of the week and releasing students early on Friday for teacher development activities; scheduling a common time to allow the members of teaching teams to do their planning together; or giving teachers inservice credits for developing programs on their own time.*

Principals can also promote a positive school learning climate by maintaining high visibility on the campus and in classrooms. Hallinger and Murphy (1985: 223) point out that:

> *the principal's visibility on the campus and in classrooms increases interactions between the principal and students as well as with teachers. Informal interaction of these types provides the principal with more information on the needs of the students and teachers. It also affords the principal opportunities to communicate the priorities of the school. This can have positive effects on students' and teachers' attitudes and behaviours*

Another important part of the principal's role in creating a positive learning climate involves setting up a work structure that rewards and recognises teachers and students for their efforts. Some forms of reward available to principals include privately expressed praise, public recognition and formal honors and awards. Weber (1997: 267) poses two advantages of principals providing appropriate rewards and recognition to teachers and students for reinforcement. Firstly, rewards and recognition can honor a range of learning styles and intelligences and secondly, it can enhance the sense of common effort that lightens the work of learning and teaching.

Hallinger and Murphy (1985: 224) also add that it is possible to create a school learning climate in which students and teachers value academic achievement by frequently rewarding and recognising them before other teachers and

students. It is important therefore that the classrooms and school reward systems are linked, ensuring that they are mutually supportive. Through the use of rewards and recognition staff and student morale will increase and it can stimulate better efforts in the future.

Finally, principals can also promote a positive learning climate by developing clearly defined high standards and reinforcing the high expectations necessary for improving student learning. According to Weber (1997: 264), a principal, as an instructional leader:

> *performs like good coaches, setting goals and monitoring expectations with due consideration of the players' abilities and hopes. Like coaches* [they] *can prevent a school from falling into the trap of self-fulfilling low expectations.*

Brookover et al. (1982) (cited in Weber, 1997: 265) point out that the raising or lowering of expectations by the principal has been shown to change a teacher's range of instructional activities. Brookover et al. use a list of essential instructional elements to evaluate student performance (see Appendix C). They argue that when teachers lower their expectations of students they incorporate fewer instructional elements into their classroom teaching. Conversely, when teachers raise their expectations of students they use more of the instructional elements.

Observing and Giving Feedback to Teachers

Most of the studies done on instructional leadership (e.g. Bird & Little 1985) have placed emphasis on the importance of the role of the principal in conducting direct observation of teachers in their classrooms. In fact, these studies have suggested that, when direct observations are done well, they can become the best forms of instructional management. For instructional leaders and for teachers, observations can become invaluable opportunities for professional interactions. To set the tone for continuous improvement in instruction, Weber (1989: 208) argues that an instructional leader must operate:

> *... as a facilitator of collegiality, ... rather than making prescriptions for ills.*

Acheson (1985) (cited in Weber, 1989: 208) points out that observers and evaluators of teachers must have knowledge and skills in three areas aimed at improving teacher performance:

> *i) Intelligent planning requires a knowledge of strategies, research, and subject matter, as well as knowledge of the personality and characteristics of individual teachers;*
>
> *ii) in recording data about the teachers' performances, the observers must be unobtrusive and know what to look for; and*
>
> *iii) the observers must give helpful, collegial feedback.*

In addition to improving teacher performance, Weber (1989: 209) claims that:

> *observations can be psychologically and socially beneficial as well. One such benefit may be giving teachers a sense of excitement about performing work that matters. Observations may also have professional rewards (as in advancement, recognition, or collegiality) or bureaucratic consequences. Moreover, observations can reflect on the administrators, as well.*

So how should an instructional leader handle the monitoring of teachers performance? Weber (1997: 271) points out that a teacher who is to be observed must trust the observer if the observation is going to be beneficial. He lists three ways:

> *First, the teacher must believe that the observer intends no harm; second, the teacher must be convinced that the criteria and procedures of evaluation are predictable and open; and third, the teacher must have confidence that the observer will provide information to improve the nuts-and-bolts of his or her teaching.*

Assessing the Instructional Program

Another task of instructional leaders is to assess and revise the instructional program for its effectiveness. Weber (1997: 272) argues that deliberate and ongoing assessment is an important part of instructional leadership. Program assessment shows why leadership is needed in an instructional program. Weber (ibid: 273) reiterates the importance of program assessment by stating that:

> *Program assessment determines what the school is good at and what it is not. It provides information for planning, revising, or continuing parts of the program. Instructional leaders contribute to this process in a variety of ways, in planning, designing, and administering an assessment and in interpreting the outcomes.*
>
> *Assessment depends not only on information about perceptions of how well the instructional program is doing; it also depends on facts about what is being taught overall. Occasionally, what is actually being taught differs from the intended or understood curriculum. Curriculum mapping may provide an overview of the emphasis in instruction in a department, school, or district.*
>
> (Weber, 1997: 273)

According to Weber (1989: 211) evaluations of both individual courses and whole programs can be monitored in three stages:

> *(i) before the course or program (diagnostic evaluation),*
> *(ii) during the course or program (formative evaluation), and*
> *(iii) after the teaching of the course or program (summative evaluation).*

It is the task of principals and other leaders to monitor the worth and nature of planned activities to see how they match the general program objectives and how they fit with each other. Program analysis includes testing of materials, spoken content, classroom activities, and the other ways of reaching program objectives. In other words, formative monitoring of programs is as important as summative monitoring.

