Chapter 1: Introduction and Background

Purpose of the Study

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.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the instructional leadership behaviour of high school principals (the term *Principal* is used synonymously in this thesis with headmaster, headteacher, headship, and educational leader) in the New Ireland Province (NIP) in Papua New Guinea (PNG). The study aimed to identify whether NIP high school principals perform tasks which constitute instructional leadership.

Instructional leadership is associated with roles or tasks of the principal which include such things as, assuming an important role in framing and communicating school goals, establishing expectations and standards, coordinating the curriculum, supervising and evaluating instruction, promoting student opportunities to learn and promoting professional development for staff. 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 (Murphy et al., 1985: 365).

As a teacher in the PNG education system for over five years (1986-1990), the researcher observed that principals tended to spend more time completing administrative tasks rather than instructional leadership tasks. In support, Quarshie (1992: 49) points out that principals in PNG have seen themselves primarily as administrators of the schools rather than educational leaders. This apparent imbalance between the time spent by principals in completing administrative tasks as against the time spent as instructional leaders led the researcher to the topic of this research.

Background to the Study

Currently, PNG high school teachers are promoted to principal positions based on their inspection reports as classroom teachers (Maha, 1992: 33; Quarshie, 1992: 43) rather than their ability to lead. Maha (1992: 30) stated that some principals are promoted to the headship position on the basis of 'who they know'. The perception is that Secondary School Inspectors or the Advisors-Education of the Provincial Divisions of Education in Provinces, who are responsible for promotional decisions, have a tendency to, promote those teachers with whom they are friends or 'wantoks'. The concept of bureaucratic 'wantokism' refers to a person in charge of selection or promotion selecting someone from his or her own area or Province in spite of the person's lack of relevant qualifications or merit. It is an expected obligation that the person from his or her area must be selected or promoted over other more suitable and qualified applicants for the same job. This situation has created a great deal of resentment, and in some cases has affected the working relationships between teachers and principal within the school.

It may be argued that competence in classroom teaching is an essential attribute of a principal, however, that alone is not enough since there are other equally important skills, abilities and knowledge needed for effective educational leadership. Quarshie (1992: 43) has suggested that effective educational leaders need vision and leadership knowledge and skills including a knowledge of change and innovation, the ability to initiate, invent and adapt, a sense of direction, as well as the skill to motivate and provide appropriate leadership style to meet the challenges of the changing society.

Definitions of Key Concepts

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.*

Although, this definition highlights the main tasks that a principal is expected to perform, Weber (1989: 192) argues that there are only five central activities that most directly have influence on a school's instructional program. Weber identifies them as: defining the school's mission; managing curriculum and instruction; promoting a positive learning climate; observing and giving feedback to teachers; and assessing the instructional program.

This researcher also supports the definition given by De Bevoise but has adapted Weber's five central activities that most directly have influence on a school's instructional program as the major foci or variables in this study. Weber's five activities encompass the main aspects identified by writers on instructional leadership and are applicable to the PNG context. These five central activities are outlined in turn.

Defining and Communicating School Goals

This concept refers to a "vision" an instructional leader possesses as to what the school should be trying to acomplish. The principal's role involves framing schoolwide goals and communicating these goals in a consistent fashion to the entire school community.

Managing Curriculum and Instruction

This concept refers to an instructional leader working with teachers in areas specifically related to curriculum and instruction.

Promoting a Positive Learning Climate

This concept refers to the norms and attitudes of the staff and students that positively influence learning in the school.

Observing and Giving Feedback to Teachers

This concept refers to the monitoring of classroom instruction given by teachers through numerous formal and informal classroom visits. Feedback to teachers is given for both supervisory and evaluative purposes.

Assessing the Instructional Program

This concept refers to the reviewing of instructional programs taught in the school for the purpose of forward planning. It involves assessment of objectives, gauging of the success in meeting the goals of the school and recommendations for improvement in student outcomes.

School Effectiveness

In recent years, the principalship has been the focus of considerable discussion in the context of initiatives designed to increase school effectiveness. However, descriptions of the role of the educational leader have not necessarily addressed what some would consider the more important issue of what ought to be his or her role. Until recently, according to Kimbrough and Burkett (1990: 11), the role of the principal was perceived as that of administrator/manager and public relations representative, but the present trend is to emphasize the principal's role as an instructional leader (Kimbrough & Burkett, 1990; Hallinger, 1992; Wildy & Dimmock, 1993; Heck, 1993). Ultimately, effectiveness is determined by the impact of the principal on student learning.

However, the question of what the educational leader should be doing in order to make a difference in the quality of schooling needs to be answered. It is clear from the literature on indicators of school effectiveness (Austin, 1979; Rutter et al., 1979; Brookover & Lezotte, 1981; Renihan & Renihan, 1984; Murphy et al., 1985; Mulford, 1987; Fullan, 1991; Hallinger & Heck, 1995; Murphy & Beck, 1995; Mulford, 1996) that no one factor accounts for effectiveness. There appears to be a critical mass of positive factors which, when put together, will make a difference. Factors such as: sense of mission, high expectations, academic focus, feedback on academic performance, positive motivational strategies, conscious attention to a positive, safe, ordered community climate, administrative leadership, teachers taking responsibility, parental involvement and system support.

Another source of information may be drawn from school climate and leadership studies. Studies into these areas, (Mulford, 1987; Fullan, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1991; Starratt, 1993; Leithwood et al., 1994; Rosenblum et al., 1994; Dinham et al., 1995; Hallinger, 1995; Hallinger & Heck, 1995), focus on the general quality, ethos, climate, or innovativeness of schools; that is, there is a concentration on the leader/teacher relationship. As schools are for teachers as

well as for students, it is important that teachers' work environment be a positive one.

School climate and leadership studies (e.g. Leithwood et al., 1994; Rosenblum et al., 1994; Dinham et al., 1995) indicate that principals can make a difference to teachers and students in their schools. The difference would appear to be significant and is made all the more important since it can be either positive or negative. Emphasis is on interpersonal skills (for example, the need to be supportive, foster participation, and tolerate uncertainty and freedom) and on strong instructional leadership (for example, the need to be involved, to help develop school goals and a supportive learning climate, and to have high expectations).

Strength in leadership and human relations skills in the principal are essential for the development of educational excellence. There are certain leadership behaviours and specific activities of principals that seem to make a difference. As Rosenblum et al. (1994: 17) reiterates:

> *Good leadership is considered to be one that facilitates collaboration, communication, feedback, influence, and professionalism in the following ways:*
> *i) By providing leadership through establishment of a vision and value system.*
> *ii) By having consistent policies to delegate and empower others, thus sharing leadership.*
> *iii) By modelling risk taking.*
> *iv) By focusing on people, nurturing staff members, and helping them to grow.*
> *v) By emphasising the educational aspects of the school rather than the purely technical aspects of schooling.*
>
> (Rosenblum et al., 1994: 17)

It is evident from these studies centred on the role of the educational leader, school climate and leadership outlined briefly above, that school effectiveness is made up of many factors. This study focusses upon one of the identified factors of school effectiveness – instructional leadership. This study will explore the balance between the principal's administrative role and his or her instructional leadership role. Specifically, the study will seek to identify and analyse the instructional leadership behaviour of high school principals in the New Ireland Provincial high schools in Papua New Guinea.

An Overview of Papua New Guinea

Papua New Guinea comprises over 600 islands, and occupies an area of 463 000 square kilometres (National Department of Education (NDOE), 1994). It consists of a mainland territory which occupies the eastern half of the Island of New Guinea which it shares with Indonesia's Irian Jaya Province, and a number of islands including the provinces of Manus, East New Britain, West New Britain, New Ireland and the North Solomons (Thomas, 1976: 3; Axline, 1986: 1). (See Figure 1.1, Map of Papua New Guinea on page 8).

Geography

Geographically, the mainland of PNG is one of the most rugged terrains in the world. Seventy-five percent of the land surface is covered by rainforest, and only five percent of the total land area is suitable for large-scale cultivation.

The exceptionally difficult terrain has posed considerable obstacles to communication. Few provinces have road links with each other and no provincial capitals are linked to the national capital, Port Moresby, except by air, or, in a few cases, by sea. The coastal people do not have to contend with the same types of terrain as do the Highlanders, but even relatively small islands such as New Britain, New Ireland and North Solomons have major mountain spines. Other areas of the coast are very swampy, and in some provinces the population is scattered on small islands separated by vast expanses of sea (Bray, 1984: 20), for example, New Ireland and Milne Bay Provinces. However, the land is rich in natural resources including copper, gold, oil and natural gas.

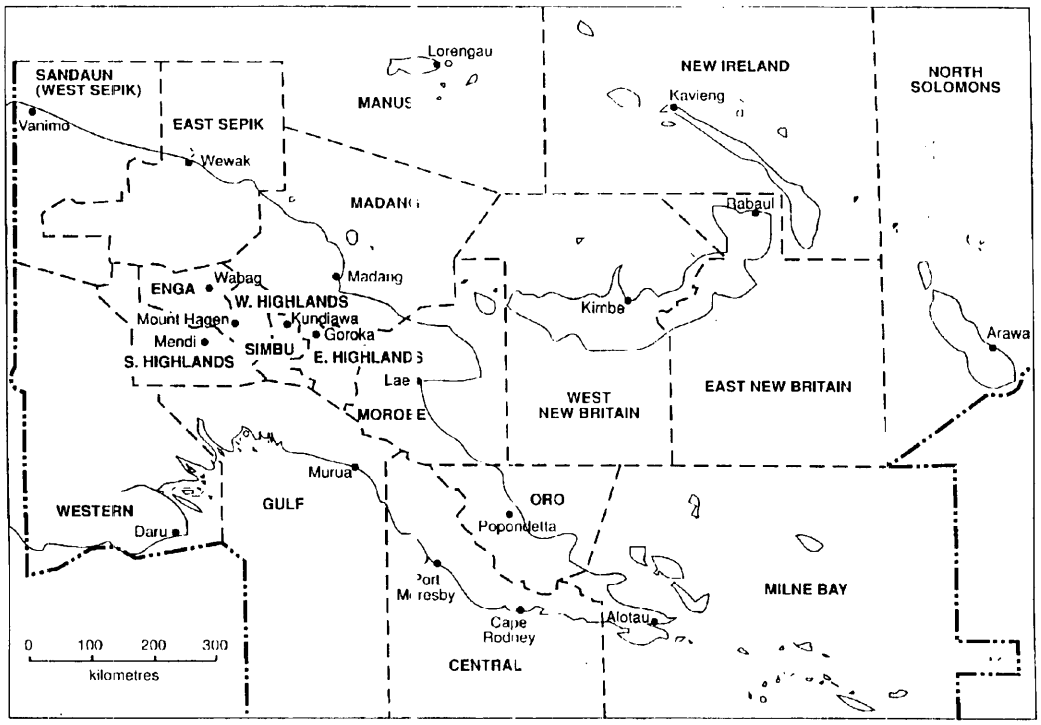


Figure 1.1 Map of Papua New Guinea
(Simpson, G.J. & McKillop, R.F., 1994, p. 8)

Population

The 3.9 million (1992) total population of PNG (Australia Department of Foreign Affairs & Trade, 1996) is young – over 43 percent is under the age of 15. It is predicted that the population growth rate of 2.3 percent is expected to yield a total population of 7.4 million by 2015. Ninety percent of the population derive their livelihood from rural farming on community-owned land. The country's population density is only 7.5 persons per square kilometre (one of the lowest in the world) (NDOE, 1994: 19).

