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# **INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION IN AN ERA OF CHANGE: POLICY AND PRACTICE IN PRIMARY EDUCATION IN KENYA.**

A Thesis submitted to the University of Durham  
For the degree of

## **DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

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By

**CATHERINE MUCHIRU KAMINDO**

Durham University  
School of Education  
United Kingdom  
**June 2008.**

1 2 JUN 2008



## **DECLARATION**

This thesis is as a result of my research and has not be been submitted for any other degree in any other university.

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## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

I am greatly indebted to the Commonwealth Scholarship Commission for providing the financial support that facilitated my doctoral studies in Durham University.

My special gratitude goes to my supervisors Dr. Sue Beverton and Professor Mike Byram for their invaluable scholarly comments, guidance and support that greatly shaped my research work. Special mention goes to Professor Peter Tymms, Dr. Rob Coe, and Peter Mwaura for their guidance in quantitative data analysis and interpretation, and Obure Ming'ala for his technical support in the use of SPSS.

I am grateful to my husband John Kinya who took time off from his work to assist in data collection, my children Collins Maina and Tracy Nyokabi for their patience during my absence from home, and my brothers and sister for cheering me on. Thanks also to my parents in-law Mr and Mrs Maina Gatuhi for their prayers. To my friends Justa Wangari, Jane Mwangi, Esther Kahu for providing motherly love to my teenage daughter when she needed it most; to Sue Muriuki and Liz Machira who took time to visit her at school and home. Fred Kamunde my fellow Commonwealth scholar's contribution on operations of education field offices is recognised. My friend and colleague Sally Gichura with whom I shared the highs and lows in the academic journey deserves a special mention. Sally, your encouragement made the task manageable.

I also wish to recognise the contribution of my friends and colleagues Eve Jepkemei and Lydia Mucheru for their encouragement and support, Nyanjui, Mogaka, Ngigi, Jane, Ringa and Gachicio for assisting in the pilot study. Mention must go to my friends and colleagues; Dr. Evangeline Njoka for making my first year of stay in the UK homely; Dr. Ricardo Estee-Wale for the constant reminder that I was up to the task.

In addition, I am grateful to all individuals who contributed directly or indirectly to the successful completion of this thesis.

Finally, I wish to acknowledge God's Grace without which this work would never have been.

## **DEDICATION**

To my dad, the late Joseph Kamindo for planting the knowledge seeking seed and believing in me, and to my mum, Lucy Murugi for nurturing that seed to maturation.

## **ABSTRACT**

This study examines the policy and practice of instructional supervision in primary education against a background of an educational change in Kenya.

Primary education is an important sector of education in Kenya. This is because about 40% of children who start primary education each year terminate their education at that level. It is therefore important to ensure its objectives are achieved. Consequently the government frequently undertakes reforms aimed at improving access, participation, retention and completion rates. The latest ones are provision of free primary education and a revised curriculum. Despite these reforms this sector of education continues to experience problems in achievement of its goals. Instructional supervision has been identified as key in the improvement of teaching/learning and consequently achievement of educational objectives. The pre and post-independent education commissions in Kenya and other government reports have continued to identify supervision as an area that needs attention. Against this background, understanding what ought to be and what actually happens is important in order to identify areas that need attention for improvement of supervision and subsequently teaching and learning in primary schools in Kenya.

This study therefore focused on:

- the existing policies on supervision, and the policy expectations of the supervisors
- the actual instructional supervisory functions supervisors perform
- head teachers' and teachers' expectations of supervisors
- supervisors', head teachers' and teachers' perceptions of the importance and frequency of performance of instructional supervisory functions, and
- the challenges faced by supervisors and teachers in implementation of curriculum change.

The study employed a survey design with a mixed method approach. Data were collected using questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. Data were analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to determine if there were significant

statistical differences in the respondents' perception of importance and frequency of supervisory functions while Post Hoc test (Tamhane coefficient test which is suitable for unequal sized groups) was used to establish where the differences among the groups were. Both tests were carried out at 0.05 level of significance.

Findings show that despite the legal backing and many policy documents supporting instructional supervision, the actual practice differs from the policy expectations. Supervisors were aware that according to policy they were expected to perform evaluative and supportive/advisory functions, however their actual performance emphasises the evaluative/assessment functions of supervision. The head teachers' and teachers' expectations on the other hand are in line with the policy expectations. For instance frequent supervisory visits, regular in-service training, opportunity for professional growth, induction on curriculum and other changes and evaluation without intimidation are some of the head teachers' and teachers' expectations. However, in their view, they differ with the actual practice of the supervisors with most of their expectations not being adequately met.

On average all the respondents perceived the supervisory functions as important but supervisors rated evaluative functions as very important while head teachers and teachers rated the supportive/advisory functions as very important.

On frequency of performance of supervisory functions, supervisors perceived almost all functions as frequently performed but head teachers and teachers perceived many functions as rarely performed.

These findings have implications for policy and practice of instructional supervision in Kenya and other developing countries in similar contexts. There is need for revision of instructional supervisory policy with a view to separating the evaluative and the advisory functions with the evaluative functions being carried out by the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards (DQAS) and Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) to handle the supportive/advisory functions. In addition, training of supervisors for their role should be addressed

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## **ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS**

- ATS – Approved Teacher Status
- B.Ed – Bachelor of Education
- CATs – Continuous Assessment Tests
- CPE – Certificate of Primary Education
- DEO – District Education Officer
- DQAS – Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards, formerly the inspectorate
- DQASO – District Quality Assurance and Standards officer
- EFA – Education for All
- FPE – Free Primary Education.
- KCPE – Kenya Certificate of Primary Education
- KIE – Kenya Institute of Education
- KESI – Kenya Education Staff Institute.
- KESSP – Kenya Education Sector Support Programme
- KJSE – Kenya Junior Secondary Examination
- KNEC – Kenya National Examination Council
- KNUT – Kenya National Union of Teachers
- KRT – Key Resource Teacher
- MDG – Millennium Development Goals
- P1 – Primary 1
- PDE – Provincial Director of Education
- PTA – Parent Teachers Association
- QASO – Quality Assurance and Standard Officers
- S1 – Secondary 1
- SbTD – School based teacher development
- SMC – School Management Committee
- TAC – Teacher Advisory Centres
- TSC – Teachers’ Service Commission
- TTC- Teacher Training College
- UNESCO – United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
- UNDP – United Nations Development Bank
- ZQASO – Zone Quality Assurance Officer

8-4-4 – Eight years of primary education, four years secondary education and a minimum of four years of university education.

## **PREFACE**

This preface tells my story. It is meant to demonstrate the importance of supervision of curriculum implementation in my professional work, a journey I began 1987 when I qualified as a secondary school teacher.

*'We are contents of a trash can, nobody cares until the can smells'*

These are the words of an angry teacher in a school I visited to gather data for a needs assessment survey that was carried out in primary schools in Kenya in 1998. On enquiring from the teacher why he felt that way, the answer was even stronger and I quote,

*'you people sit in your offices in Nairobi, develop curriculum you have no idea how the teacher is going to implement, then occasionally you snoop around and disappear only to reappear when there is trouble'.*

The angry remarks by the teacher made me reflect on the time I was a classroom teacher and what we felt about supervisors and curriculum developers. It was not different from what the teacher expressed. The common talk in the staffroom was how nobody really cared about how the teacher went about implementing a curriculum developed by armchair officers who had no idea what teachers went through. These comments were common when teachers had a problem with subject content or in interpretation of curriculum objectives.

In addition my experience as a novice teacher has a bearing on this work. I was trained to teach Home Economics as three separate subjects namely; Home-management, Foods and Nutrition and Clothing and Textiles. By the time I graduated the curriculum had changed. Home Economics was taught as one subject that combined all the three subjects. As an inexperienced teacher it wasn't easy to adapt to the change. I longed for guidance that was not forthcoming. I was not in-serviced nor inducted for the change. The few times that the inspectors came along, to be precise only twice in the seven years I taught, I was never observed in class neither did I get a chance discuss my needs with the inspectors . I often asked myself why the inspectors were not interested in finding out the challenges I faced as a novice

teacher implementing a curriculum change. A question that I hoped this study would answer.

It is these experiences that inspired me to join the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) which is the national centre for educational research and curriculum development. When a vacancy was advertised in February 1996 I felt my time had come to correct the injustices I thought were committed against the teachers. I was successful and was appointed as a senior research officer in charge of programme evaluation. My duties among other things included monitoring implementation of primary education programmes in the country.

At the time of my appointment, the general public was strongly voicing their dissatisfaction with the then 8-4-4 education system that had been introduced in 1985. The politicians and parents were up in arms against a system they thought was too expensive, too broad and too demanding, denying children a chance to be children. The media were awash with commentaries on the system. As a result, the Institute carried out a needs assessment survey in schools in 1998 in which I participated from the beginning to the end when the report was handed in to the director of education.

It was as a result of the needs assessment survey that a major curriculum review was embarked on. I participated in this curriculum development process from the beginning to the end when it was made available in schools.

The experience I gained during the curriculum development process made me reconsider our initial thinking as teachers. We were wrong; the curriculum development process was a participatory process that involved curriculum developers, classroom teachers, teacher trainers and inspectors/supervisors. If this was the case then, what was the problem?

These experiences marked the beginning of my long journey of finding out the policy and practice of supervision of curriculum implementation and the quest to add to the already existing knowledge in instructional supervision.

The question the reader is bound to ask is why the interest in primary education while my training and teaching was in secondary school education. First, transition



rates from primary to secondary education have been low at 47% at the time this study commenced. Secondly, two major reforms (provision of free primary education and revised curriculum) were being implemented in primary education. Lastly, the teacher who provoked me was a primary school teacher. It was only fair that I find out how and why the teacher got into '*the trash can*' and what can be done to remove him and prevent others from similar experiences.

My grandmother's influence during my childhood years is evident in this thesis. Most chapters begin with a Kikuyu proverb or saying. The proverbs and sayings used give the theme of the chapter or section. In most African cultures, proverbs begin and conclude a story. I acknowledge the translated proverbs may not have the same impact as in the original language. However, the translation had to be done for the benefit of majority non-Kikuyu speakers who will read this thesis.

The findings of this study may not have provided answers to all questions concerning instructional supervision in Kenya; however it has laid a foundation from which the area can be explored further.

# SECTION ONE

## CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

### 1.0 Introduction

All agree that the single most important key to development and poverty alleviation is education'.  
James D.Wolfensohn. World Bank President, (World Bank 2002:1).

The World Bank, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), and the United Nations Development Bank (UNDP), bodies that have invested in education especially in developing countries, have identified education as an important tool in economic development, poverty and in equality eradication. It is for this reason that education is a basic right for every child (World Bank, 2002; UNESCO 2006, 2005, 2003; UNDP, 2006, 2005; Hanushek & Wößmann, 2007; Bruns, Mingat & Ramatomalala, 2003). This position was reaffirmed during the 16<sup>th</sup> Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers in Cape Town in 2006 (Commonwealth Secretariat, 2006).

In the 2006 Kenya human development report, *Human security and human development: A deliberate choice* UNDP identifies literacy and numeracy as 'important to human development index' (UNDP, 2006:6). These are key skills that primary education in Kenya is supposed to achieve as indicated in the objectives of primary education (Republic of Kenya, 2002a). A statement in the UNDP report presenting the acquisition of numeracy and literacy skills as a condition for a better life seems to sum up all the objectives of primary education in Kenya. The report attributes better life to awareness of life and access to basic needs, chance for income generating and good health (UNDP, 2006) while Godoy and Contreves in Bruns et al.(2003) add better resource management as a benefit of primary education.