In a recent study Carr and Harris (1993) (cited in Weber, 1997: 273) devised a model of participative assessment which they claim is suitable for providing leadership opportunities at every level with an emphasis on team planning. Table 3.5 shows the sort of questions appropriate to assessments that include data on students, teachers, and programs.

	Inputs	Processes	Outcomes
Student	Is the curriculum available to students? (texts, facilities, schedule, etc.)	Are learning experiences matched to the student and the tasks at hand? (learning styles, diagnostic assessment, etc.)	Is the student learning at an acceptable rate? Is the assessment of performance based on goals? (knowledge, skills, attitudes, appreciation)
Teacher	Does instructional planning match the curriculum? (time allocation, selection of materials, staff development, etc.)	Do instructional strategies match the students and the task at hand? (management, methods, assessment)	Does the teacher's instruction lead to changes in student performance? (Formative) Is the teacher's level of performance acceptable? (Summative)
Program	Does the allocation of time, people, and resources match the curriculum? (budget, staffing, master schedule, etc.)	Do teaching strategies and learning activities match the curriculum? (time on task, interaction analysis, etc.)	Are the goals of the curriculum being reached? (Formative) Are they the right goals? (Summative)

Table 3.5 Curricular and Instructional Assessment : A Relational Model (Carr and Harris (1993) (cited in Weber, 1997: 277)

The questions, as highlighted in Table 3.5, are distinguished by three topics, Carr and Harris (1993) (cited in Weber, 1997: 276) identifies them as:

* ***Input*** – *How available are resources for instruction-text supplies?*

* ***Process*** – *What is the nature of instruction in each particular area?*

* ***Outcome*** – *What are the results of instruction?*

Assessment questions that can bring out the inputs, processes, and outcomes in any area of the curriculum can be created by using curriculum guidelines.

The next step, according to Carr and Harris (1993) (cited in Weber, ibid) is to determine what data would best answer each question. The available options may not be adequate to answer a question, so information will need to be gathered to fill in gaps. Generally, information is available from:

* *standardised tests*
* *portfolios of student work*
* *interviews*
* *reviews of records*
* *school-developed tests*
* *observations*
* *questionnaires*

Carr and Harris (1993) (cited in Weber, ibid) state that these sources can provide the following sorts of information on inputs, processes and outcomes of the instructional program:

* ***Inputs*** – *supplies/equipment, time, teacher preparation, staffing, student/staff ratio, policies/procedures.*

* ***Processes*** – *uses of supplies/equipment, uses of time, instructional activities, implementation of policies/procedures, classroom teaching/learning techniques.*

* ***Outcomes*** – *individual achievement scores, group scores, student attitudes (toward self, learning, school, subjects), student attributes and behaviours, long–term outcomes (job readiness, for instance).*

(Carr & Harris (1993) (cited in Weber, 1997: 276)

It is concluded that instructional leadership can provide opportunities for the whole school system to understand what each school is and how it may be changed into what it could be.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has concentrated on research findings on school effectiveness and described instructional leadership as one aspect of school leadership for which principals have a responsibility. Studies from a number of countries have indicated that principals can, and do, make a difference both to teachers and to students, through their skills as instructional leaders.

The role of the principalship has changed over the years from a middle manager to an instructional leader to now, in most western countries, a transformational leader. The situation in PNG is that principals' roles are mainly at the administrative and instructional leadership levels. Although the introduction of the new reform education system might have some

impact on the role the principals in PNG, to the researcher's knowledge no investigation has as yet been conducted in this area.

The five main functions described in this chapter which constitutes instructional leadership: defining and communicating school goals, managing the curriculum and instruction, promoting a positive learning climate, observing and giving feedback to teachers, and assessing the instructional program, highlight the crucial functions that a principal has to perform if he or she is to be regarded as an instructional leader.

The next chapter will explain the research plan and the methodology that was utilised when undertaking this investigation. A conceptual framework which was developed out of the literature review is described. This framework was used as the analytical model to assess the instructional leadership behaviour of the principals who participated in this study.

Chapter 4: Research Plan and Methodology

Introduction

This chapter outlines the research plan and the methodolodgy that was used in conducting this study. First, the purpose of the research, together with the problem, are re-stated. Second, a brief rationale for the development of the conceptual framework is described, the conceptual framework of the study is presented in a diagramatic form, the consequent research plan is outlined and a justification of the choice of qualitative research method is made. The Case Study Approach (CSA) and a justification for the use of a descriptive survey questionnaire are also described. Third, the researcher's credentials, sources of data and data collection determinants, the sample, the setting and the instrumentation used are presented. An account is given of the pilot project conducted at Uralla Central School, Department of School Education, New South Wales to pre-test the survey questionnaire used in this study. The amendments to the survey questionnaire were based on the findings from this pilot project. The fourth section describes the method that was used in analysing and interpreting the raw data collected. In the fifth section ethical considerations associated with this research are outlined and examined in terms of this research project. A chapter summary concludes Chapter Four.

Research Problem and Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate the instructional leadership behaviour of high school principals in the New Ireland Province in Papua New Guinea. The study aimed to identify whether New Ireland Provincial high school principals engaged in actions consistent with instructional leadership.