PNG is classified by the World Bank as a 'lower middle income' country. This is based on its per capita Gross National Product (GNP) which was estimated at K700.00 (Aus$ 650.00) in 1988 (NDOE, 1994: 20).

Languages

Communities in PNG have developed their own languages, customs and traditions because of their isolation, a poor transportation network and great distances between island and mountain populations. As a result, the ethnic

and cultural composition of the country is one of the most varied in the world, with the different tribal groups speaking more than 800 languages. Hiri (Police) Motu, Melanesian Pidgin (Tok Pisin), and English are the official languages (NDOE, 1994: 19). English is used as a medium of instruction in the national education system. Socially, Tok Pisin is widely used throughout the country. Motu is mainly spoken among the Papuan people.

Education

The National Department of Education in PNG (NDOE, 1994: 35) declares education as:

> *a fundamental right in the country's political goals and the National Constitution, as it lies at the point of convergence of public disciplines such as law and order, economic development, labour and employment, health, and environment. It is the mobilization that is necessary for societal development, emphasizing the need for future oriented development, and imparting a sense of the future. Education promotes the acquisition of the skills and knowledge which enable people to manage their lives in the context of prevailing problems and future opportunities.*
>
> (NDOE, 1994: 35)

The educational system as inherited from Australia is far from being relevant to the needs of the masses because it was based on the Australian economic and social system rather than the conditions prevailing in Papua New Guinea. What is needed now in PNG is the development of a more relevant education system, or at the very least, an adaptation of the system to meet the needs of the masses (Quarshie, 1992: 49).

The PNG NDOE initiated a major reform of the education system in 1992. It is being implemented now. The reform involves the restructuring of the formal educational system from the pre-primary level through to the upper secondary level.

The new reformed education system is expected to solve the weaknesses of the previous system. The reformed system aims to strengthen children's identification with their culture and their community. The former education system isolated children from their culture and from the life of their

community. It is hoped that this reformed system will develop children's self-esteem and confidence and encourage them to value village life, traditions and obligations. It will encourage more realistic expectations for the children, their families and their communities because it is based on indigenous values and life. It will allow all children to go to Grade 8, a greater percentage to Grades 9 and 10, and a greater percentage to Grades 11 and 12. It aims to use teachers more effectively and reduce the cost per student at all three levels.

In summary, Papua New Guinea is a young nation that brings together a diversity of people and cultures. Despite this diversity, the processes of colonialism, urbanisation and rapid social and economic change have brought development to the Papua New Guinea people socially, politically, economically and spiritually. One aspect of this development is education. Education in PNG is crucial for the country's development. It is of paramount importance that the education system from Head Office to the smallest school is effective and efficient, since there is limited finance and resources for this most important aspect of national development.

An Overview of New Ireland Province

Since this study was conducted in the New Ireland Province of Papua New Guinea, it would be appropriate to present an overview of the Province. New Ireland Province is one of the 20 provinces of PNG. It is situated in the northen end of the Bismarck Archipelago just three degrees south of the equator. It stretches in a northwest-southeast direction, is 470 kilometres long and covers an area of approximately 9,974 square kilometres (Kagai, 1996: 22). The Province essentially comprises two main islands (see Figure 1.2, Map of New Ireland, on page 11). The first is the fairly large island of Lavongai, which is better known as New Hanover, and its own offshore islands and islets including Tingwon Island and the Saint Mathias group (better known as Mussau-Emira) which is situated north-west of New Hanover and groups of small volcanic islands of Tabar, Anir, Tanga and Lihir. The second, New Ireland, is the main island, comprising the bulk of the total land mass of the Province.

Population

The population of New Ireland is estimated to be 87,000 with the dominant groups of people being the Tungak, Tigak, Kapuku, Tiang, Kara, Nalik, Kiskis,

Noschi, Kuat, Mandak, Barok, Patpatar, Tuang, and Sunglik (Kagai, 1996: 22). The southern end of the island (Namatanai District) is the most densely populated. Table 1.1 gives population by sex and district since the 1980 census. There is an annual provincial growth rate of 2.8 percent. The urban population has risen by almost 24 percent since the 1980 census. This is evidence of the drift of young males from rural to urban centres in search of employment or to fulfill their own interests.

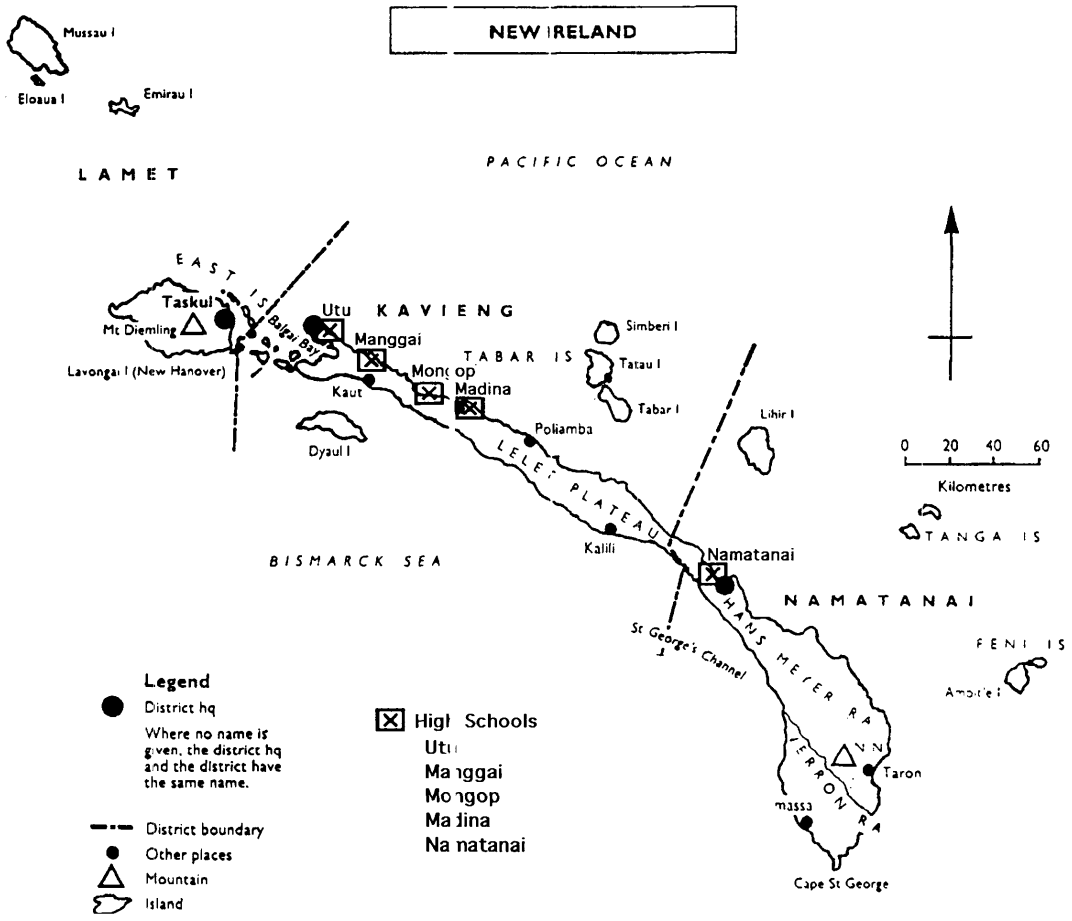


Figure 1.2 Map of New Ireland Province
(After Rannells, J., 1990, p. 121)

District	Male	Female	Total
Kavieng	1304[illegible]	10638	23683
Konos	758[illegible]	5948	13530
Namatanai	1489[illegible]	12505	27402
Lihir	355[illegible]	2258	5811
Lavongai (Taskul)	637[illegible]	5968	12339
Palakau	162[illegible]	1608	3234
New Ireland	4707[illegible]	39925	86999

Table 1.1 Population by District
(Provincial Education Office, Kavieng, April, 1996)

Export Trading

New Ireland Province has traditionally been a leading exporter of cocoa, copra, and timber. Tuna and gold are other valuable resources that have yet to be fully developed (Rannells, 1990: 120). Two important developments in the Province are the Lihir gold mine and the Poliamba Oil Palm Estate development in Central New Ireland. They are important because through these developments royalties, employment and training are provided for the people of New Ireland.

Languages/Traditions

New Ireland has 22 languages, many of them related. Pidgin is widely used for communication and English is the language for education, administration and commerce. Many traditions of New Ireland groups are similar – matrilineal descent, bigman leadership, weapons and tools. There are, however, differences in house and canoe designs, burial rites, marriage ceremonies and rituals. Malagan and shark calling are among New Ireland's many traditions (Rannells, 1990: 122).

According to Kagai (1996: 22-3), the people of New Ireland have a complex of ceremonies known as Malagan which are primarily memorial rites for the dead but also serve as part of the initiation into manhood. For this ceremony, a number of carvings of ritual objects are made. The designs are the property of individuals who instruct the carvers. They make use of mythical and totemic themes as well as actual happenings and the preparation may take

years. The finished figures are gathered together in a special bamboo enclosure and the essential ceremonies, for which special masks are also made, extend over several months. In this ceremony also, the killing of pigs is a symbolic exorcism of evil spirits from the grave. The pigs are cooked with taro, sago and other vegetables in 'mumu' or ground pits. Once cooked, the food is carefully divided and shared according to custom so as to strengthen family relationships and fulfil obligations to other families. During the feast, strings of shell money are also carefully measured and distributed to meet obligations and repay customary debts.

The ancient Barok ceremonial shark hunting called 'Wokisok' is another tradition that has been handed down from generation to generation. In this ceremony, fishermen from the Kontu villages use traditional methods of fishing to catch sharks in the deep waters off the coast.

In summary, the people of New Ireland Province mainly live a traditional, subsistence life style. Traditional beliefs and customs are still very strong in the villages. The Province's economy with its rudimentary commercial and urban developments mainly in agriculture, mining and fisheries is likely to improve as these developments grow.

Significance of the Study

There has been limited research on the role of the principalship in PNG schools. Previous studies were conducted by Vulliamy (1986, 1987) and more recently by Sengi (1995).