The national goals of education in Kenya and the primary education level objectives reflect the importance of primary education. In particular, the objectives of primary education are aimed at producing Kenyans who have knowledge and skills that enable them to fit in the society (Republic of Kenya, 2002a). This is reflected in



many key government documents. Key among these are the *National Development Plan for 2002-2008* in which the government has identified education as key to the attainment of the Millennium Development Goals (MDG) and Education for All (EFA) (Republic of Kenya, 2002b). Other government documents that have extensively outlined the importance of primary education are the *Sessional paper No. 1 of 2005: A policy framework for education, training and research* Republic of Kenya (2005a), *The economic recovery strategy paper* Republic of Kenya (2003a), *The poverty reduction strategy paper (PRSP) 2001-2003* (Republic of Kenya, 2000b).

Another indicator of the seriousness with which the government takes primary education is the budgetary allocation. The Ministry of Education takes the lion's share of the government's budget (73%) in the social sector. Furthermore it is primary education that is allocated the highest amount in the ministry's development budget. In the financial year 2003/2004 primary education was allocated 69% of the development budget (Republic of Kenya, 2005a).

Although research has shown that in developing countries primary education plays an important role in development by increasing productivity in industry and agriculture, positive effect in social changes by lowering fertility, mortality and reducing gender inequality Colclough & Lewin, (1993), a third of children in the developing countries drop out of school before completing the primary education cycle. It is argued that even those who complete may fail to attain basic functional literacy (Lockheed, Verspoor & Associates, 1991; UNESCO, 2005).

In response to the need and importance of primary education, the Kenya government has put in place policies and strategies to provide basic education for all children in the country. Two major strategies were put in place in 2003. These were the introduction of free primary education (FPE) and implementation of a revised primary education curriculum (RPEC).

FPE was meant to improve access to education and it did so by raising enrolment into primary education from 5.9 million in 2002 to 7.6 in 2005 (Republic of Kenya, 2005a). The revised curriculum was to respond to the changing needs of the society thus making education relevant (Kenya Institute of Education, 1999).

These two strategies have shaped primary education in Kenya. While FPE is centred on provision of resources, RPEC is on teaching - learning processes. Both reforms are being implemented in the same primary schools, by the same teachers, and at the same time. Although I acknowledge each has an influence on the other, the focus of this study is the implementation of the revised curriculum. Provision of resources, as is the case in Kenya, is important in improving access. However, my argument is that access alone is not enough. It does not necessarily lead to achievement of the set educational objectives, as the UNESCO reports cited above suggest. If the set primary education objectives and to some extent the national goals of education are to be achieved through the two initiatives, teachers need to understand the changes (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992). What happens in the classroom when these pupils access education is very important. It is the teachers' ability to implement educational changes that determines the extent to which success is achieved (Fullan, 2007; Johns, 2002).

Any change is a challenge to the teachers who are to implement it. I cannot agree more with Bredeson & Kose (2007:1) when they point out that 'education reforms have affected schools and those educators that work in them' and Chapman and Harris's (2004:225) argument that 'assistance from external sources, such as consultants or LEA advisers, is an important dimension of the change process'. Teachers were implementing two major changes at the same time and therefore needed support from supervisors to enable them implement the changes.

In my experience as a teacher and educational researcher in Kenya, I hold the view that the teacher is the most important resource in a school. This is as a result of visiting many schools in Kenya, some without even the basics like classrooms and still learning takes place as long as a teacher is available. I therefore agree with Beach & Reinhartz (2001: ix) in their view of 'the teacher as the single most important instructional entity in the teaching-learning processes'.

Kenyans depended on the teachers to implement the educational changes. The preparation and support of the teachers to enable them implement these changes was therefore very important. As argued by Fullan (2001) and Datnow (2000) teachers need to be clear on what the change is, what they were to do differently.

The curriculum change in Kenya was a complex affair, both in content and mode of implementation. In the revised curriculum some subjects were phased out and others were merged to form new subjects (Kamindo, 2001; Kiminza, 2002). The curriculum was also implemented in phases. In 2003, it was introduced in classes one and four. It was to progressively replace the previous curriculum. This meant that one teacher could be teaching the old and the revised curriculum in different classes. According to the teachers, this was a complicated arrangement (Kenya Institute of Education, 2004).

While the change in curriculum was expected to be a challenge to the teachers, FPE brought its own challenges. There was an influx of pupils in schools. The number of teachers did not increase to match the number of pupils. In some areas the teacher pupil ratio was as high as 1:100 or more (Republic of Kenya, 2005a). In addition the interest it raised among those beyond the official age of joining class one (six years) was not anticipated. The oldest pupil to register was 84 years old. He was attending same class with six year olds.

The other challenge that teachers faced was that of children who were previously in the streets joining school. These children usually have social problems such as drug and substance abuse (Kenya Institute of Education, 2004). Teachers needed extra skills to cope with these children.

The complexity of implementing change is summed up by Fullan (2001:69) in his comment that 'change is technically simple but socially complex'. To the policy makers, teachers had the syllabuses spelling out what was to be taught and the resources to purchase curriculum support materials. That is what they needed to implement the curriculum. Was that enough to enable the teachers to implement the revised curriculum? Were the complexities pointed out by Fullan addressed?

One way of addressing and simplifying these complexities as revealed by literature is through supervision of instruction (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2007; Pajak, 2006; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Wanzare, 2004).

In Kenya, *The education act chapter 211, section 18* of the laws of Kenya places the legal responsibility for supervision of schools on the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards (DQAS) formerly the Inspectorate. Commenting on the changes that have taken place in the directorate, the director emphasised that ‘the officials’ [supervisors’] responsibility is to ensure curriculum implementation among other roles’. This was to be done through supervision of schools ([www.eastandard.net/](http://www.eastandard.net/) July 27, 2006).

Despite this legal backing, reports and papers generated from the Ministry of Education have continued to identify inadequate supervision of instruction as a key factor impacting negatively on the quality of education in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2003, 2004a, 2005a, 2004a; Wasanga, 2004).

Inadequate supervision of instruction is not a new problem in Kenya. The first pre-independence education commission in Kenya identified lack of instructional supervision as a major cause of low standards of education in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1964). All other subsequent education commissions and committees that were set up to study and report on education in Kenya have echoed the first pre-independence commission’s findings ((Kenya Institute of Education, 1990, 1995; Republic of Kenya, 1976, 1988a, 1988b, 1999). Recent reports on the monitoring of implementation of the revised curriculum have pointed out supervision as an issue of concern in the implementation of the curriculum (Kenya Institute of Education, 2004, 2005, and 2006).

This background reveals that there is a problem in the area of supervision in primary schools in Kenya. Sometimes we know something is not right, there is no empirical proof but we just know it. This happens many times especially in developing countries where home-grown empirical evidence is often lacking. This is unlike an observation by Osterman in a forward in Sullivan & Glanz’s book that

We know what works and how to do it. Unfortunately we also know that practice of supervision often falls short of this (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005: vii).

The same cannot be said about Kenya. We have often prescribed in-service training of teachers as a solution to all our problems in implementation of educational

changes. This has not been supported by empirical evidence; neither has there been an attempt to reflect on the policy on supervision and especially in the light of implementing change. This is what this study set out to do as discussed in the next section.

## **1.1 Purpose of the Study**

In the above introductory section, the benefits of primary education, the initiatives the government has taken to ensure access and relevance of primary education and challenges that have emerged as a result of these initiatives were presented. The challenges, as discussed and emphasised later can be addressed through instructional supervision. However, Kenya has since independence experienced problems in the area of supervision which has been blamed for lack of achievement of educational goals and objectives (Republic of Kenya, 1964a, 1988a, 1999, 2005a).

So far there is no evidence of a study done in Kenya to establish why instructional supervision has been and still is a problem.

It is against this background that this study explores: the policies on supervision, the functions that supervisors are expected to carry out according to the existing policy/policies, the actual functions they carry out, the head teachers and teachers' expectations, supervisors, head teachers and teachers' perceptions of importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions.

It is hoped that the findings of this study will capture the attention of the policy makers and stakeholders in education on the practise of instructional supervision in primary education in Kenya. The findings will create awareness of the connection between the policy on supervision and what the teacher does in the classroom as they implement change, as well as their expectations and needs.

## **1.2 Questions for the study**

The main aim of this study was to establish the policy and practice of instructional supervision, the head teachers' and teacher's expectations of the supervisors, and supervisors', head teachers' and teachers' perceptions of the importance and

frequency of performance of supervisory functions. Answers to the following research questions were therefore sought:

1. What is/are the existing policy/ policies guiding supervision in Kenya?
2. What supervisory functions are supervisors expected according to existing policy to carry out?
3. What are the actual instructional supervisory functions carried out by the instructional supervisors as reported by supervisors, head teachers and teachers?
4. What are the head teachers' and teachers' expectations of supervisors?
5. What are the perceptions of supervisors, head teachers and teachers on the importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions?
6. What challenges are faced by supervisors and teachers in relation to supervision and implementation of curriculum change?

## **1.2 Significance of the Study**

There is a general agreement among researchers in the field of instructional supervision that there is a need for more research on how supervision is carried out in schools. As Blasé & Blasé (2004:4) rightfully put it, 'there is not much published description of how instructional supervision is actually carried out in schools and how teachers are affected by such supervision'. This concern raised by Blasé & Blasé is even more pertinent in developing countries as observed by Harber & Davies (1997) that many studies carried out in developed countries may not be relevant in developing countries thus creating the need for studies based in developing countries. This study contributes to bridging this gap in the area of instructional supervision.

Primary education in Kenya as discussed in section 1.0 is an important level of the education. Given that the transition rate from primary to secondary level education has been as low 47% (Republic of Kenya, 2003b). Although the rate of transition has improved to 60% in 2006 Aduda (2007), it is important that the achievement of the educational objectives in this level is enhanced. Effective teaching plays an



important role in 'developing the quality of education' Pontefract & Hardman (2005:87) and hence fulfilment of educational objectives. Effective instructional supervision on the other hand improves teaching and learning (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005). By establishing instructional practices, teachers instructional supervisory needs and expectations, and perceptions of importance of and frequency of instructional supervisory functions of teachers and supervisors, this study has established areas that need improvement as well as ways of improving them.

The Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards in the Ministry of Education as pointed out earlier is charged with the responsibility of supervising education in Kenya. The department not only oversees implementation of curriculum in primary schools but also in all other levels of education except the university.

While this department has this heavy responsibility, there is no evidence of any research carried out to establish the policy that is in place, and the actual supervisory functions carried out in the implementation of primary education curriculum. In addition, although instructional supervision plays a central role in curriculum implementation, there is no evidence of a study conducted in Kenya to establish what the teachers expect from the supervisors and what they actually get.

This study is unique as it has put a spotlight on policy, combining it with the practitioners' interpretation of policy and feedback from the consumers of the service. The finding based on this combination can be used to revise and improve policy and practice. This is especially at a time when the laws governing education in Kenya are being reviewed. This is in line with Miles and Huberman's (1994) argument that studies that have to do with policy are supposed to lead to action.

The study also provides information that can be used to develop training or induction programmes for the supervisors to enhance their performance in helping and supporting teachers in curriculum implementation. Several things are happening in Kenya where the findings of this study can be utilised.

1. The country's constitution is under review.
2. A taskforce has been appointed to study all laws governing education in Kenya with a view of improving and consolidating them.

3. The change of Inspectorate to Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards. This means the role of the department needs to be understood in the light of the change.

While contribution to the general field of knowledge was a motivating factor in the study, I did not lose sight of the fact that findings were aimed at solving a real problem that exists in the education sector in Kenya. The recommendations given in chapter nine are therefore practical in nature. They spell out the action that needs to be taken and by whom. This approach was taken with the policy makers in mind. They may not have the time to read the details but can read a summarised case for action.

The results of this study serve as baseline data because they establish the policy's expectations, what actually happens (practice), and the teachers' expectations, and the connection between the past and the present in instructional supervision in Kenya. In the course of the study, gaps have been identified that need to be explored further. Recommendations given for further research are meant to push knowledge in the field of instructional supervision a notch higher.