Consistent with the aim of the study, the following research questions were posed:

(i) Do principals in the New Ireland Provincial high schools in Papua New Guinea engage in actions consistent with instructional leadership?

(ii) If actions consistent with instructional leadership are engaged in, what are they and why are they undertaken?

(iii) If actions consistent with instructional leadership are not engaged in, why are they not?

The Conceptual Framework

Conceptualizing Instructional Leadership

The conceptual framework for this study contends that the principals can, and do make a difference both to students and to teachers, through their skills as instructional leaders. Lipman et al., (1985: 129) argues that:

> *if one had to select the single factor that spells the difference between success or failure of the school, it would be the availability of a principal to lead the staff in planning, implementing, and evaluating improvements in the school's curricular, cocurricular, and extracurricular programs.*

However, according to Duke (1987: 74), the typical approach to conceptualising instructional leadership has been for researchers to review first-generation school-effectiveness studies and identify frequently cited characteristics of principals from effective schools. Lists of these are then used to generate items for rating scales or surveys of instructional leadership. These instruments, in turn, are administered to various groups – including teachers and school administrators – and further refined. The result is a set of reasonably valid and reliable tools for measuring the extent to which particular school leaders are perceived to manifest characteristics associated with instructional leadership.

Studying Principal Behaviour

The framework presented below (see Figure 4.1.) was used as the analytical model in this study to assess the instructional leadership behaviour of the high school principals.

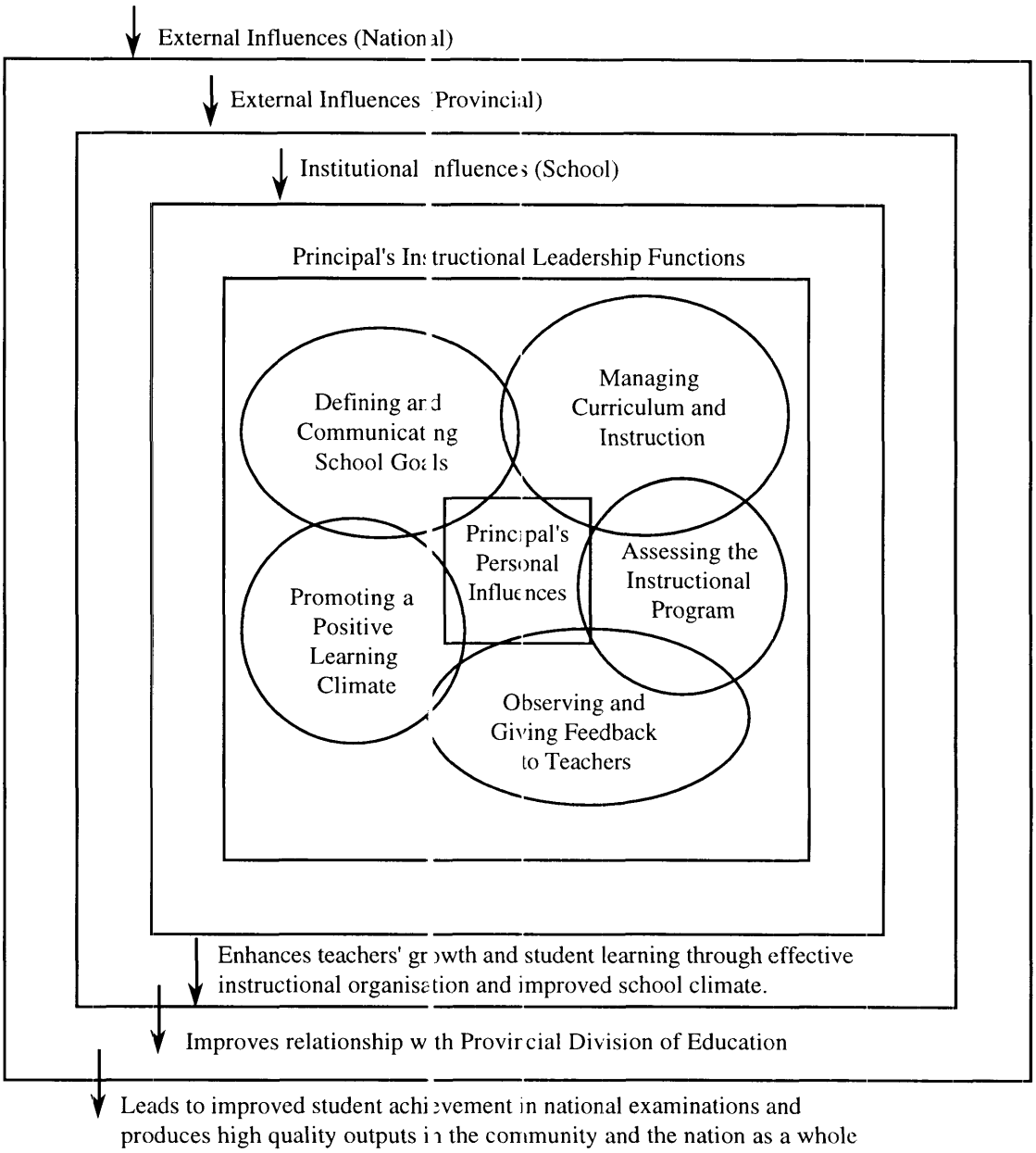

Figure 4.1 Conceptual Framework for the Study to Assess the Instructional Leadership behaviour of High School Principals in New Ireland Province, Papua New Guinea

This framework shows that a principal's instructional leadership behaviour affects two fundamental aspects of the school's social organisation – climate and instructional organisation. These are the contexts which shape teachers' behaviour and students' learning experiences. At the same time, the principal's own leadership actions are shaped by factors external to the school – personal, national, provincial and community influences.