Vulliamy in his study identified nine general leadership qualities of a principal (see Appendix A) which were important for school effectiveness. However, these leadership qualities did not focus on instructional leadership. On the other hand, Sengi (1995) considered the impact of instructional leadership when attempting to describe the organisational practices that have an impact on student academic performances. However, Sengi did not attempt to specifically identify in his study, who, from the group of leaders in a school (principals, deputies, senior subject heads, subject heads, teachers-in-charge) was accountable or responsible for instructional leadership.

The PNG National Department of Education's Handbook for Headmasters in Provincial High Schools (1980), does call upon principals to attend to a variety

of duties. Among the many duties, the principals are directed to provide professional leadership in their schools (see Appendix B). Some of the duties outlined under professional leadership are in line with the tasks which western literature on school effectiveness and instructional leadership have classified as instructional leadership tasks. Up to date, no research in PNG has shown whether principals actually engage in these tasks.

The paucity of research in this area means that the contribution of the instructional leadership role of principals to school effectiveness remains uncertain in PNG schools. This study attempts to redress this inadequacy by investigating whether principals in PNG NIP high schools engage in tasks which constitute instructional leadership.

The following issues concerned with the training of principals and school inspectors highlight the significance of this study. From the researcher's discussions with many principals, it appears that principals have had little or limited direction and training in the nature of their roles and their instructional leadership roles in particular. Most principals are selected on the basis of their prior teaching performance with little or no regard to their administrative and professional competence.

A further issue that compounds this situation is that school inspectors who seek to promote instructional leadership in schools have had little guidance concerning the role of principals in providing and promoting instructional leadership. Most of what they impart during their inspections in schools with principals and teachers are based on their own experiences as principals and teachers. Apelis (1984: 83) found that the major weaknesses of inspectors were: in not providing proper advice to needy teachers (and headmasters); in their inadequate assessment of professional competencies; and failing to provide honest assessments when reporting on the performances of teachers and principals. Given the lack of resources and guidance, it is not surprising that PNG principals and inspectors are left to their own interpretations of what constitutes their instructional leadership roles.

Additionally, the university courses on educational administration have not specifically addressed these needs. Quarshie (1992: 47) supported the studying of educational administration in PNG, by stating that the current and future school administrators of PNG face more complex administrative problems than their predecessors met a decade or two ago. Sungaila (1990) points out

that in some countries, dissatisfaction with the educational system has been found to be caused by poor administration of such systems which, in turn, is seen to be the result of quite inappropriate professional development programmes for practitioners of educational administration. Quarshie added that if inappropriate professional development programmes for educational administrators could be a cause of ineffectiveness of school systems elsewhere, then non-existence of such programmes for educational administrators in PNG could be seen as a factor contributing to ineffectiveness of the school system. Formal training in educational administration in PNG is important because of the need for personnel in these positions to acquire basic management knowledge and skills in their work. The introduction of the Bachelor of Education in-service program majoring in Educational Administration at the University of Papua New Guinea-Goroka Campus (UPNG-GC) in 1995 is an attempt to cater for these needs. However, the fruits of these endeavours will not be apparent in the schools for some years.

The limited research on the role of the principals in PNG, the selection processes, the inadequacies of the inspectorial system and the inappropriateness of training programs suggest this study is timely, relevant and significant for PNG education.

Aim of the Study

This study examined the instructional leadership behaviour of New Ireland Provincial high school principals in PNG as a case study. The specific aim was to identify whether NIP high school principals engage in actions consistent with instructional leadership.

Reseach Questions

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

i) Do principals in the NIP high schools in PNG 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 nstructional leadership are not engaged in, why are they not?

Methodology

This study was primarily a qualitative one as it 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 judgements. The researcher believed that it was his responsibility to find out how these principals being researched understood their roles in their settings.

Whilst the research method was qualitative, it was imperative that certain aspects of quantitative methodology were employed to enhance, validate and to add depth to the data collected

In executing a qualitative method of research, the Case Study Approach (CSA) was selected over other methods because it was seen to be the most convenient and practical means of investigating the instructional leadership behaviour of New Ireland Provincial high school principals. Johnson (1994: 22) points out the major strengths of the CSA by stating:

> *(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.

Subjects

Respondents in this study consisted of the principals from the five high schools of the NIP and 31 teachers who were randomly selected covering a cross-section of all levels of the school organisation. Total number of respondents was 36.

Means of Data Collection

This study employed three means of data collection. The first instrument used was a survey questionnaire. The content of this questionnaire was based on factors identified in the literature to be actions which constitute instructional leadership. This questionaire was pre-tested at Uralla Central School in New South Wales, Australia, covering all levels of the school organisation. This school was chosen because firstly, it was situated in a rural setting, secondly, it represents a similar organisational structure to the high schools in PNG and finally, it was readily accessible Pre-testing of the questionnaire was to test content validity as well as to ensure that the questions were understandable, precise and facilitated the clarity of respondents' answers.

The responses received through the questionnaires were then followed up with semi-structured interviews with all of the 36 respondents. The interview questions were prepared in advance based on the responses received from each respondent under each of the specific headings. The purpose was to validate responses and to seek reasons why each principal behaved in the way described.

The interview was then followed up with a day or two spent in non-participant observation of the school mainly focussing on the principal. This was done in order to re-affirm the responses gathered through the questionnaires and the interviews as well as to pick up 'taken-for-granted' features of situations that were not mentioned previously.

Limitations of the Study

This study was aimed towards assessing whether principals in NIP high schools engaged in actions consistent with instructional leadership. The findings of this study should not be used to generalise the situation of instructional leadership in other types of schools in PNG No attempt was made in this study to explore the relationship between instructional leadership and school effectiveness. Finally, the researcher described and analysed the instructional leadership behaviour of principals in their school settings. No attempt was made to assess the effectiveness of the principal in carrying out his or her instructional leadership tasks.

Organisation of the Thesis

Chapter 1 specifies the purpose, provides background to the study, details the research setting and outlines the significance of the study.

With the scene set, Chapter 2 outlines the latest developmental changes in the Papua New Guinea Education System, especially highlighting the changes that have taken place over the years from the 1950s to the present day. Three time-periods were used to assist in the presentation of the educational changes that have occurred. These consist of Pre-Independence (before 1975), Early Post-Independence (from 1975) and 1992 to the present day. The year 1992 was chosen because this was when the reform structure was introduced.

Chapter 3 presents a review of related literature and explores the importance of the instructional leadership role of a principal in a school. Research into instructional leadership has been largely conducted within the framework of school effectiveness. The concepts of school effectiveness, leadership, and instructional leadership are described. The chapter identifies, reviews and describes the tasks or behaviours principals need to actively engage in to fulfil their instructional leadership roles.

Chapter 4 outlines a detailed description of the research plan and the methodology that was used in conducting this study. A conceptual framework drawn from the literature review is described and presented in a diagramatic form. The case study method used in this study is described. In addition, data

collection determinants: the sample, setting and the instrumentation as well as the analytical procedures and ethical issues are also described.

Chapter 5 outlines the analysis and presents the findings of the study using statistical analysis and interpretations of the analysis. The findings are discussed and are related to the three key research questions.

Chapter 6 provides a summary of the study by restating the problem, a summary description of procedures with a brief summary of the major findings. From these findings, conclusions are drawn and recommendations for further investigation are suggested.

Chapter 2: Papua New Guinea Education System

Introduction

The educational system as inherited from Australia is far from being relevant to the needs of the masses because it was based on the Australian economic and social system rather than the conditions prevailing in PNG. What is needed now in PNG is the development of a more relevant education system, or at the very least an adaptation of the system to meet the needs of the masses (Quarshie, 1992: 49).

In terms of structural changes to the education system, NDOE introduced in the early 1990s a 'proposed' structural reform. The Government of PNG amended the Education Act in 1995 establishing the reformed education system as the PNG national education system.

Education to PNG is crucial for its development (Todd, 1974: 113). It is of paramount importance that the education system from Head Office to the smallest school is effective since there is limited finance and resources for this most important aspect of national development.

This chapter introduces PNG's Education System. The chapter begins with a description of the developments that have occurred in the Education System over three time periods: pre-independence, early post-independence to 1992 and 1992 to the present. These three time-periods were selected because they each have distinct characteristics

Pre-independence: This period was one when education in PNG was controlled primarily from outside PNG. Firstly, the managers and administrators were primarily expatriate, with few Papua New Guineans involved in the decision making process. Secondly, the school curriculum, in the early development of schools, was controlled by the missionaries, who had a great deal of influence especially in the villages. After the control of the territories was handed over to Australia in 1942, the New South Wales Department of Education curriculum was later introduced and adapted to PNG primary 'Territory' schools from 1946.

Early Post-independence: During this period initial decision making and educational issues were addressed by Papua New Guineans. There was a tremendous expansion in the education system with expatriates and Papua New Guineans establishing a new relationship of equality.

1992 to present: During this time the government introduced educational reform which has had a significant influence on the direction of education in PNG.

Detailed explanation of these time periods which follows includes an analysis of the distribution of powers between the Centre, District and Local levels of education, a description of the structure of the Education Department together with a detailed account of the elementary, primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education.

The chapter concludes with a description of the impact of the reform since 1992 on the role of the high school principals. Finally a section on the status of education in New Ireland Province, the setting in which this study was conducted, is described. A summary concludes Chapter Two.

Pre-Independence

The history of education in PNG is interesting because the country has experienced a variety of forms of colonial impact in the 100 years before independence. Significant growth of education and of government involvement in education did not come about until after World War II when the Department of Education was established in 1946. The education system, according to Smith (1987: viii), was shaped by the Australian government:

> *to serve the policy of slow, uniform, political and economic change and later a means of creating conditions for self-government and training an elite to inherit the administration of the country. The basic structure for government and mission interaction was laid down in an Education Ordinance in 1952, and followed a British colonial pattern.*

Although the 1950s and 1960s witnessed considerable growth in education, it was largely uncoordinated. Many primary schools, especially in the mission sector, were small and only catered for the lower grades. Because transfer

between schools was frequently difficult, pupils often did not have the opportunity to complete their primary education.

Towards the middle of the 1960s and early 1970s, the formal education system consisted of several types of institutions:

(i) Primary schools;
(ii) Secondary schools;
(iii) Technical colleges; and
(iv) Tertiary institutions, such as teachers' colleges, universities, an administrative college, forestry college, agricultural college, local government staff college, co-operative college, colleges for medicine, nursing, dentistry and paramedical training.

A limited number of students progressed through these institutions and the length of the courses varied. Some institutions were 'in series', for example, primary and secondary schools, where students after completing studies at one institution might enter the next. Some of the institutions were 'in parallel'; for example, students could complete Form 3 to Form 4 at a normal secondary high school or through any of the technical colleges. There was also some circularity in the system – students who completed primary school, followed by four years of secondary high school and then graduated from a primary teachers' college went back to teach at the primary schools, twelve years after they had entered the system (Elek, 1975: 414).