## **1.4 Scope and Limitations**

This study confined itself to instructional supervision in primary education in Kenya. My argument is that teaching/learning is the major purpose of schools. All other activities are carried out in its support. It is therefore important to understand how this important component of the school is supervised for the achievement of its objectives.

The study covered only public primary schools; this is because over 95% of the children in Kenya attend public schools. A study conducted earlier revealed that supervisors hardly supervised private schools except for purposes of registration (Kamindo, 1998).

Teachers used in this study are limited to those who taught the five core subjects taught and examined externally in primary education in Kenya. These are Mathematic, Science, English, Kiswahili, Social and Religious studies. This is

because research shows that teachers concentrate on teaching the externally examined subjects ignoring those that are not examined externally (Kamindo, 1998; Kenya Institute of Education, 2004, 2005).

Curriculum implementation may involve a lot of things. However this study concentrates on the following areas:

- Interpretation of the national goals, primary level and subject general objectives.
- Teachers' understanding of subject content.
- Choice of curriculum materials.
- Teachers' professional growth.

The study relied mainly on what the respondents reported and documents that were available. Observation of actual visits to schools by supervisors would have provided further insight. However, this was not possible due the limitation of time. The other reason was the department did not have any supervisory visits scheduled during the time this study was carried out. The few that were done during the period of study were to address trouble in particular schools and were mainly in secondary schools.

This study was confined to one district in Kenya as a result of constraints of time and finances. The district represents the socio-economic differences likely to be experienced in many parts of the country. The sampling strategies used (see 5.4.1) tried to provide a representative sample of the schools.

In data analysis, the study was limited in terms of the tests that could be done due to differences in samples. However, as stated above, the underlying purpose of the study was to clarify issues, explain the situation as it was from the perspectives of the teachers, head teachers and supervisors. This was done in order to lay a foundation for further research in an area that has not yet been developed in Kenya.

## **1.5 Research Assumptions**

In carrying out this study, there were several assumptions that I made. My first assumption was that instructional supervision is essential and could be used help teachers cope with the challenges that come with implementation of a curriculum change. This assumption was based on the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions* (Republic of Kenya, 2000a) which spells out that the core duty of the Quality Assurance and Standards' officers is to ensure effective curriculum implementation.

Secondly, I assumed that all educational zones were staffed with supervisors and that the supervisors had interacted with the revised curriculum.

Thirdly, the assumption was that public primary schools are relatively homogeneous. This assumption was based on the fact that all the schools are supported by the government in terms of curriculum support materials and provision of teacher and that those teachers had similar pre-service training.

Fourthly, I assumed that the respondents sampled for the study had the information sought and that they would be honest and willing to provide the information.

## **1.6 Context of the Study**

Every country is unique. It is therefore important to put the study in the Kenya context. There are some fundamental issues without which this study may not have as much meaning as it should. These issues are presented in this section in order to put the study in the right perspective.

### **1.6.1 The Winner takes it All**

Primary education in Kenya ushers pupils into secondary schools. The examination taken at the end of eight years of primary education is used to select those to join secondary schools. The kind of secondary school one joins depends on the grade acquired. Those who score highest marks go to national schools, second best go to

provincial schools and the third joint district schools. All these schools are different in terms of resources and infrastructure. The national schools have the best facilities followed by provincial school and district schools respectively.

A significant number of children do not get a chance to join any of these secondary schools. When releasing the Kenya Certificate of Education results for 2007, the Minister for Education revealed that out of 665,451 candidates who sat the examination, 270,000 could not get admission in secondary schools (Aduda, 2007). This was as a result of lack of enough places in secondary schools. There are about 18,000 public primary schools and 4000 secondary (Republic of Kenya, 2005a). This makes primary education very competitive and examination oriented. As stated earlier, transition rates have been as low as 47 % in 2003 (Republic of Kenya, 2005a). Although this has improved to 60% in 2007 (Aduda, 2007), 40% of the children still terminate their education at this level.

The national goals of education and objectives of primary education spell out what should be achieved at this level (Republic of Kenya, 2002a). It is therefore important that these goals and objectives are achieved to take care of those children who terminate their education at this level.

### **1.6.2 Changes in Primary Education**

Kenya is currently experiencing rapid changes impinging on primary education.

These are:

#### **a) Free Primary Education**

The government introduced free primary education (FPE) in 2003. This saw the rise of enrolment in public primary school from 5.9 million in 2002 to 7.2 million in 2005 (Republic of Kenya, 2005a, 2005b). The high enrolment resulted into a high average pupil: teacher ratio of 50:1. The ratio could be as high as 100:1 in some areas (Republic of Kenya, 2005b).

Following presidential pronouncements on FPE, there was no guiding policy on age at which one could access it. Schools received pupils of different ages. The official age for starting primary school in Kenya is six years. However, over age pupils

joined school. Some who had dropped out of school due to financial constraints, rejoined, while others had never been to school. Also joining school were children who were earlier in the streets and who usually have social problems such as drug and substance abuse. This meant that teachers needed additional skills to handle the new challenges posed by the new development.

In schools with shortage of staff, teachers were expected to adopt multi-grade teaching while those with shortage of classrooms were to adopt multi-shift teaching. In schools with over-age pupils, adult education methods were needed. To deal with the children from the streets, guidance and counselling skills were handy. These are skills a teacher in primary school in Kenya would not normally have.

Through the FPE program, the government disburses money to schools for purchase of curriculum support materials and maintenance. The head teachers in the schools are the accounting officers. They are supposed to do the purchasing and keep the account books in order (Republic of Kenya, 2006b). This is in addition to other administrative duties and their teaching duties.

#### b) Revised Curriculum.

The revised primary education curriculum was put in place in primary schools in 2003 in classes one and four. It was to progressively replace the old curriculum. This meant that two curricula were being implemented in the same school and by the same teachers. A teacher could be teaching the previous curriculum in one class and the revised in another class. A year into the implementation, some teachers were still teaching the old curriculum in classes that were supposed to be taught the new curriculum or vice versa (Kenya Institute of Education, 2004; Reichi, 2006).

The changes in the revised curriculum were major. It involved reduction of subjects from thirteen to seven. Some subjects were phased out while others were merged to form new subjects (Kamindo, 2001; Kenya Institute of Education, 2004, 2006; Kiminza, 2005). New content such as HIV/Aids, child labour, child and human rights, gender issues, environmental management, democracy and governance were included in the curriculum. These changes put the teachers' pedagogical skills and content knowledge to test.

### **1.6.3 Teacher Education and Staffing**

#### **a) Training**

In Kenya, Primary teacher education training is a two year certificate course. Up to 2004, the entry grade to teacher training college was a minimum of grade D+ at O-level, a very low grade by any standards. A person who attains an average of grade D+ will not have passed well in any of the subjects they took an examination in. Training such a person to be a teacher means they will be teaching subjects they hardly passed.

According to policy the teacher is expected to be competent to teach the all subjects taught in the primary education (Republic of Kenya, 2005a). Although the entry grades to teacher training colleges have been raised and teachers are specialising in fewer subjects, the majority of the teachers in schools are those trained in the earlier era (ibid).

#### **b) Staffing.**

Staffing in primary schools is based on the number of classes in a school. If a school has one stream from class one to eight, it will have one teacher per class, the head teacher included. This means a teacher will be in class from 8.00 am to 3.30 pm, the time the school day ends.

A head teacher in such a school will have to combine administrative duties with full time teaching. Head teachers are supposed to be the internal supervisors in their schools (Republic of Kenya, 1999). Supervision would not be a priority to a head teacher with a full teaching load and books of account to keep. This creates the need to focus on external supervision which this study has done.

### **1.6.4 Change of Coat or Transformation?**

In Kenya, the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards (DQAS) is legally mandated to supervise/inspect schools. *The Education Act Chapter 211, section 18* of the laws of Kenya allow the officers 'to enter and inspect any school or any place

which is reasonably suspected that a school is being conducted, at any time, with or without any notice....'( Republic of Kenya, 2000a:7).

In 2004, under the reforms in the Ministry of Education, the then Inspectorate changed to DQAS. This as reported in their annual newsletter was to shed the negative image that was associated with the inspectors. They were previously seen as 'fault finders, police officers and poor listeners' (Oyaya, 2006:4).

The policy documents still refer to the inspector. Has the person of the inspector and their approach to work changed? It is important to get an answer to this question especially when important changes are taking place in the education sector.

It is against this kind of background that the study was carried. A discussion of these areas helps to further justify why this study is important for the country.

## **1.7 Overview of the Thesis**

This thesis is divided into five sections. Section one comprising of chapter one shows the importance of primary education and need for instructional supervision in Kenya. Section two, establishes the theoretical basis and the different dimensions of instructional supervision in chapter two, while chapter three discusses the nature of African traditional education and its implication on supervision as well as a history of supervision in Kenya.

Section three (chapters four and five) presents the research methodology and design used in the study.

In section four, findings are presented and discussed in three chapters. Chapter six presents the policies guiding supervision in Kenya; chapter seven gives the actual instructional supervisory practices and head teachers' and teachers' expectations of the supervisors. Chapter eight discusses the respondents' perceptions of importance and frequency of supervisory functions and the challenges faced by supervisors and teachers.



In section five (chapter nine) a summary of main findings, conclusions, recommendations, and their implication on the policy and practice of supervision in Kenya are presented. In addition, recommendations of areas that need further investigation are outlined. The findings and recommendations are summarised in two models. One showing the instructional supervisory model currently in use in Kenya and the other is the proposed model based on the findings of this study. The epilogue summarises my experience in the whole research process.

## SECTION TWO

### CHAPTER TWO: ANALYSIS OF RELATED LITERATURE

*'Dawn birds have different tunes, but all herald the breaking of a new day'. A Kikuyu Saying.*

#### 2.0 Introduction

One way of understanding a field is by analysing how it defines itself. In the first section of this chapter, the different views of instructional supervision are analysed. It is from the analysis that the foci of instructional supervision, supervisory functions, and factors that impinge on its effectiveness are drawn.

In the second section, educational change and its implication on supervision, and education and supervision in Kenya from a historical perspective are discussed. This is done in order to place the study in context.

#### 2.1 'Voices of Supervision'

Why 'voices'? Just like there are many voices and no two voices are the same even when communicating the same message, so it is with views on instructional supervision. Why are the different views on supervision important? This study examines the current supervision policy in Kenya (research question 1), the interpretation of that policy as reflected in the actual performance of the supervisors (research questions 2&3), the needs and expectations of teachers and head teacher who experience the supervision (research questions 4), the perceptions of the supervisors, head teachers and teachers on the importance of supervision (research question 5), and the challenges faced by supervisors and teachers (Research question 6).

These key areas investigated in this study are likely to be influenced by what each participant believes instructional supervision to be, its purpose, supervisory functions that are carried out and its envisaged outcome. For instance an instructional supervision policy based on the premise that supervision exists because teachers are

deficient and therefore fail to perform as expected will prescribe supervision that is aimed at finding out the teachers' shortcomings with a view of fixing them. The kind of remedy given and its components are determined by the supervisor. This kind of supervision is likely to be resented by teachers as they perceive it as a threat. On the other hand supervision policy based on the proposition that teachers are professionals and the experts in classroom instruction, would be collaborative, involving teachers in establishing their needs and ways of solving any problems encountered in their teaching. It is on this understanding that the different views of instructional supervision are analysed to establish whose voice is represented, what supervisory functions are advocated, and what the envisaged outcomes are.