To understand how principals can affect the instructional environment of schools, Weber (1989: 192-3) points out that one must first examine the contexts in which the principal must function:

> *Principals operate in a multilevel world, working with influences both within and outside of the school – with community members and their interests as well as with teachers, students, and other administrators. Personal characteristics and beliefs also affect principals' decision-making processes and their styles of instructional leadership.*

The conceptual framework places the research questions within five main functions of the instructional leadership role as identified by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) and Weber (1989). These functions were adopted and adapted to the PNG context. The Research Plan (see Figure 4.2, page 90) was devised from this framework.

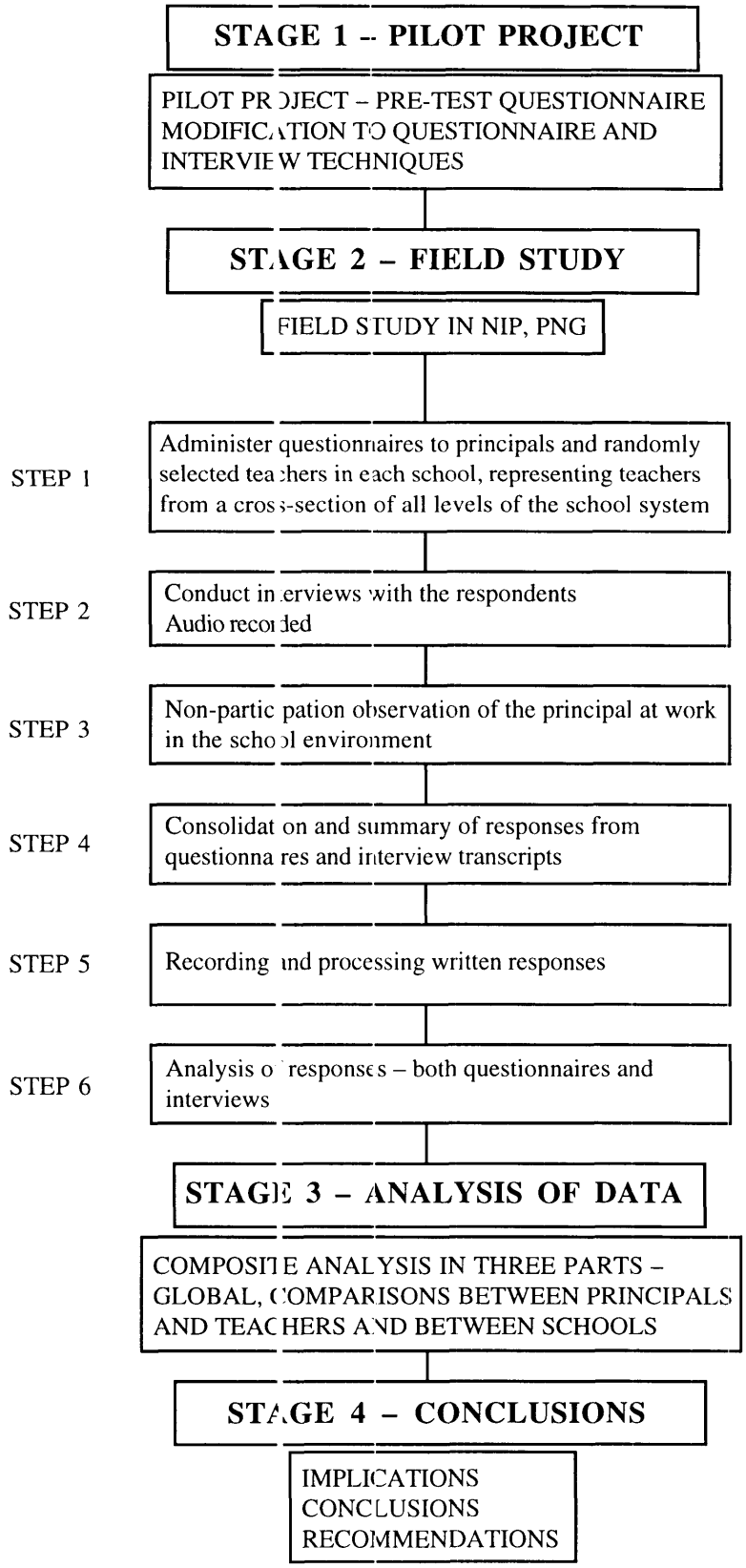

Figure 4.2 Research Plan

Research Plan

The research plan, derived from the conceptual framework, sought to obtain information on the five major functions which constitute instructional leadership.

Stage 1 – Pilot Project

The first was a pilot project involving the principal and selected teachers at the Uralla Central School. It was the researcher's intention to modify and adapt the questionnaire if the respondents in this pilot project indicated the need for such (see Appendix D). During this stage, the researcher had the opportunity to test several interview techniques. At the end of this stage, the manner in which the interview with the principal was conducted was reviewed with the researcher's thesis supervisor.