The National Education System was created in 1970 under the 1970 Education Act. This national system incorporated government and mission education provisions into a single framework and specific powers were formally laid down for local governments, District Education Boards and other bodies. Only the Seventh Day Adventists (SDA) declined to join the national system. Bray (1984: 43) points out that:

> *there was a high degree of centralisation of powers which was justified by improved transferability for teachers and pupils within the system, standardisation of curricula, creation of uniform teachers' conditions, and the economies of scale which followed amalgamation of small schools. Moreover, churches were still represented on the District Education Boards (DEBs), and the considerable degree of DEB autonomy incorporated into the structure meant that the unified system was still highly decentralised, albeit in a different sense.*

Bray (ibid) identifies four main reasons for this high degree of decentralisation. The first concerned participation, for the system of DEBs permitted both greater district control and, at least in theory, greater Papua New Guinean control of education. However, in practice this proved difficult to achieve at first for many foreign missionaries and other workers remained highly influential at the lower/grassroots level.

Secondly, the new system was introduced in an atmosphere of mutual suspicion between the churches and the central government. The decentralised structure permitted individual churches to have a greater impact in policy making in their own regions than they would have had in a centralised system. For the central government, decentralisation had the added benefit of partly removing government-mission conflict from the national arena.

Thirdly, the new arrangement still permitted the government to encourage considerable contribution to education from both the missions and village communities. Contributions to buildings, physical maintenance and staff expertise greatly reduced the financial burden on the central government.

Finally, the decentralised system was made necessary simply because of the numbers involved. With the establishment of the unified system, Department of Education responsibility increased from 3,400 teachers in 600 institutions to 7,800 teachers in 1,700 institutions (Bray, 1984: 43-4).

Distribution of Powers (1970)

The 1970 Education Act outlined the distribution of powers between the Centre, District and Local levels (see Table 2.1). Within this system, the national government retained control of universities, teachers' colleges, Australian curriculum schools and most aspects of the curriculum. Other powers were devolved. Specific provision was made for local control, chiefly to be exercised by local government councils, primary schools and vocational centre Boards of Management and high school Boards of Governors. Theoretical local powers were extensive, and the Boards of Management, for example, were made responsible for "determining the aims and goals of the school or centre and for supervising the achieving of those aims and goals" (Bray, 1984: 44 & 46). However, in practice, very few Boards had so strong an influence. Their role varied widely, seemingly dependent on lack of indigenous experience with schools, on the personalities of headteachers (who

were mostly expatriates), on the strength of church involvement in the community and on the activities of individual leaders.

	Centre	District	Local
ACCESS	a. Establish national criteria for selection b. Determine limits and conditions of fees	a. Approve primary school enrolments b. Select entrants to sec. and technical schools c. Determine appeals on suspension or expulsion d. Determine fees	a. Enrol pupils b. Approve disciplinary rules, suspension and expulsion
MATERIAL RESOURCES	Supervise implementation of approved plans: a. Draw up plans for est. and dev. of schools b. Supervise implementation of approved plans c. Provide facilities for adult education	a. Provide and maintain school buildings b. Ensure availability of adequate teachers' housing	
HUMAN RESOURCES	a. Allot quotas of teachers to districts b. Allot quotas of students to colleges c. Appoint, promote, transfer and suspend teachers	Appoint, promote and suspend teachers	(Secondary & Technical schools) a. Appoint teachers b. Engage locally employed ancilliary staff
ASPIRATIONS	Advise Administrator on achieving the objects & purposes of Territory Education System	Not applicable	Within the general framework of policy established under the act and the philosophy of the agency conducting the school to determine aims & goals and supervise their achievement
CONTROLS	a. Approve membership and functions of teachers' college governing councils b. Hear appeals from other authorities c. Measure and check the economical & efficient working of the education system	Approve membership and functions of boards of management of primary, secondary and technical schools	Not applicable

Table 2.1: Distribution of Powers under the 1970 Education Act. (Smith, 1975 in Bray, 1984: 45)

The Structure of the System, Pre-Independence (Pre-1975)

The structure of the system prior to the 1950s comprised essentially a seven-year primary education. Schooling was provided mainly by the missions. At this time there was little opportunity for secondary education. Nevertheless, those students who showed potential were sent to a church mission head station school or to a government higher school or area school to do another two-year post primary education. The structure of the education system prior to 1950s is illustrated in Figure 2.1.

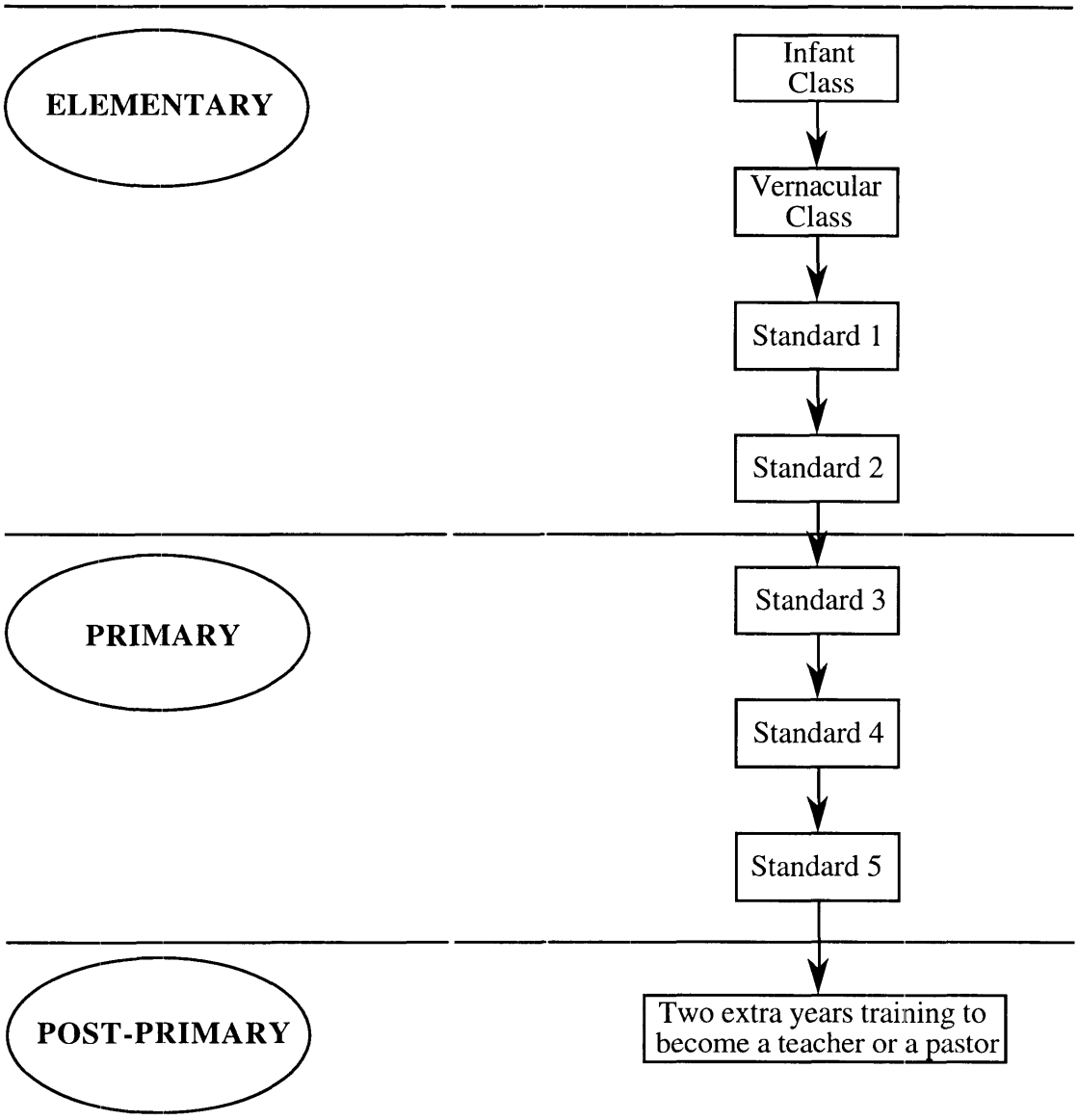


Figure 2.1 Education Structure prior to the 1950s

The real growth of education and of official involvement did not come until after the appointment of W.C. Groves as the Director of Education and the establishment of the Department of Education in 1946 (Bray, 1984: 41; Smith, 1975: 26). The education system grew as W.C. Groves' Administrative Plan 1948-1953 was trialled on an experimental basis. Figure 2.2 illustrates Grooves' Administrative Plan:

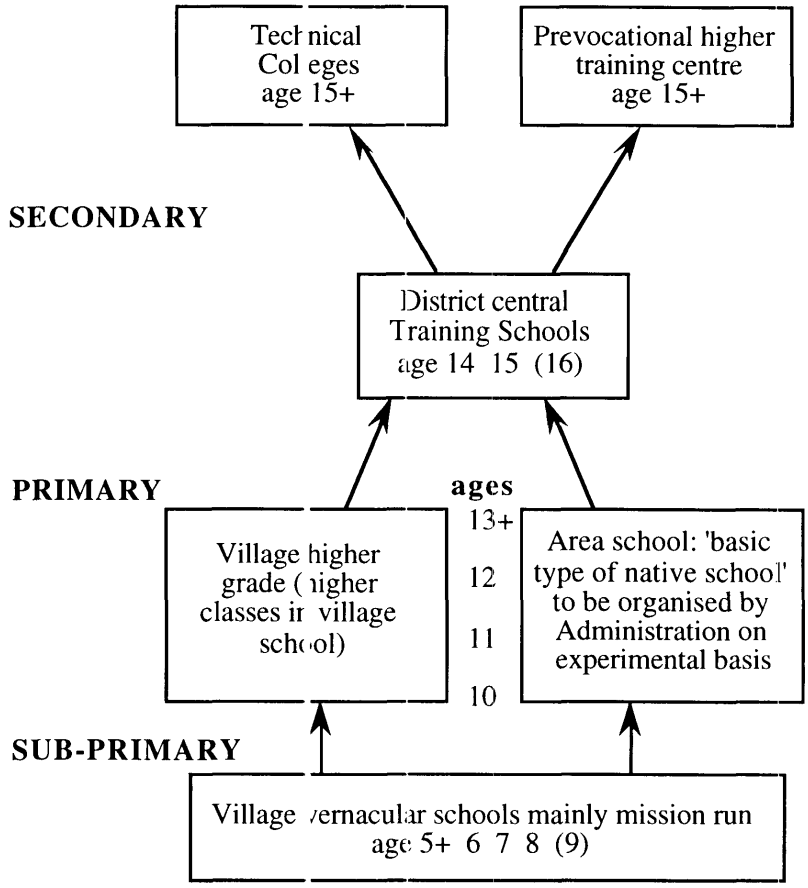


Figure 2.2 Types of Educational Institutions Envisaged by Grooves, 1946-8 (Smith, 1975: 28)