Analysis of instructional supervisory literature reveals there are many and varied views, sometimes conflicting definitions and understandings of instructional supervision. As a result, its focus, purpose and practice differ across different instances. Mosher and Purpel (1972:102) attribute this variance to the complexity of teaching and teachers. They argue that until there is a common agreement on the concept of effective teaching, then there is little possibility of having 'any single concept or practice of supervision'. On the other hand, Harris (1985:1-2) attributes the divergence of views to 'different theoretical frames of reference' being used and 'lack of research in either depth or scope, organizational complexity, lack of information, and absence of perspective', suggesting need for further research. The 1992 Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development Yearbook (ASDA), a collection of views on instructional supervision from researchers in the field, attests to the varied views held in the field. Its title, *Supervision in transition* depicts change with the editor commenting that 'supervision is in such throes of change that not only is the historical understanding of the word becoming obsolete....' (Glickman, 1992). The fluidity that is shown in the two view points though voiced decades apart mirror Mosher & Purpel's (1972:1) description of supervision as an 'elusive concept'. The Oxford dictionary defines the word elusive as 'baffling', 'escaping', 'difficulty to find', 'hard to pin down' 'evasive' (Soanes, Spooner, & Hawker, 2001:286). These are strong descriptive words when used to describe a field as important as instructional supervision.

### 2.1.1 Views from Textbooks

Textbooks and research reports are a good source of information in any field as they represent the thinking in a particular field. Two studies that involved analysis of textbooks and research reports are used here to demonstrate views found in literature. *Identification of dimensions of supervisory practice in education: Review of literature* Pajak (1989, 1990a, 1990b) and *Views of instructional supervision: What do the textbooks say?* (White & Daniel, 1996). The two studies are similar in approach, since both examined textbooks. In addition Pajak analysed research literature. The difference is in their foci of the investigation. White and Daniel's focus is on theories that are dominant in literature while Pajak's focus is on knowledge, attitudes and skills associated with effective supervision and their importance to practitioners. The two studies were found ideal since they examined educational supervision textbooks a major source of knowledge for students, researchers, and practitioners in any field.

Using key words and concepts, White and Daniel examined the theoretical perspectives of supervisory practice, the supervisory definition presented in each textbook, the degree to which various supervisory theories are dominant in contemporary instructional supervisory textbooks, and the extent to which the textbooks focused on teacher growth and, alternatively, on teacher evaluation. The other criteria for inclusion of books in the sample was how recently the book was published and degree to which 'instructional supervision (as opposed to other facets of educational supervision) was prominent in their content' The textbooks examined were published in a span of 15 years prior to 1996 (White & Daniel, 1996:16).

Twelve textbooks may not be representative of a wide field such as instructional supervision. In addition, the sampling procedure based on the authors' determination and interpretation of what constitutes instructional supervision as opposed to general supervision as well as the selection based on when the book was published could be subjective. However, the list of books that were examined is composed of works by theorists, practitioners and researchers that have shaped the thinking and direction of instructional supervision over the years. This to a large extent gives credence to the findings of the study.

The findings indicate that seven out of the twelve textbooks are 'consistent with evaluative-based theories' and five were 'clinically oriented'. They note that 'no one theory consistently dominated the textbooks', hence the continued 'varied theoretical orientations' in instructional supervision (White & Daniel, 1996:1). Evaluation is about appraising or judging the worth of something, therefore based on White & Daniel's finding one would conclude that supervision is perceived as evaluation. The problem with this kind of view is determining what is evaluated, the teachers' classroom practices or the outcomes? This takes us back to Mosher & Purpels's (1972) observation of determining what effective teaching is. What White & Daniel's (1996) study reveals is not just the varied theoretical orientations but also the possibility that the practitioners' views could be stemming from their training, given the varied views in the text books. This according to them is because most of the textbooks they analysed are used to train instructional supervisors. In a country like Kenya where there is no particular formal training for instructional supervisors, the problem could be worse as their practice may be informed by practices and researches conducted in developed countries whose contexts are different. In addition, there is the influence of historical factors as explained in chapter three, where elements of supervision as practiced during the colonial times are still evident. Hence the need to establish supervisors' orientation through an examination of the policy and the functions they carry out. (Research questions 1&2).

Based on textbook and research literature published in the 15 year period prior to 1990, Pajak (1990:1) embarked on identifying 'the knowledge, attitudes, and skills for effective educational supervision and to verify their importance from a sample of practitioners'. The study was based on 300 research documents, reviews of research, research-based articles and reports, and papers presented at meetings of educational associations and 18 supervision textbooks. The practitioners were drawn from a wide range, representing different levels of supervision. A total of 1629 were sampled, questionnaires were used that yielded 66% response rate. The second level comprising of 672 practitioners who were recognised as outstanding by their colleagues yielded a response rate of 68%. Twelve of the practitioners were randomly selected for telephone interviews (Pajak, 1989, 1990a).

Specific statements of knowledge, attitudes, and skills were extracted. A sorting out process of combining related statements, removing those that were related to administrative functions yielded 12 categories representing various dimensions of supervisory practice. These categories are: Community relations, staff development, planning and change, communication, curriculum, instruction programmes, service to teachers', observing and conferencing, problem solving and decision making, research and evaluation, motivating and organising, and personal development (Pajak, 1990:8). According to Pajak, during the sorting process of the data, administrative functions were removed from the category; but the list presented as dimensions of supervisory practices has functions that are administrative in nature, a view held by Harris (1985:10) who perceives supervision in terms of being 'highly instructional-related' providing support services to teachers. Functions such as planning, problem solving, decision making, motivating, and organising fall under the 'administration' category (ibid).

The findings of the two studies cited, though conducted six years apart are similar. Both establish that in the literature reviewed, there was no consistency in supervisory views although some views are repeated in the literature more than others. Both reported there were differences in emphasis in the different sources they examined. In most instructional supervision literature, the voice of the teacher is lacking. This study makes a contribution by adding the voice of the teacher which is inadequately presented in supervision literature. Research questions 4 & 5 seek the head teachers and teachers' expectations and perceptions.

Although the findings of the two studies have shed some light on views on instructional supervision, one is still bound to ask what instructional supervision is. Answer to this question is sought in the next section where the theories and models of instructional supervision are analysed.

### **2.1.2 Theoretical Basis of Instructional Supervision**

The main principle that underpins instructional supervision as summarised by Bolin & Panaritis (1992:31) is the concern of 'supervision which is improvement of

classroom practice for the benefit of the students regardless of what else may be entailed' and irrespective of who carries it out. How instructional supervision is carried out is influenced by one or a combination of management approaches. As a result, supervisors focus on different aspects of supervision.

In this section, two main approaches that are seen to influence instructional supervisory practices are discussed. Although the two approaches form a basis for discussion, over the years others have evolved but with their principles being based on the two approaches discussed below. However for the purpose of this study, the resultant approaches are not discussed in details but mentioned where applicable.

### **2.1.2.1 Authoritarian Scientific Bureaucratic Model**

This approach is traced to its proponents Frederick Taylor's 1856-1915 scientific management and Max Weber's 1864 -1920 bureaucratic approaches. The two approaches have been treated as different but in this study they are discussed together. This is because they are about 'control, accountability and efficiency' of the worker in what Sergiovanni & Starratt (2002:14) refer to as 'an atmosphere of clear-cut manager-subordinate relationships'. This approach that controls according to Tracy (1995:323) suggests that 'teachers were not viewed as professionals but ...as workers to be directed and monitored'. Furthering this argument Sullivan & Glanz (2005:31) when interpreting answers to a questionnaire *Beliefs about supervision*, summarise indicators and assumptions under scientific bureaucratic instructional supervision as 'inspectional' and 'hierarchical' in nature, where 'supervisors are experts and teachers are not', to improve instruction teachers need the supervisors' help since they do not have the expertise and 'supervisors and teachers are not equal partners'.

The task of a supervisor using this approach is 'ascertaining that schools complied with set rules and regulations' (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992:32). Increasing efficiency in organizations is key in this model. Similarly improving teachers' instructional practices is the main focus of instructional supervision. Consequently, supervision that assumes superior / subordinate relationship between the supervisor and teacher, or a more knowledgeable supervisor as compared to the teacher falls under this

approach. For instance, Mosher & Purpel's (1972:16) definition of instructional supervision as 'teaching teachers how to teach' can be seen in this light. This definition assumes that the supervisor is superior to the teacher and has more knowledge in teaching than the teacher. It also assumes authority over the teacher. These are common attributes of supervision applied as inspection. The instructional supervisor suggests specific ways that the teacher has to follow. Proper record keeping are emphasised (Pawlas & Oliva, 2008). In the Kenyan situation as will be revealed later in section 6.2.3 records in form of lesson plans, schemes of work, and pupils' progress records are common features and are examined during supervision (Republic of Kenya, 2000a).

One of the basic principles in the approach is the fundamental belief that the main obstacle to efficiency in an organization is failure to work out ways to coordinate and control workers (Evans, 1991; Pawlas & Oliva, 2008). This is seen as management's failure to study workers' method of working (ibid). Research is recommended in order to devise job specifications and instructions to carry out the tasks, strict control of work and proper compensation for work done in an effort to make workers happy and work towards the achievement of the organization goals (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002).

Strict organizational structures that determine the social relations are seen as key to achievement of efficiency (ibid). Within the bureaucratic organisational structure are leaders who draw their authority from their positions of leadership (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005). It is this authority that is used to control workers creating hierarchies in an organization and rules to be obeyed according to ranks (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). In instructional supervision using this approach, the 'best' methods of teaching are found by the supervisor and enforced on teachers (Lucio & McNeil, 1969:9). Supervisors who operate under the scientific bureaucratic approach of supervision also emphasize efficient administration and tight organization (Mosher & Purpel, 1972).

Training for workers is emphasised in the scientific bureaucratic approach (Evans, 1991). The training is done to provide skills that would enable the workers to perform better to fulfil the organizational goals. The kind of training teachers go



through is determined by the supervisor. The teachers are passive receivers of knowledge and skills the supervisor perceive they lack (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005).

When applied in schools the authoritarian scientific bureaucratic approach is interpreted as inspection (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Tracy, 1995). The supervisor determines the educational outcomes and uses the teachers to achieve them (Lucio & McNeil, 1969). In Kenya educational outcomes are stipulated in the syllabuses that outline the content that is supposed to be taught and the expected outcomes in form of objectives. A lot of weight and focus seem to be given to the records as reported by teachers in this study and discussed in details in 6.2.3.3. Students' outcomes are also used as a basis of measuring the teacher's productivity (Tracy, 1995) a situation that is reflected in the ranking of schools according to performance in KCPE in Kenya. According to Tracy this results in direct class observations based on a checklist. The checklist is a common feature in instructional supervision. For instance in Kenya, the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions*, the guide that supervisors follow, has a checklist of what supervisors should look for when they visit a school. It goes further and gives a guideline on how to write the inspection (supervision) report (Republic of Kenya, 2000a).

The emphasis on quantifiable measures such as test results 'delimits the role of the teacher making the teachers teach-to-test' (Tanner & Tanner, 1987:179). In addition, 'productivity in education is difficult to measure, and reliance on quantitative measure of students could emphasize lower level thinking' as it ignores the process, concentrating on the product (Tracy, 1995:323). In Kenya, emphasis on examination results as explained in section 1.6.1 is used as a measure of 'good' schools and teachers. The higher the scores attained in KCPE, the 'better' the school. Teachers therefore tend to concentrate on training learners to pass examinations playing what Tanner and Tanner (1987:179) describe as a 'technician' role. The other drawback of focusing on the quantifiable measures to determine teachers' productivity is the complexity and varied nature of schools, teachers and pupil (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). Exemplifying the shortcomings of supervision based on evaluation of outcomes, Thrupp and Willmott give an example of the examinations and league table regime in England which fails to take into consideration the differences in the children's 'intrinsic and emotional capacities' (ibid:28).

The key aspects in the approach are: control, regulation, accountability and efficiency, where the teacher is expected to produce the product while the supervisor is the expert in the process to be followed to produce the best results (Pawlas & Oliva, 2008; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). This results in the inspectional, authoritarian, fault finding supervision that is resented by teachers (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992).

In conclusion, this approach to instructional supervision perceives the supervisor as the expert; hence the teachers act according to the instructional supervisors' directions. Supervision in Kenya as shown in chapters three and six is a reflection of the authoritarian scientific bureaucratic approach. Although the former inspectorate has changed to directorate of quality assurance and standards, it is important to establish if the polices conform to the change in name and the actual performance.