Stage 2 – Field Study

This involved the actual data collection in NIP high schools in PNG. Within Stage 2, six steps representing the data collection, verification, processing and initial analysis of data were included. These steps are now explained.

In Step 1 data were collected using two separate survey questionnaires, one designed for the principals, and the other for teachers. The same questions were asked of all respondents – modified slightly to suit either the principals or the teachers (see Appendices E and F).

In Step 2 the researcher conducted follow up interviews with each of the respondents with reference to their responses on the questionnaires. The interviews followed a similar order to the questionnaires, mainly asking respondents to clarify their responses, in particular whether the response was a ***never, seldom, sometimes, frequently*** or ***always*** response to important tasks under each of the functions. This was done in order to ensure accuracy.

Each interview was tape recorded. This was done to allow respondents to respond to questions without any interruptions and to enable the researcher to validate data.

In Step 3 the researcher spent a day in each school observing the school but mainly focussing attention on the activities of the principal. Summary notes of the day's activities were compiled at the end of the day. The data were used to validate data gathered from the questionnaires and interviews.

In Step 4, the initial consolidation and process of summarizing responses from questionnaires was conducted. At the same time, interviews recorded on the tape recorder were also transcribed (see Appendix G – samples of interview transcripts).

Step 5 and Step 6 was conducted on the researcher's return to Armidale, Australia. The raw data were recorded and processed into manageable form. The responses from the questionnaires were converted into tables and then graphs, to illustrate the interim findings. This processed information was then used as the basis to proceed to Stage 3.

Stage 3 – Analysis of Data

This involved the composite analysis and comparison of the data into three parts.

Part 1 Global

The first part of the analysis concentrated on the overall responses from the questionnaire and the interviews. This analysis was done to show a global picture of the instructional leadership behaviour of principals in the NIP high schools. Selected quotations from the interview transcripts and data gathered through the non-participant observations from each of the five schools were used to validate and support the findings.

Part 2 Comparison between Principals' and Teachers' Perceptions

A comparative analysis of the responses of the teachers and the principals was the focus of the second part of the analysis. It illustrated the differences and similarities in the perceptions of the principals and the teachers in relation to whether the principals were satisfactorily performing the instructional leadership tasks.

Part 3 Comparison between Schools

In the third part, another comparative analysis was done to show the similarities and differences between the schools; in other words to compare and contrast the instructional leadership behaviour of the principals in their own school settings with each other.

Stage 4 – Conclusions

In the final stage, the implications, conclusions and recommendations of the research project were presented.

Qualitative Research Method

Justification of Method Chosen

In this study qualitative methods were used primarily to collect data. Qualitative research is defined by Finch (1986: 10) as:

> *an approach which both uses qualitative techniques and also draws upon an interpretivist epistemology which emphasises understanding the meaning of the social world from the perspective of the actor.*

Since this study aimed to identify whether New Ireland Provincial high school principals engaged in actions consistent with instructional leadership, it was appropriate to use qualitative methods to develop an understanding of these principals as individuals and at the same time observe them in their natural settings in the schools in order to avoid making bias judgments. The researcher believed that it was his responsibility to find out how these principals being researched understood their roles in their settings. As Kincheoloe (1991: 144) reiterates:

> *Human experience is shaped in particular contexts and cannot be understood if removed from those contexts. Thus, qualitative research attempts to be as naturalistic as possible, meaning that contexts must not be constructed or modified. Research must take place in the normal, everyday context of the researched.*

Borg et al. (1993: 193), also supports the idea that using qualitative methods in research is an advantage because it allows the researcher to study an individual instance of a phenomenon in great depth as the researcher deliberately interacts in a personal way with each individual in the study. They add (p. 196) that by being with the individuals in their natural settings, it also allows the researcher to use his or her intuition and judgement in modifying data collection procedures based on how the individuals behave. However, Borg et al. (p. 197) warn that in conducting such studies, attempts must always be made by the researcher to keep his or her personal values from influencing the design of the investigation. They stressed the importance of researchers to avoid making value judgements about the individuals whom they study as each complex phenomenon must be studied in its totality and in context.

Goodman (1992: 121) also strongly support the use of qualitative research methods for educational research projects by suggesting that:

> *Viewing the social world as a complex interaction of reflexive subjects, rather than mute objects upon which the scientist turns his/her objective gaze, needs to be at the core of efforts to conduct research in schools.*

Whilst the research method for this study was qualitative, it was imperative that certain aspects of quantitative methodology were employed to enhance, validate and to add depth to the data collected. Since this study was descriptive in nature, a descriptive survey questionnaire was used. Leedy (1993: 187), identifies four salient characteristics of the descriptive survey:

> *i) The descriptive survey method deals with a situation that demands the technique of observation as the principal means of collecting the data.*
> *ii) The population of the study must be carefully chosen, clearly defined and specifically delimited in order to set precise parameters for ensuring discreteness to the population.*
> *iii) Data* [in this method are especially] *susceptible to distortion through the introduction of bias in the research design,* [so instruments and analysis of data] *should be safe-guarded* [against bias].
> *iv) Data must be organised and presented systematically so that valid and accurate conclusions can be drawn from them.*

Case Study Approach

The researcher used the Case Study Approach (CSA) as it was the most relevant and appropriate approach one could use to make an intensive investigation of this issue.