The Administrative Plan 1948-1953

Groves' Administrative Plan of 1948-1953 outlined the development and the organisation of the education system which was aimed to involve both government and mission schools In this plan, there were five types of schools for "natives" representing four levels of work:

> ***Village Schools:*** *Conducted mainly by missions, under administration subsidy, and giving four years' instruction. These schools used vernaculars as the media of instruction. In the fourth year, instruction in the reading and writing of English was commenced.*
>
> ***Village Higher Schools:*** *These schools were conducted by both the administration and the missions and gave a four year course, following on from the village school course. Vernaculars or English were used as media of instruction. The reading and writing of English was taught as a subject throughout the course.*

> ***Area Schools:*** *Area schools were conducted by both the administration and the church missions. Their course was of four years and the same syllabus as that for village higher schools was used. This type of school served a number of villages belonging to a single cultural and linguistic grouping and considerable emphasis was placed on its being used as a centre from which education could extend into the adult sphere.*
>
> ***Central Schools:*** *These schools were conducted by both the administration and church missions. The course was for two years and English was the medium of instruction. It was intended that each Central School should include a Manual Training annexe. Central schools for girls were conducted by mission organisations. Domestic training was included in the work of some of these schools.*
>
> ***Higher Training Centres:*** *Higher Training Centres were conducted by both the administration and the church missions. Courses were of three years. In each such centre, there was a group doing a one year course of pre-vocational training, preparatory to teacher-training courses or courses in instructions giving training in medicine and other skills. Teacher training courses were of two years.*
>
> (Smith, 1987: 169)

During this period, there was an emphasis on the extension of mass literacy. As Louisson (1970) states:

> *Many village people wanted education for their children, believing it was bound to transform their society. Education was looked upon as the source of Western influence, power, privilege and wealth.*
>
> (cited in Thomas (ed.), 1976: 4)

The Expansion from the Mid-1960s

From the mid-1960s, the education system expanded rapidly to comprise six years of primary education, followed by four years of secondary education and then either two years of senior high school, or a year of preliminary studies at UPNG to gain matriculation. Other students who wished to pursue their studies enrolled for example, at teachers' training colleges (primary and secondary teacher training), colleges of medicine, nursing, dentistry and paramedical training, just to name a few. Students who were not successful in securing places at tertiary institutions joined the workforce. Many who did not get into the workforce returned home to the villages. Those who gained

matriculation, either through senior high school or through the preliminary year at UPNG, then progressed to university study. Figure 2.3 illustrates the structure of the education system from the mid-1960s to early 1970s.

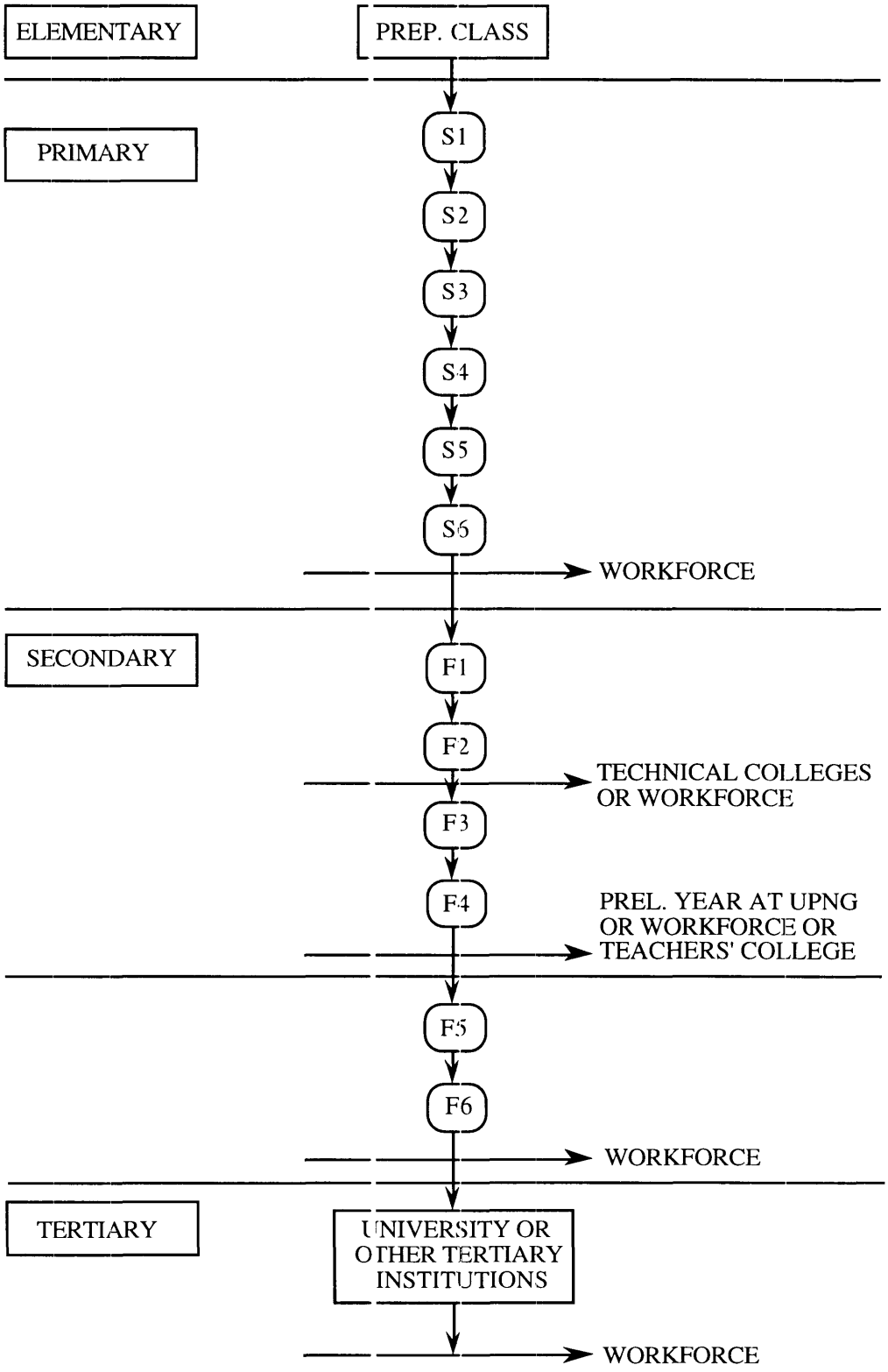


Figure 2.3 Education Structure from mid-1960s to early 1970s (After Education III Project Documents, NDOE, 1984, p. 34)

Elementary Level

Prior to World War II, the schooling offered was almost entirely restricted to the elementary level, and was provided by the missions. The government also established some schools, but the number of students in these schools was small in comparison with those in the mission schools. In 1939 there were approximately 90,000 pupils in mission schools (Thomas, 1976: 4). The missions were the dominant influence in the villages and they considered schools to be an essential instrument for the inculcation and propagation of their faith (Bray, 1984: 41; Ahai & Bopp, 1995: 3). Their main aims were to develop character and personality, prepare children to grow up as good Christians and useful members of society, to advance cultural development and to promote a healthier existence. The Government generally approved of the "civilising" role of the mission schools, and found it convenient to have a supply of indigenous people able to read and write the colonial language. This enabled the government to extend its social, political and economic control over the country.

Initially, pupils were accepted into these village schools at almost any age. However, in some Papuan villages, children were encouraged to start school at the age of five. They attended the Infant Class (Class C) and the following year progressed on to Vernacular Class (Class B) (Smith, 1987: 202). For most of the colonial period, the schools were modelled on the German or Australian pattern. As Smith (1987: viii) elaborates:

> *For most of the colonial period schooling was mainly the responsibility of the different christian missions, and the variety of nationalities, doctrines and educational practices of the missions.*

During this period, the syllabus was prepared by the missionaries and was taught using the vernacular language or mission lingua franca. This changed in the 1950s when the Government distributed the first government syllabus. With this the Government also changed educational policy from that designed to meet the needs of the village societies to one aimed at developing a nation. This was thought to imply the need for a greater knowledge of English, and the reaction was for the government to move to an exclusively English education system (Ahai & Bopp, 1995: 3-4).

Primary Level

The post-war period saw an emphasis on the extension of mass literacy. Most village people regarded education as the best means of obtaining access to the Western privileges of a commercial economy, political influence and a better lifestyle.

In 1952, a seven-year primary cycle of schooling was commenced (Hastings, 1973: 122). Initially, pupils started in the Infant Class and progressed to the Vernacular Class, then to Standards 1 and 2. Those who showed potential moved on to Standards 3, 4 and 5. Most students in the later years were sent to a mission head station school or to a government high school or area school (Smith, 1987: 202). This structure later changed to prep. class, followed by Standards 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6. During the 1960s, the growth in the school system was remarkable, however it was largely uncoordinated (Bray, 1984: 42). As Todd (1974: 114) outlines:

> *In 1960, there were only 2,082 students who had reached Standard 6 of primary school. In 1966 there were 9,730; in 1971, 22,115. The December 1973 estimate was 25,000.*

Secondary Level

An Australian scholarship scheme was set up in 1954 to cater for secondary education. Twenty students were selected each year from 1954 to receive secondary education in Australian secondary schools (Lee, 1967 in Smith, 1987: 227). The first secondary high school was started in 1957, following on from a seven-year primary cycle which started in 1952 (Hastings, 1973: 122). So, in the decade following 1962 there was a rapid expansion of secondary education when new high schools were established. This expansion came about because of the change in Australia's educational policy for PNG, initiated by Johnson (Thomas, 1976: 5; Smith, 1987: 225). This was a policy of deliberately creating an elite which would inherit the Australian mantle and lead Papua and New Guinea to eventual self-government, independence, economic growth and higher living standards (Thomas, 1976: 5; Smith, 1987: 225). The expansion that took place between 1963 and 1968 in high school enrolments both in government and non-government schools is illustrated in Table 2.2.

Year	Government	Non-Government	Total
1963	1 830	1 328	3 158
1964	3 050	2 593	5 743
1965	4 400	2 777	7 177
1966	5 400	3 750	9 150
1967	6 800	4 868	11 668
1968	7 750	5 850	13 600

Table 2.2
High School Enrolments, Government and Non-Government 1963-1968
(Smith, 1987: 226)

In reference to Table 2.2, the enrolment figures increased from 3,158 in 1963 to 13,600 in 1968, a fourfold increase.