#### **2.1.2.2 Democratic Human Supervision**

The democratic human approach is a reaction to the authoritarian scientific bureaucratic approach that is seen to be suppressive and lacking in human relations (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005). It stresses the importance of people at all levels in an organization communicating, being involved in decision making and the supervisor being an informal leader. Human personality is respected and wide participation in formulation of policies affecting teaching and learning is encouraged (ibid). In general, it advocates the use of democratic leadership where 'every worker has a voice' (Evans, 1991:83). The main underlying assumption is that 'teachers would do their best in a supportive environment' (Tracy 1995:323). Supervisors are therefore expected to offer the supportive environment by focusing on teachers' personal satisfaction.

Expounding on democratic human supervision, Lucio and McNeil (1969:12) view supervision in terms of teachers' emotions where 'teachers had feelings and emotions which were appealed to for action'. Similarly, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983:3) explain the democratic/human relations approach as one where, 'teachers were

viewed as whole persons rather than packages of needed energy, skills and aptitudes to be used by administrators’.

Supervision under the democratic human approach is associated with guidance that respects human personality and encourages partnership between the supervisor and the supervised (Alfonso et al., 1981). It assumes that effective supervision is achieved when teachers and supervisors work together (Lucio & McNeil 1969; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Teachers’ professional growth and development are perceived as important functions of supervision under the human democratic approach (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Waite, 2000; Wanzare, 2004). The assumption is that as teachers are assisted to grow professionally and improve their skills, the impact will be seen in the learners. Contending this view, Darling-Hammond (1997:293) concludes that ‘what matters most for students learning is commitment, abilities and capabilities of their teachers’. Under this approach, commitments, abilities and capabilities are assumed to be addressed through professional growth and development. It is evident as discussed in 6.2.3.7; supervision in Kenya has been inspectoral in nature. This is perhaps the drive of recent changes in the department with the aim of adopting the ideals of the human democratic approach. Elements of the democratic approach to supervision are depicted in Kenya education sector support programme (KESSP) one of the latest education policy documents (see 6.2.4).

The attributes of democratic human supervision are well summarized by Mosher and Purpel (1972:117) as protection of the ‘integrity of the individual teacher’, concern for ‘releasing and sustaining the talent of individual teachers’ (ibid). They advocate a warm, friendly relationship between the supervisors and teachers which are portrayed in their shared responsibility. This suggests collaboration and consultation by the parties involved which can only be achieved if good communication is involved (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002).

A recent addition to the human relations approach is the human developmental approach that has been spearheaded by Glickman and colleagues Glickman et al. (2007) and also focused on by (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005). Although this is treated in many books as a different approach, I see it as an extension of the human relations democratic approach. According to Tracy (1995:324), the approach ‘combines the

concerns for a teacher's personal needs with concern for the productivity of the organisation'. Clinical supervision, developmental and differentiated models of supervision have their roots in the human democratic approach. Others approaches that are mainly referred to as alternative approaches such as peer coaching, peer mentoring, and action research are seen in the light of human democratic approach (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Glickman et al, 2007; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Tanner & Tanner, 1987).

### **2.1.2.3 Summary**

This section has demonstrated the relationship between instructional supervision and management models. The supervisory approach that a supervisor is inclined to use has been shown to depend on their inclination in terms of the management approaches they subscribe to. The next section examines the different models of instructional supervision.

## **2.1.3 Models of Supervision**

Supervisory functions that are performed are likely to be influenced by the supervisor's view of supervision. The main models of supervision are presented this section in order to lay a basis for examining the supervisory functions and effectiveness of supervision.

### **2.1.3.1 Clinical Supervision**

Among the different models of supervision, clinical supervision is seen to be widely embraced and used. Based on the idea of diagnosis and treatment in the medical field, the original idea of clinical supervision was developed in the 1950s in a laboratory school in Harvard University Master of Arts in teaching programmes by Morris Cogan and colleagues. Cogan's model has been picked up by others such as Acheson & Gall, (2003), Glickman et al, (1995, 2007), Lovel & Wiles, (1985) and Sergiovanni & Starratt (2002).

All the proponents of clinical supervision see it in terms of stages with particular emphasis on the consultative face-to face interaction between the teacher and the supervisor which is the trade mark for clinical supervision. This is captured well by Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002:222) in their definition of clinical supervision as referring 'to face to face contact with teachers with intent of improving instruction and increasing professional growth'. Similarly, Acheson and Gall (2003: 4) refer to it as a 'process, a distinctive style of relating to teachers'. Clarifying it further, they assert that for clinical supervision to work 'supervisor's mind, emotions, and actions must work together to achieve the primary goal (...) the professional development of the pre-service and in-service teacher' (ibid)

The notable difference among the various authors is the number of stages that are involved, but the content is basically the same. The original Cogan's model has eight steps, namely: establishing teacher-supervisor relationship, planning with the teacher (lessons, expected outcomes, instructional problems, materials and methods, learning processes, provision of feedback and evaluation), planning strategies for observation, observing instruction, analyzing the teaching learning process, planning the strategy of the supervisor-teacher conference, conducting the supervisor-teacher conference, and renewed planning for subsequent lesson or unit, encompassing the agreed changes (Cogan, 1973:10 -13).

While some authors like Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) have maintained the original eight steps, others like Goldhammer et al. (1980:32) have summarized them as: pre-observation conference, analysis and strategy, the conference, and the post-conference analysis. Glickman et al. (2007:302) have five steps similar to Goldhamer et al. (1980) but given different terms. The difference is observed in the third stage which they refer to as analysis and interpretation of observation and determining conference approach, and the fifth step which involves critique and review of the process. A further simplification of clinical supervision in three stages namely: pre-observation, observation, and post observation is seen in Acheson & Gall (2003) and Lovel & Wiles (1985).

Looking at the different stages in clinical supervision, it is clear there is consultation between the teacher and the supervisor, the focus is the classroom, and feedback is

provided by the teacher and supervisor in mutual understanding that depicts partnership (Pawlas & Oliva. 2008). These elements of clinical supervision have been portrayed in studies where teachers have revealed what they consider effective supervision. For instance, Blasé and Blasé (2000:132 – 133) in a study examining teachers' perspective on effective leadership using a sample of 800 teachers who responded to a questionnaire, drew a model of effective instructional leadership which according to the teachers was about 'talking with teachers to promote reflection and professional growth' (p.1320. These are key elements of clinical supervision. In particular the talking and reflection where they clarify that the talking involved 'making suggestions, giving feedback, modeling, using inquiry and soliciting advice and opinions, and giving praise'(p.133). In addition, the effective supervisor 'valued dialogue and encouraged teachers to critically reflect on their learning and professional practice' (ibid). Similar observations are made by Ebmier, (2003) . A supervisor in clinical supervision is seen more as a 'facilitator' who works with teachers to bring about change in classroom practices (Harris, 1985:99).

Though popularly used, clinical supervision has been criticised for

- Use of the word 'clinical', portraying a hospital setting which is considered not appropriate in an educational setting (Acheson & Gall, 2003).

- Being expensive in terms of time and equipment (Harris, 1985:99; Sergiovanni & Starratt 2002:246).

- Promoting individualism and destroying group interaction (Harris, 1985; Sullivan & Glanz (2005:19).

- Failing to appreciate the differences in teachers (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002:223). For instance for a novice teacher, clinical supervision is ideal as they get inducted into teaching, while for a veteran teacher they may want to be involved in group supervision where their experience can be used (Oja & Reiman,1998).

The criticisms raised about clinical supervision are of concern especially when looking at supervision against a background of implementing a curriculum change as in the case in Kenya. An educational change involves doing things differently, using different curriculum support materials and probably teaching methods (Fullan, 2001; Hall & Hord, 2001). These are changes that are evident in the implementation of the

revised primary education curriculum as explained in 1.6.2. To internalise the changes and accept them, teachers are likely to need each other, calling for promotion of collegial supervision rather than individualised supervision. The supervisor may also lack time to spend with one teacher in class as proposed in clinical supervision given the large scale implementation of the curriculum change.

### **2.1.3.2 Developmental Model**

Supervisors who employ this model treat teachers as individuals who are at various stages of growth and development (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Zepeda, 2007). The model is based on the assumption that teachers have varied experiences, abilities, and are at different levels of career development. It sees supervisors as determining the teachers' supervisory needs based on their individual differences, expertise, and commitment (Glickman et al, 2007; Holland, 2005). The supervisor can therefore vary their approach to different teachers in direct assistance, professional development, curriculum development, group development and action research with teachers (Glickman et al, 2007; Pajak, 2001; Zepeda, 1999) hence combining the teacher's need with the school goals (Tracy, 1995,1998).

One way of assessing the teachers' needs and the best supervisory strategy to use according to Glickman et al. (2007: 198), is to 'observe teachers teaching or working with other teachers' (...) discuss with the teacher his or her ideas about students, teaching, and instructional improvement'. By using these strategies to establish the teachers' needs, supervisors must be able to choose those 'skills and techniques that will enable teachers to develop individually and collectively to create a cause beyond oneself' Glickman et al. (2001: 87). This promotes individual and group development of teachers combining with school goals unlike in clinical supervision where emphasis is on the individual teacher (Glickman et al., 2007; Tracy, 1995).

Supporting the need to focus on individual differences of teachers, Tracy (1998:102) likened supervision that does not take into account individual differences to 'a ritual that fulfils some organizational requirements but does little to actually improve instruction'. This according to Tracy happens in situations where the supervision is

seen as a requirement of the state rather than an instrument for improvement of teachers' classroom practices. This applies to the Kenyan situation as will be demonstrated in 6.2.2 where the *Education act* makes supervision (inspection) mandatory.

The main features of the developmental model correspond with aspects of supervision that are perceived to be effective. Establishing teachers' developmental needs, discussing with teachers, and choosing the best approach to address the needs are factors that are attributed to effective supervision (Blanton, Berenson, & Norwood, 2001; Blase & Blase, 2000; Bourgeois, 2006; Nolan & Francis, 1992; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

The model offers useful insights for supervision in implementation of a curriculum change, and is therefore worth serious consideration in Kenya. The supervisor needs to find out the development needs of the teachers. By discussing with the teachers, areas of difficulty in the new curriculum can be established followed by a plan of action by the teacher and the supervisor. The much publicized teacher resistance to supervision can be minimized since mutual trust is established. In a study on supervision and teacher efficacy, Ebmeier (2003:135) found that 'confidence, commitment and satisfaction' are determined by the extent to which teachers believe the supervisor is 'interested and committed to teaching'. The developmental supervision model establishes the developmental stage of the teacher is a sign of the teacher's experience; this coupled with the discussion of the teacher's needs makes it participatory. The supervisor's interest in the teaching/learning process can be established while still respecting the teacher's professionalism.

### **2.1.3.3 Differentiated Model**

The differentiated supervision model is defined as 'an approach to supervision that provides teachers with options about the kinds of supervisory and evaluative services they receive' (Glatthorn, 1997:3).



This model is based on professionalizing teaching since it is something that teachers could control to improve their professional impact (Glatthorn, 1984). This is in recognition that teachers are the experts in instruction and they are the only ones who can determine their needs (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Referring to this approach as an alternative approach Sullivan and Glanz (2005:133) point out that it is about 'assisting teachers not assessing them'. They further advance six approaches to differentiated supervision. These are:

- Standards-based walk-through provides for organized tours by teams of teachers who visit their peers' classrooms, observe the classroom environment and learning centers, review students' work samples and other related items that a teacher has to put on display. It enables learning by exploring. (p.136)

- Mentoring which is a process that facilitates improvement wherein an experienced educator works with a novice or less experienced teacher collaboratively and non-judgmentally to study and deliberate on ways instruction in the classroom may be improved. Mentors play a facilitating role. (p.140)

- Peer coaching which is about teachers helping teachers promoting collegiality and professional dialogue. (p.144)

- Professional portfolio is a process where teachers document the developments of innovative and effective practices. It promotes self reflection, analysis and sharing with colleagues through discussion and writing. A portfolio includes a teacher's resources and references, professional articles, and practical suggestions. (p. 146)

- Peer assessment selection, support and evaluation through peer support groups providing teachers with a place to exchange ideas, learn from each other and support each other in reaching professional goals and provide feedback. (p. 149)

- Action research that not only allows teachers to increase their 'scholarly background, but also identifying research projects that can help improve classroom teaching' (p. 153).