According to Burns (1994: 312-3) a case study is:

> *a portmanteau term but typically involves the observation of an individual unit, e.g. a student, a delinquent clique, a family group, a class, a school, a community, an event or even an entire culture. It is useful to conceptualise a continuum of unit size from the individual subject to the ethnographic study. It can be simple and specific... or complex and abstract. But whatever is the subject, to qualify as a case study, it must be a bounded system, an entity in itself.*

By far the greatest value of CSA is outlined by Johnson (1994: 22):

> *(i)* [CSA] *can cope with complexity. Even a single case study can provide descriptive data, address problems of meaning, examine the record of past events and relate it to present activity. Moreover several different 'units of enquiry' can be approached (e.g. governors, parents, teachers, community workers), and their participation enlisted by differing means.*
>
> *(ii)* [CSA] *can produce intelligible, non-technical findings. Because many sources of evidence are used, the picture which merges is 'in the round', compared with the one-dimensional image provided by the average survey. Case study based reports tend to be easily readable, able to be understood by non-researchers, and hence a more widely accessible form of research outcome than is sometimes the case with other methods.*
>
> *(iii)* [CSA] *can provide interpretations of other similar cases. Although full generalisability cannot be claimed for case studies, they have the property of 'relatability'. The rounded picture a case study gives is sufficiently lifelike to be compared with other examples, when similarities and differences can readily be identified.*

Case studies, however, according to Borg and Gall (1989: 402), are somewhat limited in that they never prove anything:

> *Of course, there is no way of knowing how typical the selected case really is, and it is therefore rather hazardous to draw any general conclusions from a single case study.*

However, Borg and Gall (ibid) add that these problems can be largely overcome by cross-checking with data derived from further cases of the same case. Furthermore, Burns (1994: 313), points out the fact that a case study can be seen as a preliminary to a major investigation. The initial study if it is intensive, may generate rich subjective data that might bring to light variables, phenomena, processes and relationships that deserve more intensive investigation in the future.

The Researcher's Credentials

The researcher has been a secondary school teacher for five years from 1986-1990 in three PNG high schools holding various teaching positions from being a base level teacher (Education Officer Level 1-EO1) upon joining the Teaching Service Commission to a subject master (EO4) and senior subject master (EO5) teaching English, Social Science, History and Politics. The researcher was granted eligibility to Subject Departmental Head (EO6) at National High School level but did not substantiate the position due to his transfer to the University of PNG-Goroka Campus to take up a Tutor position in the Department of Professional Studies in 1991.

From 1991 to June, 1995, the researcher has been a Senior Tutor at the University of PNG-Goroka Campus in the Department of Professional Studies, now renamed the Faculty of Education since the transfer of the Faculty of Education from the University of PNG-Waigani Campus to University of PNG-Goroka Campus, and teaching educational foundation courses.

Source of Data and Data Collection Determinants

Sample

Respondents in this study consisted of the five principals representing each of the high schools and randomly selected teaching staff covering a cross-section of all levels of the school system This study involved a total of 36 participants (See Table 4.1). The key sources of data were the five principals and the

selected teachers of the schools. The principals were approached in writing to obtain their consent to participate in this study (see Appendix H). To cover all levels of the school system and to cross-check data collected from the principals as well as to add validity and reliability, the following personnel were also invited to participate: the six deputy heads, six senior subject heads, eight subject heads or teachers-in-charge, and ten base level teachers.

High School	Principal	Teachers	Total
School A	1	6	7
School B	1	6	7
School C	1	6	7
School D	1	6	7
School E	1	7	8
Total	5	31	36

Table 4.1 Composition of Personnel Surveyed

Permission for these principals and teachers to participate in this study was sought from the Advisor-Education, NIP Division of Education, the NIP Secondary Schools Inspector, and the National Department of Education-Research and Evaluation Unit (see Appendix H).

Setting

This study was conducted in the five high schools in the NIP, namely, Utu, Manggai, Mongop, Madina and Namatanai high schools (see Figure 1.2, p. 11). New Ireland Provincial high schools were selected for this case study because of the researcher's familiarity with the schools and four out of five principals in the five high schools and the Advisor-Education of the Provincial Division of Education. This familiarity increased his likelihood of gaining access to the staff without much difficulty. An "entry" into an organisation is important for a researcher to gain access to data.

Instrumentation

Two Descriptive Survey Questionnaires were used as data collection instruments in this study. There was one questionnaire for the five principals and the other for the teachers. The content of the questionnaires was the same

but slightly adjusted to suit the personnel targeted. It was based on factors identified in the literature review to be the actions which constitute instructional leadership. A pilot questionnaire was pre-tested with the principal and selected high school teachers at Uralla Central School (UCS), covering all the levels of the secondary school system. The purpose of the pilot questionnaire was to test for precision of expression, objectivity, relevance, and suitability to the problem situation. It was the researcher's intention to modify and adapt the questionnaire to suit the reality that is experienced by both principal and teachers in the NIP high school system.