The secondary school course consisted of four years (Form 1 to Form 4). The first external examination was the Intermediate Certificate at Form 3, followed by the School Certificate at Form 4. Both of these examinations were external examinations although the chief examiners and panel members were mainly practising teachers in both government and non-government schools (Smith, 1987: 226).

A further two-year course (Form 5 and Form 6) was provided in two senior high schools established by the Government, namely Sogeri and Keravet in the early 1960s. Selection to get into these upper secondary schools was highly competitive as the two schools could only have an annual intake of approximately 250 students each selected from all high schools throughout the country.

Tertiary Level

The formal tertiary educational sector was not established until the mid-1960s. The establishment of tertiary level education was justified in terms of assisting PNG to achieve independence, economic growth, and have a higher living standard. Papua New Guinea needed high-level human resources to do so. The Australian Government's rush to rapidly expand the tertiary sector came as no surprise as they were pressured by the United Nations to develop the standards of professional, administrative and political leadership which

were vital to any territory in preparation for self-government. In 1962, a United Nations Visiting Mission headed by Sir Hugh Foot recommended changes to the Australian administration's educational program. The Foot Report, as it is known, argued that the educational program at that time was inadequate as it paid little or no attention to the need for higher education (Jinks et al. (eds.), 1973: 380; Smith, 1987: 224). The Report recommended that the existing education system provide:

> * *university education;*
> * *produce individuals capable of replacing Australians in other than unskilled or semi-skilled positions;*
> * *give a level of knowledge required to exercise responsibility in the fields of commerce and industry;*
> * *make provision for senior administrative and professional staff; and*
> * *adequately generate political confidence and leadership.*
>
> (Smith, 1987: 224)

Following the Foot Mission, a three-man commission, headed by Sir George Currie, was appointed to plan higher education. The Currie Commission recommended the establishment of a university and an institute of higher technical education (Jinks et al. (eds.), 1973: 390-1). The first university (UPNG) commenced teaching in 1966. The second university (University of Technology) opened a year later. A variety of tertiary institutions were then established to cater for the rapidly increasing number of personnel needed for the workforce.

In the early 1970s before independence in 1975, PNG had more than 30 post-secondary institutions, including the two universities, an administrative college, a forestry college, and agricultural college, a local government staff college, and a co-operative college; colleges for medicine, nursing, dentistry, and paramedical training; three technical colleges, two agricultural training institutes, and 11 teachers' colleges; not to mention training institutes operated by such diverse organisations as the Department of Civil Aviation, the Police, the Corrective Institutions, the Army, the Electricity Commission, and the Department of Transport (Thomas, 1976: 13).

Early Post-Independence

The national education system did not change significantly when PNG gained independence in 1975. The major change was the detachment of elementary education from the national system. The structure of the system however, still comprised four main levels. The structure of the education system from 1975 (early post-independence to early 1990s) is illustrated in Figure 2.4.

The four main levels were: *primary* (the word 'primary' school was changed to community school), *lower secondary* (the word provincial was added thus creating provincial high schools), *upper secondary* (the name senior high school was changed to national high school) and *tertiary* (universities and colleges). A noticeable change was the terminology used to describe the classes: instead of Standards and Forms, classes were called Grades.

The education system continued its focus on the development of human resources. The system became highly selective. As Ahai and Bopp (1995: 5) reiterate:

> *there was more emphasis placed on passing examinations to progress on to higher levels of education, resulting in low levels of accessibility to the various levels of the system. Little attention was given to relevant education for the majority who were pushed out of the system and had to return to the villages.*

"Pushed-out" refers to those students who did not continue on with their formal schooling due to the fact that there were limited places in the high schools. Students who achieved highest marks in final public examinations won places in high schools while others missed out.

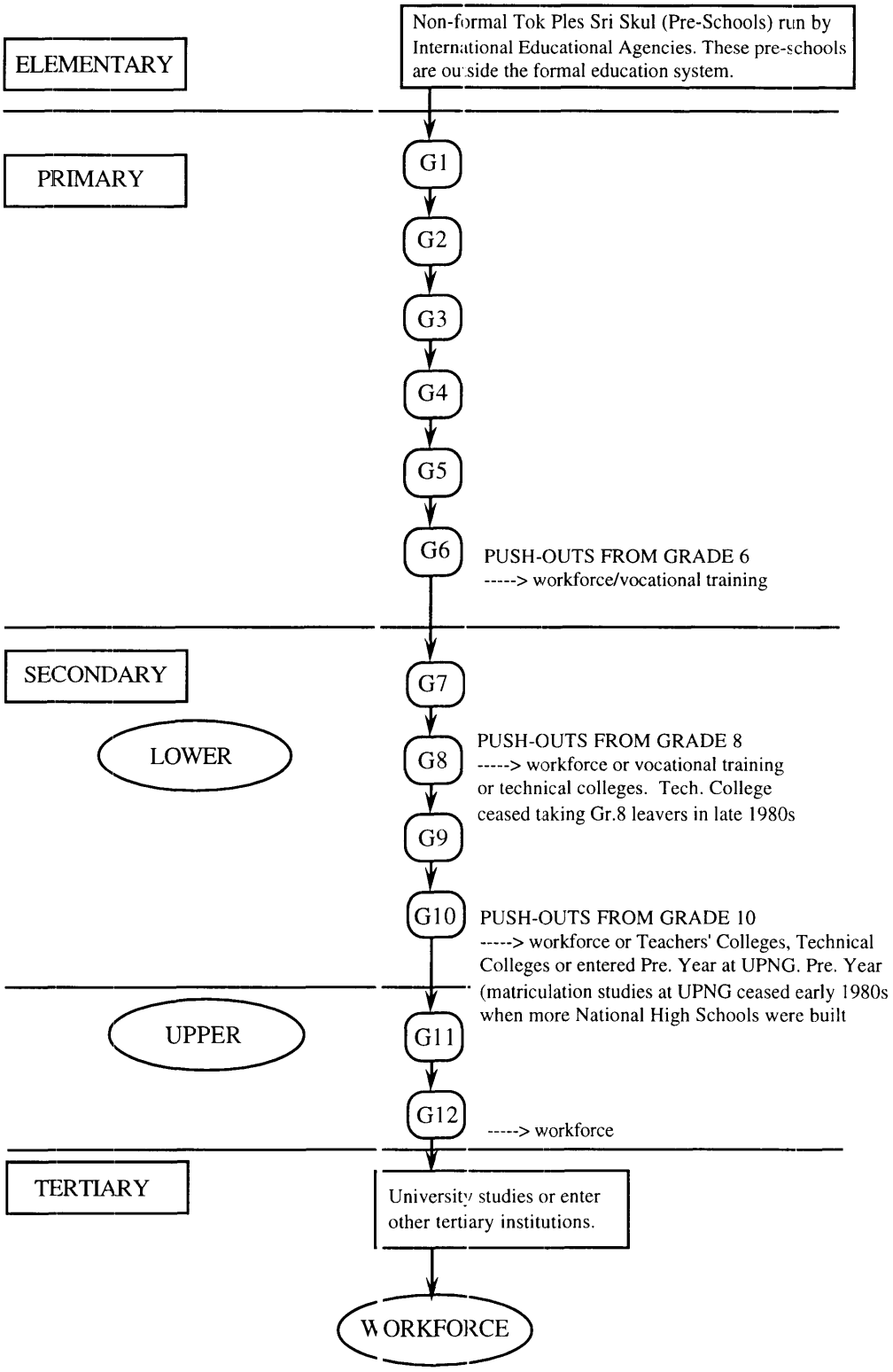


Figure 2.4 Education Structure from 1975 to early 1990s
(After Education III Project Documents, NDOE, 1984, p. 34)

Distribution of Powers (1977)

The policy of political decentralisation, in which many responsibilities were given to newly formed provincial governments, also influenced the education system. The sharing of responsibility for education between the national and provincial governments led to complexities in planning, particularly when there were differences in priorities. The Distribution of Power between the National Government and the Provincial Government is illustrated in Table 2.3 below.

NATIONAL GOVERNMENT FUNCTIONS	PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT FUNCTIONS
1. **National Education Planning and Policy, including:** a) Setting of guidelines for control of curriculum in all schools and colleges, including the language of instruction, course content, amount of schooling, the school year, pupil-teacher ratios, the inspection and assessment of schools and staff. b) Control and supervision of examinations, standards, certification and teacher registration. c) Definition of national policies for the expansion of the Education System, including the distribution of educational resources among the provinces. d) The Teaching Service Commission, including personnel functions of service, discipline, staff establishment, etc., in the National Education System.	1. **Provincial Education Boards:** Appointment, suspension and administration of PEBs. A PEB is to be appointed by the Provincial Government and is to work subject to its direction, but within the overall national plans of the National Education Board. 2. **Village Self-Help Schools (Permitted Schools):** All matters. 3. **Pre-School, Primary Schools and Provincial High Schools:** Provincial planning for the opening, recognition, administration and closing of institutions, enrolment of pupils, obtaining land, providing buildings and materials including teaching materials and textbooks, provision of school libraries and guidance services, appointing teachers, promotion of teachers to vacancies within the province.
2. **Pre-Schools, Primary Schools, High Schools and Vocational Centres:** Goals, registration of teachers, foreign relations, enrolment policies, overall national planning, educational standards including inspection and certification, school broadcasts, distribution of teaching staff, conditions of service and appeals.	4. **Vocational Education:** Provincial planning for the opening, recognition, administration and closing of vocational centres, for the enrolment and termination of students, for obtaining land, providing buildings, equipment and materials including school libraries, broadcasts and guidance services. Powers to decide curriculum content and language of instruction and to award certificates: power to appoint (but not dismiss) teachers and to promote teachers to vacancies within the province.
3. **Adult and Community Education:** Goals for Adult Education; dealing with overseas bodies and nations in relation to Adult Education.	5. **Adult and Community Education:** This function includes correspondence education (e.g. community secondary education) but not formal correspondence lessons based on regular school curriculum. Full power to plan the development of adult and community education including budgetting for development, the provision of land, buildings and materials, the opening of institutions, enrolment policies, the determination of curricula and language(s) of instruction, the employment of instructors (other than members of the Teaching Service), the inspection of institutions and the award of certificates, the provision of equipment and libraries.
4. **National High Schools, Technical Colleges, Teacher Training, Higher Education and National Library:** All matters, including the location of institutions.	6. **Public Libraries**: All matters.

Table 2.3 Distribution of Powers according to National Executive Council Decision No. 19, 1977 (Bray, 1984, p. 50)

National Control within the System

Despite the willingness of the NDOE to transfer major powers to provincial governments Figure 2.3 shows that the national government still retained several important controls. All teachers, for example, were trained in national government institutions and registered with the National Teaching Service Commission, which determined basic salaries, bi-annual recreational leave fares and other entitlements. Teacher training was retained as a national function to provide uniformity within the country and to prevent provincial governments setting up their own colleges and thereby precluding economies of scale and perhaps upsetting the labour market. The fact that the national government retained control of the inspection system also had far-reaching implications. All inspectors were NDOE employees, even those based in the provinces.