In the differentiated supervision model the supervisor acts as a facilitator but provides supervisory options for teachers where they are in charge of the supervisory process. It is almost a process by the teachers for the teachers. The model shares a lot with the developmental approach but extends the individual supervision plan by offering alternatives, making supervision owned by both supervisors and the teachers.

### **2.1.3.4 Collaborative Model**

Collaborative supervision is a 'process by which people with diverse expertise work jointly with equal status and share commitment in order to achieve mutually beneficial goals' (Harris & Ovando, 1992:13). Different terms are used to describe this approach that focuses on the relationship between the teachers and supervisor and among teachers. Terms such as 'partnership, collegial, coaching, mentoring' are used (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000:140). These may include 'peer coaching, professional dialogue, and curriculum development' and 'action research' (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002:247).

The main feature that distinguishes this model from the others is the strong promotion of group approach to supervision. Supervisors using this model encourage teachers to help and support each other in the improvement of their classroom practices. Supporting the use of peer support, Ebmeier (2003:137-138) in a study on teacher efficacy established that teachers' 'peers are very important to teachers and help shape in a major way their views (...) and influences commitment to teaching through establishment of trusting relationships and satisfying work relationships'. A supervisor can exploit this trust positively to facilitating teachers to establish ways of enhancing their classroom practices. This facilitative role and the ability to coordinate the activities of the groups of teachers are important factors in the success of collaborative model.

### **2.1.3.5 Summary**

The different models of supervision focus on different aspects of teaching but are all aimed at its improvement. Clinical supervision focuses on the happening in the classroom and face to face interaction between supervisor and teachers, developmental model's main focus is the stage of development of the teacher, the differentiated is about giving teachers alternatives while the collaborative is about promotion of group collaboration. Variations of any of the models are basically anchored on its main focus. It is the differences in foci that determine that the kind of instructional supervisory functions that a supervisors carries out. One basic

assumption that all models seem to have is that the supervisor has the skills and knowledge needed to effectively observe a lesson and give the teachers meaningful feedback (clinical model), evaluate and determine the teachers' needs (developmental), communication and group dynamics skills (differentiated and collaborative models). These are skills that may not be inherent in supervisors as will be demonstrated in 6.2.3.2.

Considering the main feature of each model, it is clear that no one model is ideal for all situations. However for purpose of supervision during implementation of change, the clinical supervision model seems applicable for Kenya as it emphasizes consultation between the teacher and supervisors which is important in understanding and implementing the change. This notwithstanding, the need for face to face interaction between supervisor and the teacher would demand more resources in terms of time and personnel. Given that these are challenges even in normal circumstances (see 8.2), it's applicability in a large scale reform such as a national curriculum change may not be practical. A model that combines elements of the different model would be the most ideal as it would be applicable in all situations. The teachers' and head teachers' expectations discussed in 7.3 attest to the need for such a model.

#### **2.1.4 Supervisory Functions.**

While there are varied views about supervision, its main purpose is not in dispute. The fundamental principle in instructional supervision is the improvement of teaching through which learning is promoted (Gordon, 2005). Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002:5) assert that 'supervisory functions are so important in helping schools contribute effectively to rigorous and authentic learning'. In this respect the main responsibility for supervisors is to 'provide the most effective supervision they can for teachers (...) and support teachers need to engage in the supervisory function for themselves as part of the daily routine' (ibid). The assumption is that when teachers are helped to improve their classroom practices it is reflected in the pupils' learning (Tracy, 1998). The strategies and approaches used towards improvement of classroom practices are what differ. Consequently different functions are carried out.

These are to a large extent influenced by the theoretical orientation of supervision as discussed in 2.1.2.

Literature reviewed based on practitioners' and researchers' views reveal supervisory functions are just as varied as the views about supervision. However, there are common functions that are repeatedly reported as functions that supervisors carry out and can therefore be concluded to be what is perceived as function of supervision.

These are: curriculum development and implementation, organising and improving instructional programmes, providing staff, facilities and materials, arranging for in-service education/staff development, orientating staff members, developing public relations, and evaluating instruction, action research, and planning for change (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Glickman et al, 2007; Harris, 1985, Pajak, 1990a, Wanzare & Ward, 2000, Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

The most controversial function of supervision is evaluation. This is because evaluation 'is about making judgement, rating, ranking and making decisions about the adequacy of teachers as to carry out their professional responsibilities in the classroom' (Wiles & Bondi, 1980:93). Consequently, it instils 'fear, suspicion and distrust' making it difficult to 'create mutual trust' (Mosher & Purpel, 1972:72). Kenyan teachers' reaction to this kind of supervision (inspection) as prescribed in the *Education act* is discussed in 6.2.2. Though controversial, with some like Acheson & Gall (2003) arguing it serves no purpose and others like Dean (1992) and Sullivan and Glanz (2005) having the view that there is a thin line between evaluation and supervision, evaluation tends to overshadow other instructional supervisory functions. This is because according to Zepeda & Ponticell (1998) and Tracy (1998) it is a requirement by the state or a legal requirement. However, according to Mosher & Purpel (1972) evaluation can still be used positively when used to clarify what in the teaching requires improvement hence offering support, ideas and suggestions on how to improve rather than being judgemental. This suggestion can only work where mutual trust between teachers and supervisors exists. Such trust as discussed earlier is elusive in instructional supervision. This being the case, what is effective supervision?

### 2.1.4.1 Effective Supervision

Equating the school to a miniature society Lucio & McNeil (1969:28) explain that teachers are bound to have expectations from the supervisors while the supervisors expect certain behaviour from the teachers. Accordingly, 'the extent to which the teachers perceive that the roles of their supervisors meet their expectations, the higher the teachers are satisfied with the school system' (ibid). Congruence between the supervisors' role performance and teachers' role expectation are therefore seen to contribute to effectiveness of supervision.

This study seeks teachers' expectations of supervision. I therefore find Zepeda and Ponticell's (1998: 70) summary of the teachers' perspective of effective supervision quite encompassing when they report that:

supervision was viewed as helpful when teachers understood that the process of supervision was intended to assist them in the improvement of teaching, when teachers and supervisors jointly identified changes needed in instruction, when supervisors focused teachers' attention on teaching practices, when supervisors understood teachers' instructional objectives and when observation occurred often.

This is consistent with Blasé & Blasé's (2000) study on *Effective instructional leadership* involving 800 American teachers who responded to an open-ended questionnaire. According to the teachers in this study, successful instructional leadership involved 'talking with teachers to promote reflection and professional growth' (ibid. 132). Promoting reflection included: 'making suggestions, giving feedback, modelling, using inquiry and soliciting advice and opinions, and giving praise' (ibid p 133). In addition, making suggestions involved 'making purposeful, appropriate, and non-threatening suggestions during post-observation conferences and informally, in day-to-day interactions' (ibid).

Other factors identified as contributing to effective supervision are when it serves to:

- Improve teaching and learning. This was seen to be effective when supervisors empowered teachers to be self reflective and participate in the supervisory process (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Glickman, et al., 2007; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Tanner & Tanner 1987; Waite, 1998; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

- Guide, encourage, and support teachers through shared and mutually trusting relationships (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Nolan & Francis, 1992; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). This function is of particular importance in the implementation of change. Support to teachers given in mutual trust facilitates implementation of education change (Fullan, 2007; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992, Hall & Hord 2001).
- Promote teachers' growth and development ( Blase & Blase, 2000; Stiggins & Duke, 1998; Wanzare & da Costa, 2000; Wanzare & Ward, 2000).
- Improve curriculum development and implementation (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000, Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glickman, et al, 2007; Harris, 1985, Pajak, 1990a, 1990b; Wanzare & Ward, 2000).
- Provide staff, teaching /learning resources , and promote community/public /human relations (Pajak, 1990a, 1990b)

Looking at the attributes advanced by the different authors, effective supervision can be concluded to be one that values teachers' professionalism and involves teachers as active participants in the supervision process thus creating a desire for improvement of their classroom practices with the supervisor acting as a guide rather than an overseer.

#### **2.1.4.2 Supervisory Skills for Effective Supervision**

Certain skills are essential in making instructional supervision effective. For a start, instructional supervision is about the improvement of teaching and learning; a supervisor must therefore possess skills to analyse teaching and learning styles and in addition have curriculum and teaching expertise (Alfonso et al., 1981, Harris, 1985; Mosher & Purpel, 1972). Secondly, effective supervision has been identified as collaborative; this involves interacting with teachers or what Wanzare and da Costa (2000:50) refer to as being 'heavily dependent on the exchange of ideas among individuals working in conjunction with each other'. Based on an analysis of text books, research reports and practitioners' views on supervision, Pajak (1990b:7)

identifies the knowledge, skills and attitudes that an instructional supervisors should possess. These are: relevant knowledge in communication, human relations, group relations and conflict resolutions. In addition, 'listening, speaking, writing, creating opportunity for professional dialogue are skills that the supervisors should have. In terms of attitudes, being responsive, encouraging mutual trust, open and approachable, and accepting diverse points of views' are seen as positive attributes that supervisors should possess. Similar views are held by many commentators such as Ebmeier (2003) Goldsberry, (1998) Nolan & Francis, (1992) Tanner & Tanner, (1987) and Zepeda & Ponticell, (1998).

The knowledge, attitudes and skills that Pajak attributes to supervision are indicators of a supervisor who uses collaboration, motivates and promotes professional and personal growth by building a relationship that would make teachers desire supervision as they perceive it as helpful and the supervisor as a facilitator interested in the teachers' and pupils' well being. Supervisory skills that supervisors in Kenya possess and those they perceive as important but are lacking are discussed in section of 6.2.3.3. The lacking skills are also seen to be contributing to some of the challenges discussed in 8.2

### **2.1.5 Factors that Impinge on Instructional Supervision.**

Instructional supervision has been shown to be complex. Drawing from the different approaches and the roles of the supervisors, there are certain factors that can be seen to impinge on effective supervision. One of the main inhibiting factors is the multifaceted nature of supervision (Pawlas & Oliva, 2008).

Discussing the problems of instructional supervision Tanner and Tanner (1987:47-50) spell out three main inhibitors to instructional supervision that are also pointed out by others in the field of supervision. These are:

- Inadequate time used for supervision (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Harris, 1998; McQuarrie & Wood, 1991). Although they express the inadequacy of time, I see it more as a problem emanating from the multiple roles that supervisors have to perform or what Goldsberry (1998:455) refers to as 'blurring of the supervision' as a result of too many sometimes conflicting roles performed by supervisors. This is a

view Tanner and Tanner (1987:48) agree with, when they cite the need for 'competent clerical help, useless reports eliminated and adequate office facilities' being provided. This is seen to be calling for support to supervisors to enable them concentrate on supervision. In Kenya as will be shown in 6.2.3.6 supervisors' roles are multiple and also seen to contribute to challenges discussed in 8.2. Like Tanner and Tanner (1987) supervisors call for provision of clerical support to enable them concentrate on their core function.

- Negative attitude of teachers towards supervision. Addressing the same issue, Acheson and Gall (2003: 6) refer to it as teacher resistance to evaluation. Research has shown that the attitude of teachers depends on the approach that is used to supervision or type of supervision offered. The inspectoral fault-finding, evaluative approach is likely to result in teachers viewing supervision negatively and lacking trust (Blumberg, 1980; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). The teachers' description of supervisors in section 6.2.3.7 is a reflection of a negative attitude.