The Pilot Project

Uralla Central School (UCS)

Uralla Central School is situated in the small country town of Uralla, 22 kilometres south of Armidale on the New England Highway. The school is readily accessed by car. There were 425 students enrolled at UCS in 1996, with a teaching staff of 27 teachers plus the non-teaching principal. The primary section of the school comprises nine teachers and 245 students enrolled in Grades 1-6. The secondary section of the school comprises 18 teachers and 180 students enrolled in Grades 7-12.

A letter inviting the principal and teachers of UCS secondary section to participate in this pilot project was sent to the principal two weeks before the questionnaire was administered (see Appendix D).

Uralla Central School was selected for this pilot project to pre-test the questionnaire for the following reasons. Firstly, the school is situated in a rural setting similar to the settings of most of the high schools in NIP. Secondly, the principal and most of the teachers in the secondary section of the school have been in the school together for more than five years and they represent a similar organisational structure to PNG high schools. This enabled the researcher to obtain responses from teachers who occupy the different levels of authority within the secondary section of the school. That is, responses for the questionnaire were sought from the principal, a deputy head teacher, two senior teachers and two junior teachers. Finally, geographically the school is situated close to the University of New England which gave the researcher easy access to the school.

Administration of the Pilot Questionnaire

The researcher visited UCS on Friday May, 17th, 1996 to interview the principal as well as to administer the questionnaire to teachers who represent the different levels of authority of the secondary section of the school.

On arrival at the school the researcher received a relaxed and warm welcome from the Principal of the school, who has been at UCS for the past nine years. The researcher learned from the initial interview with the principal that the role of the principalship has changed dramatically over the years. It is now more challenging as well as demanding. The Principal of UCS felt that he was more involved in the managerial tasks of the role rather than in instructional leadership tasks, most of which were delegated to the deputy head teacher or senior teachers of the two sections of the school. However, he ensured that these tasks were carried out by holding weekly meetings with senior teachers after the school executive meetings on an individual basis to find out how things were functioning or progressing.

The devolution of responsibilities from the regional office to schools has also affected the role of the principal. The restructuring of the education system in NSW has increased the number of managerial tasks expected of principals. The 1980s saw a change in direction in education in NSW towards improving curriculum content and appropriate support for and monitoring of curriculum in schools. The Management Review Committee headed by Dr. Brian Scott recommended changes in reports that are now being implemented as part of the Education Reform Act 1990. This Act has empowered schools to bring about dynamic change. This means that the schools in New South Wales are given much greater control over their own resources (Swan & Winder, 1991: 134).

According to the Principal of UCS, most of his office time was spent liaising with the community (parents), teachers and students in order to bring about the expected changes in the school. The amount of time spent on instructional leadership was limited due to the fact that this task was delegated to those in charge of the different sections of the school.

Owing to their commitment to their classes at the time of the researcher's visit to the school, it was not possible to meet with all the teachers. However, the principal reassured the researcher that he would arrange a time after

school hours to meet with the teachers and explain the expectations of the researcher in completing the pilot questionnaire. Therefore, part of the initial interview with the principal was spent explaining the different aspects of the pilot questionnaire.

A covering letter was attached to the pilot questionnaire introducing the researcher and describing his expectations (see Appendix D). This was done to ensure that the respondents understood their role in completing the pilot questionnaire. This meant that the respondents were supported in their involvement in completing the questionnaire in two ways: firstly, a covering letter written by the researcher and secondly, by an explanation given verbally by the principal.

Based on the comments and recommendations made by the principal and selected teachers of UCS, the following modifications were suggested:

i) The pilot questionnaire was mainly written for the teachers to complete. It was recommended that a separate questionnaire be written up for the principals.

ii) A 'Likert scale' should be included under each of the major functions to assist the respondents in answering the questions.

5	–	*'always'*	to be coded	**'A'**
4	–	*'frequently'*	to be coded	**'Fr'**
3	–	*'sometimes'*	to be coded	**'So'**
2	–	*'seldom'*	to be coded	**'Se'**
1	–	*'never'*	to be coded	**'N'**

1 **Never**	2 **Seldom**	3 **Sometimes**	4 **Frequently**	5 **Always**

iii) At the end of the questionnaire, some space should be made available for respondents to make any other comments related to the issues in the questionnaire.

Based on these recommendations, the pilot questionnaire was modified to reflect the improvements.

The Descriptive Survey Questionnaires

Following the outcome of the pilot project, two descriptive survey questionnaires were designed for this study, one for the principals and the other for the teachers (see Appendices E and F). The content of the questionnaires was adapted from the Instructional Management Rating Scale Questionnaire by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) and aspects of instructional leadership skills identified by Weber (1989) under each of the five major functions of instructional leadership. The content of the questionnaires was then adapted by the researcher to the PNG context.

The survey questionnaires consisted of two parts. The first part sought data about the respondent's personal particulars: age, sex, position in the school, number of years of teaching, highest level of qualifications achieved, name and location of the school. The second part contained a set of actions which described instructional leadership tasks.

The tasks were grouped into five categories as identified by Weber (1989):

(i) defining and communicating the school mission;
(ii) managing the curriculum and instruction;
(iii) promoting a positive school climate;
(iv) observing and providing feedback; and
(v) assessing the instructional program.