The national government also retained strong control over the curriculum, which it defined very broadly to include:

a) content;
b) standards and examinations;
c) minimum age of entry;
d) number of hours of instruction on the curriculum;
e) number of days teaching each year;
f) number of years of instruction;
g) maximum pupil-teacher ratio; and
h) language of instruction.

These functions provided the National Government with a powerful but hidden instrument of control (Bray, 1984: 51-2).

Broadly, provincial governments were responsible for non-formal and vocational education, for the number and location of primary (community) and secondary schools, and for non-core parts of the primary school curriculum. The national government was responsible for core curriculum in primary (community) schools (English, Mathematics, Science and Community Life), all secondary school curriculum, and all aspects of national high schools, teachers' colleges and universities.

The devolution of these powers to the provincial government encouraged some provincial governments to modify their educational structures to suit their provincial educational needs.

Distinctive Developments

The most distinctive developments which occurred during this period were:

(i) The North Solomons Provincial Government's development of a system of 'tok ples', or vernacular pre-schools in 1979, better known as 'Viles Tok Ples Skul' (VPTS) system. These VPTS were established in response to demand for education to be related more closely to indigenous cultures. Teaching was in the vernacular languages. The VTPS were not governed by the requirements of the National Education System. The success of the VTPS in North Solomons prompted other Provincial Governments like Enga, West Sepik and East New Britain, to establish their VTPS in the early 1980s.

(ii) East New Britain Provincial Government also initiated several distinctive projects. Among them was the development of a teacher support programme in Rabaul. This programme developed teaching aids and organised teachers' workshops. The Province also drew up a series of diagnostic tests for pupils in Grade 4 and 5 in 1983, aimed at identifying academic weaknesses for remedial treatment long before the Grade 6 examination. They also developed a series of 19 readers for use in the primary schools.

In the 1980s, the Department of Education came up with an educationally worthwhile innovation by setting up the Secondary Schools Community Extension Project (SSCEP). It was a pilot project trialled in ten provincial high schools throughout the country. This project carefully blended four years of the academic subjects needed for the technological age and those which related closely to the community. These SSCEP schools were not successful because of lack of resources, sound management and community interest. The project was disbanded in late 1980s.

Elementary Level

The national elementary education that the government started in the early 1960s, known as pre-schools, was disbanded in 1974 and the responsibility for such was handed over to international education agencies and non-government organisations. They were mainly established in the urban areas. The rural areas did not have that benefit until non-formal Tok Ples Pri Skuls (TPPS) were established by certain provincial governments outside the formal education system.

In these pre-schools, the local vernacular was used as the medium of instruction instead of English and children attended two years of pre-schooling where they learned basic literacy and numeracy, as well as receiving social and cultural training. The other provinces and language communities subsequently developed their own vernacular literacy programs assisted by non-government organisations such as the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL) in the early 1980s (Ahai & Bopp, 1995).

Primary Level

From 1975 and during the 1980s, the primary education sector became well established. Additional schools were established to cater for the growing numbers of school aged children. The children did a six-year course, starting from Grade 1 to Grade 6. A national Grade 6 examination was conducted throughout the country. Results of this examination and individual school quotas determined the selection of pupils to high school.

Nevertheless, throughout the 1970s the government was accused of a decline in the quality of primary education. This was attributed largely to rapid replacement of expatriate teachers with national teachers. Over half of the national teachers employed during that period had less than a grade 10 education. To remedy this, a primary education project was designed to improve educational quality through provision of systematic upgrading for teachers, together with appropriate student materials. Throughout the 1980s and early 90s the quality of teaching and student achievement improved but the question of educational quality remained problematic.

Secondary Level

The four-year course at the lower secondary level from the previous era continued but the high enrolment of students in Grades 7 and 8 forced some students to leave school after Grade 8 due to the unavailability of class space in Grade 9. Some of the students who were forced out of Grade 8 went to technical colleges, others joined the workforce or returned home to the villages.

Noticeable Changes in the System

Noticeable changes introduced into the system during this period were:

(i) The discontinuation of the Intermediate Examination which was completed at the end of Form 3 (Grade 9). The only national examination completed by students was the School Certificate Examination at the end of Grade 10.

(ii) Up until 1980 it was the practice for schools to allow approximately two thirds of Grade 8 pupils to proceed to Grade 9. The remainder were not permitted to continue, some of whom went to technical colleges and the others returned to the villages. From 1981 the national Minister for Education recommended that all provinces should adopt a four year programme, that is, to allow all students to continue their education from Grade 7 to Grade 10 without any student having to leave school at the end of Grade 8. Since the power to make decisions had been delegated to Provincial Education Boards (PEB), the Minister could only recommend and not direct in this matter. This resulted in considerable confusion and different policies being enacted from 1981 onwards. Some Provincial Governments allowed their schools to permit students to progress from Grade 7 to Grade 10 without any students leaving school and others continued on with the previous system.

The low educational standards at the primary level in the 1970s contributed to quality weaknesses at the lower secondary level. During the 1970s there was a rapid push for localisation of jobs previously held by expatriates. The high school system was also affected Nationals were trained at Goroka Teachers' College to take up teaching positions previously held by expatriates in the lower secondary level.

Although the majority of provincial high school teachers were regarded as qualified, technical support, including in-service upgrading, was limited; teachers found that they were unable to provide the remedial and further instruction required by students to strengthen their academic achievements. This contributed to a decline in quality of schooling at the lower secondary level. The early 1980s and 1990s saw an improvement in quality but the extent of that improvement is still debatable.

With regard to upper secondary education, besides Sogeri and Keravet National High Schools, two more national high schools were established – Aiyura and Passam. Kabiufa, an SDA high school also provided Grades 11 and 12. Fortunately, the decline in the quality of education felt in the primary and lower secondary levels, was not evident in the upper secondary level.

Tertiary Level

The tertiary institutions that were established before independence continued to function into the 1990s. The Government continued with its policy regarding the development of middle and higher level personnel for the workforce.

1992 To Present

In 1990 and 1991, the Department of Education, with assistance from the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) and the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), conducted an education sector review. The main recommendation of the sector review called for basic reform of the education system. This recommendation was based upon an analysis of major issues and an identification of basic weaknesses in the system. The reform involved the restructuring of the formal education system from the pre-primary level through to the upper secondary level. The reform was designed to directly address most of the systematic weaknesses and problem areas identified in the sector review.

Some of the characteristics of the post-independence education system which were identified by the National Department of Education (NDOE, 1994: 6-7) were:

1. *Access was limited. Although enrolments have increased in the primary schools at a rate of approximately four percent per annum, the gross enrolment ratio (GER) in primary schools has reached only seventy-three percent. This means that the country is still a long way from universal primary education.*
2. *There was a great disparity in ages of children enrolling in grade 1. Official entry age to Grade 1 is seven years. Nevertheless, studies show that only about 23 percent of entrants to Grade 1 are seven, and ages can be as high as 18 upon entrance (12 percent over 12 years of age).*
3. *There was a very high attrition rate between grades 1 and 6, of almost 45 percent.*
4. *Initial literacy and all education is largely provided in a foreign language resulting in many children leaving school functionally illiterate.*
5. *There was a serious shortage of teachers (1994 projection: 2254) and no plans to overcome this, rendering the achievement of Universal Primary Education (UPE), in the context of the present system, impossible.*
6. *Only 32 percent of children continue their education beyond Grade 6. There was overwhelming public demand for children to have greater opportunities for continued education.*
7. *The present Provincial High School curriculum was largely academic in its orientation.*
8. *Of those who enter Grade 7, only about 66 percent complete Grade 10.*
9. *Despite the obvious potential benefits of quality vocational education to national development, vocational education remains the poor relation of the education system. It was under-resourced in manpower and finance and suffers from a negative public perception. It is also devoid of linkages with equivalent or higher levels.*
10. *Of those who complete Grade 10, only one third are selected for further education or training.*
11. *In general, the education which the vast majority of children who do not enter the formal employment sector receive, alienates them from the way of life of the people and does little to equip them with the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary to contribute positively to community or national development. It is now the understanding of many people in PNG that school leavers are not adequately prepared to perform effectively in the workforce. Therefore, it is becoming increasingly important for primary school leavers to possess skills that will enable them to cope adequately with their local environment. Many Grade 6 graduates are returning to their communities where there is, and has always been,*

traditional work and opportunities for community-based employment. Their education has not prepared them for their reality.

12. *There is a great deal of inefficient management throughout the system resulting in resource wastage.*

(NDOE, 1991: 6-7)

Therefore, a restructuring of the education system was required to:

1. *Provide easy access for all seven year olds to education in a language which they speak;*
2. *Rationalise staff deployment by, for example, institutionalising multi grade teaching and realistic teacher:pupil ratio;*
3. *Provide a range of types of lower and upper secondary education;*
4. *Increase significantly access at both the lower and upper secondary levels;*
5. *Have most children leaving school at a more mature age;*
6. *Recognise the important role of vocational education in national development; and*
7. *Provide for linkages between vocational education, as a form of secondary education, and higher levels.*

(NDOE, 1991: 7)

The Reformed Education Structure

The Education Act was amended in 1995 establishing the reformed education system as the PNG national education system. Consequently, the NDOE is currently implementing the new education system which has been established by law.

The reform is aimed at restructuring the previous system of formal education over the next 15 years as follows (see Figure 2.5). The implementation of the new education structure is rather complicated since some schools are still following the pre-1992 structure whilst other schools have adopted the changes. Each of the changes to take place throughout the reformed education system in the next 15 years will be discussed in turn.