- Use of business and industrial model in educational supervision that stresses on specified measurable outcomes (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). I see this as pointing to the objectives specified in the curriculum and the obvious emphasis on achievement tests to determine the teaching outcomes. The objective based curriculum as specified in the primary education syllabuses in Kenya is example (Republic of Kenya, 2002a). Emphasis on education performance and ranking of schools according to performance in national examinations is another example of this approach. Teaching and learning is about individuals who are different unlike the standard tools and raw materials in a production unit in industry (Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). It therefore needs supervision that has a human approach that would take into account differences in teachers and even schools (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Darling-Hammond, 1997; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Glatthorn, 1998; Nolan & Francis, 1992; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998; Wanzare & da Costa, 2000).

- Poor, inadequate, and sometimes lack of communication between teachers and supervisors. When teachers and supervisors perceive supervision differently there is bound to be friction (Acheson & Gall, 2003). In contrast when a supervisor and a teacher look at data objectively together as colleagues, there is mutual agreement on decisions made. This phase of supervision is seen as the most difficulty and one that other problems emanate from (Blumberg, 1980).



- Lack of supervisory skill (Chan and Kleiner, 2000). This they explain is because most supervisors are promoted from other positions. For instance in Kenya, supervisors are former teachers who are supposed to have excelled in their teaching. The assumption is since they were good teachers, then they are going to be good supervisors. This may not necessarily be the case especially when no supervisory training is given.

Other hurdles to supervision are summarised by Goldsberry (1998: 455) as:

- Imprecise notions of desired teacher involvement
- Pretense that supervisory interventions can have predictable and reproducible consequences across contexts and teachers
- Persistent reliance on 'quick fixes' in education reform.

Instructional supervision is seen to be effective when the effects of these hurdles are minimized or overcome all together.

### **2.1.6 Supervision and Professional Development**

The main aim of instructional supervision as portrayed by literature is to help teachers improve their classroom practices and hence improve learning. According to Courtney (2007), this is done by upgrading the teachers' skills. The strategy which seems to be commonly used is professional development (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Day & Sachs, 2004; Flecknoe, 2000; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Glickman et al., 2007; Hargreaves & Fullan, 1992; Norris, 2004). Other terms used interchangeably with professional development are staff development, in-service, and continuing education induction/orientation but all refer to those processes that improve the job-related knowledge, skills or attitudes of teachers (Wanzare & Ward, 2000). Adding a different perspective, Beach & Reinhartz (2000:266) define professional growth and development as 'all learning experiences, both formal and informal, that teachers encounter that support their continued instructional effectiveness as they adjust to the dynamic nature of the school environment'. The reference to formal and informal is an indicator that teachers' development does not necessarily take place in a planned setting. The informal aspect could include all the experiences a teacher goes through either individually or with other teachers.

This study is based on instructional supervision in a background of a curriculum change. If professional development is key in the improvement of teachers' classroom instructional practices, it is all the more crucial in the implementation of an educational change as in the Kenyan case (Glickman et al., 2007, Gordon & Nicely Jr, 1998; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002).

According to Fullan and Hargreaves (1992:1) an educational change involves change in 'curriculum materials, instructional practices and behaviour, and beliefs and understanding on the part of the teachers involved'. Similarly, Joyce et al. (1999:124) assert that 'all but the most mild classroom changes require training with new content and processes'. Although this is the case, Hall and Hord (2001:111) point out that 'too often professional development has been vague or off the target', however in implementing change if it is focused on 'staff concerns about the new program and practice and on the vision of what the change will look like in operation, investing in professional learning will pay large dividend'. Holding similar views Guskey (1986:5) asserts that 'staff development programs are a systematic attempt to bring about change-change in the classroom practices of teachers, change in their beliefs and, change in learning outcomes of students'. In essence, though the approach and strategies used in staff development may differ, they are all aimed at improving and changing the professional practices of teachers. Fullan and Hargreaves (1992:2) further suggest that for improvement to occur in the background of change, 'teacher development should be innovation [change] - related, continuous during the course of implementation, and involve a variety of formal (e.g. workshops) and informal components (teacher exchange)'. These are concerns raised by Kenyan teachers in this study as they spell out their expectations (see 7.3) and also the challenges faced in the implementation of change (see 8.2). Similarly Walsh and Gamage (2003:378) in their mixed method longitudinal study on the *Significance of professional development and practice towards a better public education system* concluded that 'professional development of teachers is crucial to systematic educational reforms and school improvements'. They further specified 'policy statements and support structures need to exist allowing teachers' continuous development' (ibid: 366).

The responsibility of ensuring professional development of teachers is seen to be the supervisors' (Blanton, Berenson & Norwood, 2001; Glickman et al., 2007). Wiles

and Bondi (1980:94) advance a convincing relationship between supervision and staff development. They argue that staff development is a pre-requisite to effective supervision as it gives teachers and supervisors' skills and knowledge of instruction. In addition, skills gained during staff development can be refined in supervisory activities. Supervision also helps to identify areas that need to be improved; hence data collected during supervisory activities can be used to plan for staff development activities. In addition, staff development activities can provide a good forum for supervisors to collect crucial data that can be used for improvement of teaching and learning.

### **2.1.6.1 Why Teachers Participate in Professional Development**

If staff development is meant to equip teachers with knowledge and skills to improve their classroom practices, what then constitutes effective staff development? One of the important underlying factors is to establish why teachers participate in staff development (Guskey, 1986). According to Guskey, teachers are attracted to staff development because they believe it will contribute to enhancing 'their knowledge and skills, contribute to their growth, and enhance their effectiveness with students' (p.6). However, Beach & Reinhartz (2000:267) advise against the assumption that teachers are 'ineffective or lacking in skills and knowledge hence the need for staff development'. When supervisors take into consideration the teachers' needs and expectations in planning for staff development activities, the likelihood of these needs being met is high (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Garet, Porter, Desimone, Birman, & Suk Yoon, 2001; Tanner & Tanner, 1987). It is also likely to create ownership of the activities and the willingness to implement what is learned in the classroom practices (Gordon & Nicely Jr., 1998).

Further reasons for teachers engaging in staff development are the need to meet specific classroom needs, bridging the gap between pre-service and in-service, meeting the legal requirements, keeping up to date with developments in their subject areas, progressing in career-related matters and meeting personal needs (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Gordon, 2005; Pawlas & Oliva, 2008).

In the Kenyan context, teachers attend in-service training courses mainly for promotion purposes as required by the Ministry of Education (Republic of Kenya, 2006c), preparation for implementation of a curriculum change (Christine, Harley and Penny, 2004), or to prepare for new roles such as being head teachers, teacher advisory centre tutors (TAC) or special needs teachers, (Olembo, Wanga, & Karagu, 1992)). A case study by Christine et al (2004:171) concluded that 'Kenya lacks comprehensive strategic plans for continuous professional development of teachers'. Similar observations were made by Wanzare (2004) in his study of *Internal supervision in public secondary schools in Kenya*. Although Christine et al. (2004) attribute lack a of comprehensive plans to the presence of competing needs, such as inadequate 'supply of teachers, under qualified and underpaid teachers who lack support and supervision they need to be effective', [making] professional development a less priority' (p.171), there is need for further research that incorporates teachers' needs and expectations of supervision (Research question 1& 5).

Another aspect that is seen to contribute to the success of staff development is the incorporation of the programmes goals, school goals, individual teacher's goals, and group goals (Gordon, 2005, Pawlas & Oliva, 2008; Zepeda, 2007). The school is made up of individuals and groups. The achievement of a school is seen in terms of what is achieved by the individuals and the groups. This is especially crucial when change is involved as it brings with it anxiety, uncertainty, and fears (Hall & Hord, 2001). By addressing the school, individual and group goals, then uncertainty brought about by change can be minimised leading to better implementation of change; it can also be a motivating factor for the teachers to embrace change (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Fullan, 2001; Guskey, 1986; Little, 1993; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). In addition, provision of feedback through follow up activities, continuity and administrative support through provision of resources contribute to the effectiveness of staff development programmes (Glickman et al., 2007).

Attention is also drawn to the fact that teachers are adult learners. There is a need to adhere to the principles of adult learning that are different from that of pupils (Glatthorn, 1998). According to Beach & Reinhartz (2000:271), adults learn better when what they are learning 'addresses real-life problem' and is 'performance

oriented'. In addition, unlike pupils, adults bring to the programme a wealth of experience that should be taken into account when planning the staff development activities. This calls for involvement of the teachers and the supervisors establishing the needs of the various individuals and groups. Similar thoughts are advocated by (Flecknoe, 2000; Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Garret et al., 2001; Little, 1993; Pajak & Blasé, 1989).

Closely related to adult learning is the teachers' personal life. While teachers are expected to learn and change their classroom practices, their personal lives cannot be completely separated from their professional life, creating the need to address personal concerns (Glickman et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 2005). In a study on the impact of teachers' personal lives on professional role enactment using 200 teachers, Pajak & Blasé (1989:307) concluded that 'the quality of teachers' personal lives appears to influence teachers' affective states directly and that those affective states, in turn, influence the behaviour of teachers in school'. They therefore suggest that policy makers should strive to enhance teachers' personal lives as a prerequisite to professional growth.

In general, a successful staff development program is one that: caters for teachers' real needs, involves the participants in planning, implementing, and evaluation of the programmes. Involvement of teachers means their needs and expectations are taken into consideration. It is also a way of creating ownership as teachers see it not as being done for them but they are part of the process and this makes sustainable. It should also bring about change in classroom practice, beliefs and attitudes and learning outcomes of the students.

#### **2.1.6.2 Summary**

Instructional supervision and staff development are highly interlinked. The purpose of both is to enhance the teaching process in order to improve learning. There is consensus in the literature on the importance of teachers' professional development and effective classroom practices and in particular in the implementation of change.

The instructional supervisor is a useful link between the two processes that are different but strongly related and for the same purpose. A strong relationship between the approach that a supervisor adopts both for instructional supervision and staff development and effectiveness of the two processes is revealed. In both, an open approach where the teacher and supervisors work together establishing the needs and ways of fulfilling them have been proved to lead to effectiveness. On the other hand where the supervisor uses the superior and subordinate approach as often portrayed in the traditional in-services training courses where teachers are presumed lacking in skill and knowledge hence the need to fill them. This results in lack of ownership and no change in their classroom practices. What this points to is a more collegial and collaborative approach to supervision and staff development practices for improvement of teaching and learning. This being the case then, what ones sees is the need for adoption of the various approaches to suit the needs of the different contexts in which supervision is applied.

In the Kenyan case, supervision as will be shown in chapter three is influenced by historical factors such as the traditional education and the way supervision was introduced. Other education policies such as transition from primary to secondary school has an influence on the direction of supervision, others are teacher training and staffing norms. All these have an implication on supervision in general. Most of the literature analysed is based in developed countries, while there is no uniformity even in developed countries that would warrant a uniform prescription, it is apparent that each situation calls for different approaches. This calls for a supervisory model that is a guide rather than a prescription allowing supervisors to be flexible according to situation as opposed to restrictive ones as shown in the policy documents analysed in chapter six. However, for this to work there is need for highly trained supervisors and supportive structures. The challenges faced by supervisors discussed in 8.2.2 reveal some of these elements.

### 2.1.7 Role Conflicts in Instructional Supervision

*“Just because bats fly does not make them birds. Till they decide to fly like birds or walk like mammals, they will forever knock on wall” . A Kikuyu saying.*

A role according to Tanner and Tanner (1987:66) ‘is simply what people do’. Instructional supervision is portrayed in literature as multifaceted. Depending on the orientation, supervisory roles differ. Although there is general agreement that supervision is about improving classroom practices, the methods and processes of working with teachers to enhance their ability to improve their classroom practices differ. Consequently the people who perform this role are given varied descriptions. Instructional supervisors are equated to;

- Administrators: (Eye & Netzer, 1965; Lovel & Wiles, 1985)
- Curriculum experts: (Glickman et al., 2007; Mosher & Purpel, 1972; Neagley & Evans, 1980)
- Evaluators/ Appraisers/assessors: (Alfonso et al., 1981; Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Krey & Burke, 1989)
- Facilitators / helpers: Acheson & Gall, 2003; Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Frase, 2005; Lucio & McNeil 1969)
- Leader, planner/organizer, motivator/encourager, communicator, change agent and a coach/mentor (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Evans, 1991)

These are multiple roles that instructional supervisors are expected to play. At one time supervisors are expected to play facilitative, supportive and undertake helping roles. There are times when they play the role of evaluators, assessors or appraisers. When these roles are performed by the same person or office the process can be complex leading to confusion over who instructional supervisors really are. Exemplifying this role conflict and in reference to duties of assistant principals, Glanz (1994:577) sums it as conflict between the necessity to evaluate and desire to be of genuine help to the teachers’.