In these questionnaires, respondents were asked to indicate on a scale of one to five the extent to which the principal currently undertakes each of the tasks. The five-point rating scale resembled that used by Hallinger and Murphy (1985). It identifed the extent to which the principal was involved in the performance of each task. For each behaviour,

5 represents "***always***";
4 represents "***frequently***";
3 represents "***sometimes***";
2 represents "***seldom***"; and
1 represents "***never***".

Procedure for administering the questionnaire in New Ireland Province, Papua New Guinea

The descriptive survey questionnaires were administered to the principals and the randomly selected teachers in each school. The researcher allowed each respondent a day to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaires were distributed to the selected respondents on Monday and collected on Tuesday morning allowing the researcher time to prepare follow up interview questions for each of the respondents based on their individual responses. All respondents were informed prior to completing the questionnaire that they would not be identified. This was to obtain the most honest responses and to reassure participants of confidentiality.

Semi-Structured Interview

To cross-check the interim findings from the survey questionnaires, the researcher conducted follow up interviews with each of the respondents in each school to elicit the reasons why the instructional leadership behaviour of the principal was as identified by the respondent in the questionnaire. This led the researcher to establish how and why instructional leadership tasks were performed by the principal and identified who, of the other staff members, shared or were delegated to perform certain instructional leadership tasks and why they had been asked to share or had been so delegated. Permission to participate in the follow up interview was sought from each of the respondents before the actual interview took place. They were also briefed that to provide a permanent, accurate and objective record of the interviews, the interviews were to be tape recorded. The interviews were conducted in a semi-structured manner. This was done to allow the interviewee to respond to questions without any interruptions as well as to allow the researcher to be more flexible during the interviews and adapt the interview to suit the personality and circumstances of the person being interviewed.

Non-Participant Observation

The researcher also stayed in each school for an extra day or two (depending on activities scheduled in the schools for the week the researcher was visiting) to informally observe the principal at work. This was to re-affirm the validity of the responses received from the survey questionnaires and the follow-up interviews. Summary notes of the daily activities were compiled at the end of

each day to maintain records of what had happened during the day or night the informal observations was conducted. Again for ethical reasons, permission was sought from the principals to conduct these observations.

Being a non-participant observer gave the researcher opportunities to record behaviour as it occurred within the school, pick up 'taken-for-granted' features of situations that were not mentioned in the interviews and questionnaires, and to record the behaviour of principals and teachers who were unable or unwilling to describe it verbally.

Methods of Data Analysis and Interpretation

This study primarily used qualitative methods to collect and analyse the data. Borg et al. (1993: 198) points out that the procedures for analysis of data would be primarily descriptive in nature. For the survey questionnaire, the data obtain from the responses to specific tasks were analysed using descriptive statistical procedures. For the semi-structured interviews and non-participant observation, field notes were analysed using content analysis techniques. The main tasks which constitute instructional leadership on the questionnaire were used as the basis of interviews and observations. After a day's interviews and observations, contact summary sheets were completed to answer questions related to the main tasks in order to develop an overall summary of the main points in the contact. The content of these summary sheets was analysed to create an overall picture of what the principal did in relation to instructional leadership.

In summary, the analysis was largely derived from the survey questionnaires, the interviews and the observational notes. These data were analysed for themes and patterns, which were described and illustrated with examples, graphs and tables, including quotations from the interviews and excerpts from the questionnaires and other documents when possible.

Ethical Considerations

In attempting to avoid the problems of embarassing, hurting, frightening, imposing on, or otherwise negatively affecting the lives of the people who were making the research possible by their participation, the following ethical considerations were addressed when conducting this study: confidentiality, privacy and anonymity. Studies on ethical considerations (Tuckman, 1978;

Rosier, 1985; Borg and Gall,1989; Borg, Gall and Gall, 1993; Leedy, 1993; Cohen and Manion, 1994) have all stressed the importance of research ethics.

The Right to Privacy and Nonparticipation

The right to privacy, in general, refers to the right of the participants in a study to keep from the public certain information about themselves. To safeguard the privacy of the subjects and to ensure willing participation, the researcher:

(i) Took care to avoid asking unnecessary questions or questions of a private nature in the interviews.
(ii) And most importantly, obtained direct consent for participation from the Principals and randomly selected teachers who participated in this study.

The Right to Remain Anonymous

To insure anonymity of participants in this study, the respondents were informed both verbally and in writing that their individual identities would not be disclosed and their anonymity would be maintained. In order to do this schools were identified by an aphabetical letter from A to E and the respondents in each school were identified by the abbreviation of the title of their positions rather than by name.

The Right to Confidentiality

Similar to the concerns over privacy and anonymity was the concern over confidentiality: Who will have access to the data? To guarantee the right of participants that data collected from them would be treated with confidentiality, the researcher:

(i) Rostered all data under each school using number rather than name.
(ii) Informed the respondents that the questionnaires would be kept in a safe secure location.

Chapter Summary

This chapter detailed the research plan and methodology.The research plan emerged from the conceptual framework which was drawn from the literature review. The research plan consisted of four main stages which involved a series of activities including the pilot project in UCS, field study in PNG, analysis of the responses and drawing of the conclusions.

The Qualitative Research Method, especially the Case Study Approach, used to conduct this research project, were also described with their strengths and weaknesses highlighted. Ethical issues were also examined. The specific method of data recording and processing used in this research project was also described.

The following chapter describes the analysis of data, and the findings of this research project.