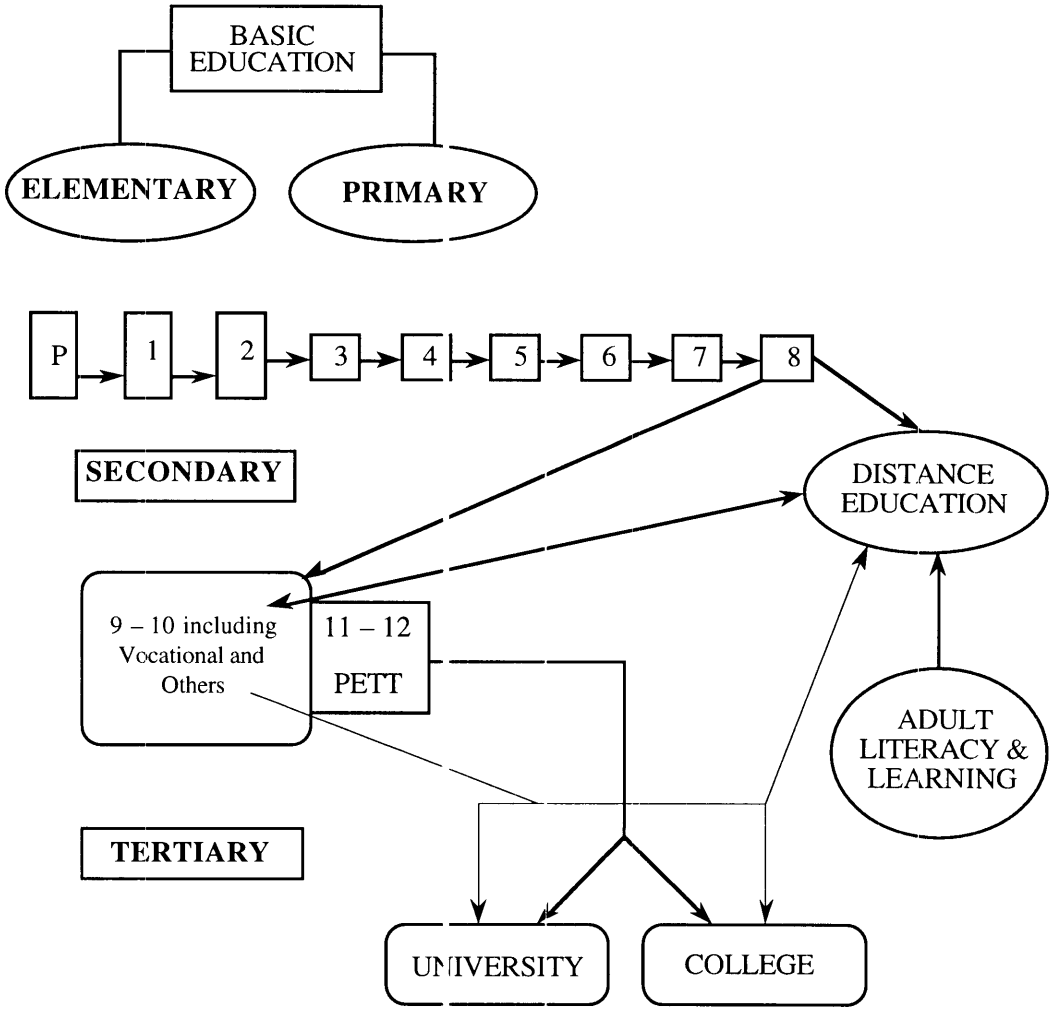
Elementary Level

At the elementary level, elementary schools in the village or settlement areas will be expanded to allow greater intakes. Enrolment at the preparatory ('prep') level will begin at six years of age. These schools would combine Tok Ples Pre-Skuls (TPPS) with the first and second years of community school. Teaching in the three-year elementary schools will be in the vernacular, allowing for acquisition of literacy in the language which the children speak.

Prep curricula will remain as they are, with emphasis on initial literacy, numeracy, ethics, morality, and cultural bonding. To make the curriculum more relevant, expand enrolments, and help improve retention in elementary schools, Grades 1 and 2 will comprise a newly integrated curriculum centred on four areas: language and cultural studies, mathematics, creative expression, and physical education. In most schools, teaching will be done by one teacher using multigrade teaching methods. The transition to English will begin in the third year (i.e. Grade 2). A new, more relevant, integrated activity-based curriculum will be adopted, and will use locally developed materials.

Primary Level

The elementary schools will act as feeders for primary schools, beginning at the Grade 3 level. Six years of primary education will be provided through Grade 8. All children will be expected to continue with their education through Grade 8. To improve the quality and relevance of education, primary curriculum will become more subject-specific, and a strong vocational component will be developed for the upper grades as part of a Curriculum Reform Project. A new examination system will also be formulated for graduation from Grade 8.



Notes:

1. **Preparatory:** Preparatory class with initial literacy and general education in the vernacular.
2. **Vocational:** Two years of lower secondary education with a vocational skills bias.
3. **Other:** A wide range of 'permitted' institutions which offer two or more years of secondary education, usually with a strong vocational bias determined by thneeds and opportunities of the areas which they serve.
4. **Grades 11-12:** Upper Secondary education or Matriculation will develop particular curriculum biases, for example, academic, agriculture, technical, commercial and so on. The diagram provides for Grades 11 and 12 as separate institutions, as at present, or added on to existing provincial high schools.
5. **PETT:** Pre-Employment Technical Training courses, which are for two years post Grade 10, and located in technical colleges.
6. **College:** Covers the more than sixty non-university 'tertiary' institutions which currently take mainly Grade 10 leavers, but who are intending to raise their entry level to Grade 12 as the pool of Grade 12 leavers increases.
7. **Distance Education:** College of Distance Education (CODE), and the Department of Extension Studies at the UPNG.

Figure 2.5 The Reformed Education Structure from 1992 to present (NDOE, 1994: 13)

Secondary Level

Restructuring of primary schools will begin with the transfer of Grades 7 and 8 from the provincial secondary schools to gradually "top-up" the primary schools. At the same time Grades 11 and 12 will be transferred from high school level to provincial secondary schools. Secondary education will eventually consist of four years – Grades 9 to 12. Doubling of enrolment in Grades 9 and 10 will subsequently become possible and transition to Grades 11 and 12 improved. It is anticipated that unit costs of education in Grades 7 and 8 will be reduced through use of facilities at existing primary schools coupled with increased enrolments. However, capacity at secondary level will have to be increased through expansion of existing provincial secondary schools. It is anticipated that unit costs for Grades 11 and 12 will also be reduced with improved transition and increased enrolments.

Tertiary Level

Tertiary education will remain as presently structured as the reform does not include tertiary education.

Impact of the Reform on the Role of the High School Principal

The education reform will affect the role of the high school principal in terms of:

(i) The uncertainty in the role he/she has to play and, whether it will be more an administrative or instructional role still remains to be determined.

(ii) The duties expected of him/her will increase. He/she will be challenged to perform at a higher educational level of responsibility despite lack of preparation provided by the NDOE.

(iii) The expectations of parents, teachers and the students on him/her to bring about changes might not be realistic. The principal's role will come under pressure to accommodate the changes brought to schools by the restructuring of the education system.

Status of Education in New Ireland Province

The status of education in New Ireland Province is highlighted on Table 2.4, indicating the number of educational institutions and their enrolment estimates in 1996. These figures were based on the Provincial Education Reform Plan which was developed, approved and is being implemented now.

Institution	No. of Institutions	Enrolment
Elementary	44	1,710
Lower Primary	105	13,187
Upper Primary	10	746
Lower Secondary	4	2,230
Upper Secondary	1	64
Vocational	5	439
CODE*	1	1,557
University Centre	1	300
Total	215	20,233

* College of Distance Education

Table 2.4 Education Statistics-1996 Estimates
(Provincial Educatior Office, Kavieng, April, 1996, p. 3)

Elementary Level

New Ireland Province has only made slow progress in vernacular education. There are now 44 Tok Ples Pre-Skuls operating in five language groups, and there is a plan to expand across the whole Province during the next five years. The Province also has two English speaking pre-schools both of which are situated in Kavieng town.

Primary Level

Enrolment in 115 community schools has risen to 13,187 students – an annual average increase of 2.1 percent since 1980. This increase is quite low, compared with the national average increase of 3.8 percent for the same period. There have been one or two new community schools opened each year, thus improving access for the vast majority of children to schooling in their local

areas. However, this has resulted in a large number of very small schools and a very high teacher/pupil ratio.

The gross enrolment rate of 79.5 percent is above the national average, however the major problem facing primary education is low retention rates. New Ireland Province has a retention rate that is slightly better than that of the rest of the country, but even so, almost 30 percent of the children in the 7 to 12 age group drop out of school before completing six years of education.

For students who are unable to continue formal schooling at the end of Grade 6 because of insufficient places in secondary school, the Province has five vocational training centres which are intended to cater for them. The number of 'push-outs' increases year after year and the vocational centres cannot cater for most of them. These students usually end up returning to their village communities.

Secondary Level

High school enrolment in NIP rose from 1980 to 1990, by 24.6 percent to 2,294 students. This is well above the national figure. The transition rate between Grade 6 and Grade 7 has always been well-above the national average and exceeds 50 percent (NDOE, 1994: 67).

In 1996 a former provincial high school, Namatanai, was upgraded to the status of an upper secondary school and enrolled 64 students to continue into Grade 11. There are now four lower secondary schools, namely, Utu, Manggai, Mongop, and Madina. This study was conducted in these five schools. (Refer to Figure 1.2 – Map of NIP on page 11 for locations of the high schools in which this study was conducted)

Other Institutions

Besides these schools, NIP also has the College of Distance Education and a University Centre, both based in Kavieng.

The Implementation of the Reform in NIP

In 1996, NIP had 44 TPPS elementary schools established throughout the Province. These TPPSs use their vernacular as the medium of instruction. English will be introduced in the third year of the programme (i.e. Grade 2). These schools are governed by the village people and will eventually take over Grades 1 and 2 from the community schools in 1997 or 1998.

Ten Community schools in the Province have also been upgraded and are now called "Top-Up" or upper primary schools and have commenced teaching Grades 7 and 8. These schools have ceased enrolling any more Grade 1 classes, as these are now part of the elementary schooling. The community schools have begun the transition towards teaching classes from Grade 3 to Grade 8 only.

One high school, Namatanai, was upgraded to an 'upper secondary school' status in 1996. This means that this school has commenced teaching Grade 11 classes. There were two classes with a total enrolment of 64 students. In 1997, the school will have two classes of Grade 11 and two classes of Grade 12. From 1997 this school will not have student enrolments in Grades 7 and 8 classes.

Chapter Summary

The PNG Education System, developed since Independence, has clearly not been meeting the needs of the country. The relevance of basic education provided has become an important issue. The schooling system is inadequate in its provision of essential basic skills, such as numeracy and literacy as well as social, spiritual, and ethical development.

The causes of poor quality are common to most developing countries – inadequately trained teachers, insufficient learning materials, a poor learning environment, and ineffective management and supervision. These problems must be overcome in order to improve the quality of education.

Key components of the reform call for the curriculum to be revised to become more relevant to the needs of students and society, and for teachers to be properly trained in its implementation. Pre-service courses of training will have to be reoriented and teachers in the school provided with appropriate in-

service courses. The reform is proposed to mitigate most or all of the shortfalls of the previous system.

This study investigated the instructional leadership role of the principal. Against this background of reform, the role of the principal in a high school is changing and becoming more demanding. The principal will have to play a pivotal role in successfully bringing about the changes of the reform and improving the effectiveness of the high school.

The next chapter presents a review of literature on studies conducted in the framework of school effectiveness. It focuses upon the instructional leadership role of the principal and addresses the issue whether or not the principal can make a difference in the school through effectively carrying out his or her instructional leadership tasks.