Expressing this confusion, Dean (1992) in a note introducing her book *Inspecting and advising: handbook for inspectors, advisers and advisory teachers*, expressed frustration in trying to address her book to particular people who all carry out supervisory functions. Dean points out that it is:

extremely difficult to decide what to call the officers who hold different kinds of advisory posts (. . .) there are some areas which have both advisors and inspectors, each with a different role, others have inspectors or advisors who have both roles. (p.10)

The aims and objectives of some of the bodies that carry out instructional supervision add to the confusion and conflict. They call upon the instructional supervisors to perform many often conflicting roles. The aims of the advisory/ inspectorate services in most Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in England and the objectives of the Inspectorate/Quality Assurance and Standards Department in Kenya are as such examples. Even deciding on how to refer to the departments is a problem, hence the use of two terms to describe the same department.

Although Dean's reference was England in the 1990s, she could just as well have been writing about Kenya in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century. The scenario then is very much the same as in Kenya now.

The DQAS is mandated to supervise instruction in Kenya has defined its operations in two broad objectives which are further broken down into more specific objectives (see 6.2.3.1). The two broad objectives are spelt out in terms of quality assurance and quality development. 'Quality assurance is achieved through the inspection of institutions and reporting on these inspections to the institutions and to MoE', while 'quality development is achieved through the work of advisory services, provision of staff development opportunities and development of learning teaching materials' (Republic of Kenya 2000a:4). This makes the supervisory role complex.

Giving reasons for complexity in instructional supervision, Lucio & McNeil (1969:25) attributes to 'acceptance of administrative function by the supervisors' while Evans (1991) sees it as 'failure of management to clearly define supervisors' role and lack of proper job description, thus creating conflict, a position that is shared by Pawlas & Oliva (2008).

Attempts have been made to differentiate administrative and supervisory behavior. Sergiovanni & Starratt (1983:12) described supervisory behavior 'as the action to achieve goals through other people' while administrative behavior is a 'characterized



action towards achievement of goals but not dependent on others for success'. Three characteristics that distinguish the supervisory role from the administrative role as stated by the Sergiovanni & Starratt are:

- Heavy reliance on expertness as educational program leader and instructional leader.
- The necessity of living in two worlds and speaking two languages, that of the teachers and administrators.
- Limits imposed on their authority. (ibid:13)

The three characteristics reflect the conflict that instructional supervisors are likely to experience, an issue which will appear in the data from this study in a later chapter. While the administrators can rely on the power and authority emanating from their position in the organizational hierarchy, the supervisor draws their authority from being experts in educational and instructional matters if they are to be effective in helping teachers improve instruction (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Being placed in between the teachers and the administrators does not help the supervisors' case either. Evans (1991:113) acknowledging this difficulty, calls it 'a unique challenge of supervision, coping with these two forces' requiring an instructional supervisor 'to master double talk'.

A different way of differentiating supervisory and administrative behaviors is presented by Lovel and Wiles (1985:39). They describe supervisory behavior as concerned with 'improving education through the evaluation of educational objectives and programmes, helping teachers grow professionally and providing support and assistance to teacher to evaluate their performance'. On the other hand, administrative behavior is concerned with 'control, management and coordinating programmes' (ibid). In this description, the supervisory role focuses on the programmes and helping the teachers to evaluate themselves other than evaluating them while in administration, the administrator does the actual teacher evaluation. A very thin line distinguishes the two which may not be visible in reality.

Conflict is also revealed: while the instructional supervisor evaluates the educational programmes and the administrator is in control of those programmes. The instructional supervisor is expected to help the teacher achieve the objectives of the

educational programmes, but according to Lovel and Wiles' (1985), it is the administrator who allocates resources. In Kenya, there is an administrative department at the Ministry of Education. This is more visible at the district education offices where the District Education Office is the administrator and controls educational resources in the district. However this does not mean the supervisors are exempted from administrative tasks as is revealed in section 8.2.2.

Contrasting the belief that supervisory and administrative roles are opposing, Burton and Brueckner (1955) advocate acceptance of administrative and supervisory roles as complementary as there are 'similarities in the procedures used' (McQuarrie & Wood, 1991:91). Supporting this view, Tanner & Tanner (1987:61) assert that all the roles are important for 'curriculum improvement' explaining that there is nothing to be gained by down playing or overplaying one over the other. Similar views are expressed by Glickman et al. (2007:9) who equate supervision with instructional leadership which is a 'process rather than a role or position' and see it as a responsibility of all 'educators throughout the school system' irrespective of their position in the organizational ladder.

In overseeing curriculum implementation, the supervisors may play advisory, evaluative and administrative roles. These roles when performed by one person or office require an instructional supervisor to use and change approaches depending on the role they are playing at a particular time. This is likely to create conflict. Cooper (1982:1824) describes the conflict instructional supervisor's face as a result of the multiple roles as 'how to balance their conflicting roles as evaluators and helpers' and at the same time 'develop open, trusting and supportive interpersonal climates with teachers'.

The conflict created by the multiple roles is not only experienced by the instructional supervisors but also by the teachers. It is difficulty for a teacher to trust a supervisor who at one time is an evaluator. Even when the instructional supervisor plays the helping role there is bound to be some degree of mistrust. The supervisor may also experience difficulty in changing from being the evaluator to a helper. Teachers' description of supervisors (section 6.2.3.7) and the actual functions performed (section 7.1.1.1) reflect mistrust and role conflict experienced by supervisors.

The other question that is raised as a result of the multiple roles that supervisors have to perform is whether instructional supervision must constitute evaluation. Conflict is bound to be created by the two roles though related but different. Although Dean (1992:13) argues that 'effective supervision must involve inspection' and that 'inspection without advice is a somewhat sterile activity which is unlikely to be acceptable to teachers', what seems to be contentious is the effectiveness of the supervisory function when performed by the same office or person who has the evaluative/inspectional or supervisor role. Almost three decades ago, Goldhammer et al (1980:13) lamented about difficulty of separating helping behaviors from evaluating behaviors. Balancing and effectively performing the two roles is a challenge not only to those supervising but even those being supervised.

While textbooks and journals may spell out the ideal roles of instructional supervisors and administrators, in reality this does not make it easy to draw a clear line between the two and especially when the two roles are performed by one person or office. Sergiovanni & Starratt (2002) make a viable proposal of viewing supervision as a process rather than a role of a person holding a particular office. I am with them in this view as in reality even the act of establishing the teachers' needs in order to offer help can be seen to be evaluative.

### **2.1.7.1 Summary**

Role conflict and ambiguity are evident in instructional supervision. While titles referring to instructional supervisors differ, the most conspicuous is the conflict of the instructional supervisor who is a helper, facilitator and the evaluator. In Kenya, this is evident when one considers the functions that supervisors are expected by policy to perform (see 6.3). The reaction to this is revealed by teachers' description of the supervisor (see 6.2.3.7), while the actual performances of the supervisors reveal they mainly perform evaluative/assessment role although the role they are expected to perform are multiple (see 7.1). Despite the role conflict and ambiguity, there is a general agreement in literature that the ultimate goal of instructional supervision is improvement of teaching and eventually learning. What seems to be important therefore is the need to concentrate on how the instructional supervision is

performed rather than the terminology used to describe the office or the office bearers.

### **2.1.8 Section Summary**

In this first section of analysis of literature, the thinking on instructional supervision over the years has been established revealing lack of a common understanding of instructional supervision as portrayed by the different views. The focus of instructional supervision has remained constant, over the years, which is to help teachers improve their classroom practices for the benefit of the learner. However, the strategies for achieving the goal are diverse resulting in differences in foci of instructional supervision. As a result, supervisors are faced with role conflicts.

The section has also brought to light the complexities of instructional supervision intertwined with the individual teachers' or groups of teachers' needs and expectations in an effort to improve classroom practices and hence learning. These complexities are likely to have implications on supervision at a time when change is being implemented. In the next section educational change and its implication on supervision are discussed.

## **2.2 Supervision and Educational Change**

### **2.2.0 Introduction**

This section discusses educational change relating it to instructional supervision. Given that this study's focus is instructional supervision against a background of curriculum change, it is important to put supervision in the context of change. If change means that teachers do things differently (Fullan, 2001, Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992) then, 'dealing with change (...) is part of the supervisory process' (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000: 312). Supporting the need to understand the relationship between supervision and educational change, Bredeson and Kose (2007:2) argue 'that studies on how supervisors respond to education reforms are limited, neither are there studies that examine how superintendents' work has changed in the context of reforms'. To demonstrate the relationship between educational change and supervision, the following areas are discussed in this section; the meaning of change,

implementation of change, factors affecting change, characteristics of change and their implications on supervision.

### **2.2.1 Change Concepts / Meaning of Change**

Literature on educational change indicates that change in education is inevitable. Qualifying this Oliver (1996:3) states that 'change is much more a 'natural' situation than one of equilibrium or stability'. Though natural, there is uncertainty about change and the definition of change. Fullan (1999) attributes this uncertainty to the uniqueness of each change. This view is supported by O'Connor (2000:12) who attributes it to the context in which change occurs and argues for 'understanding and appreciation' of its context.

There are several terms that are used to depict change in education. Terms such as transformation, transition, evolution, revolution, reform, movement and innovation are common in literature on educational change. They describe and portray many aspects of educational change (Buchert, 1990; Cole, 1996; Fullan, 2007; Rudduck, 1991; Skilbeck, 1985; Surge, 2008). However, three terms consistently embodying change are innovation, reform and improvement. For purposes of this study, these terms will be used interchangeably.

A diversity of views on change is depicted in the analysis of *The education reform and management publication series*, a World Bank publication on educational reforms. The publications reveal that change in education is about alteration of different aspects of education. It may range from simple classroom changes to total overhaul of an education system in a country. This is exemplified in case studies of education reform in different countries commissioned by the Education Reform and Management thematic group of the World Bank. Studies such as *Democratization and educational decentralization* in Spain (Hanson, 2000); *Reshaping education for an open society* in Romania 1990 - 2000 (Georgescu & Palade, 2003); *Educational reforms* in Australia (Pascoe & Pascoe, 1998); *The Bolivian education reforms* (Simoni, Contreras & Luisa, 2003); *Cuban education systems, lessons and dilemmas* (Gasparini, 2000); *Educational change in South Africa 1994-2003: Case studies in large-scale education reform* (Jansen & Taylor, 2003); *Implementing school-based*

*merit awards: Chile's experience* (McMeekin, 2000) and *Going to scale with education reform: India's district primary education program, 1995-99* (Pandey (2000)). These studies portray the diverse forms that educational change can take such as educational change for democratization, nationalizing and improvement of equity, quality and access to education.

However, the fundamental reason underlying most educational changes is improvement (Corrales, 1999). Supporting this view, Aspin (1996:91) points out those studies carried out for the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) show a great 'importance attached in current efforts to matters of teaching, learning, and curriculum'. Similarly, instructional supervision is about promoting teaching and learning.

There are many definitions and views about change. However, it is the definition of change by Morrison (1998:13) that I find comprehensive and encompassing the different aspects of change. Morrison defines educational change as a

dynamic and continuous process of development and growth that involves a reorganisation in response to 'felt needs'. It is a process of transformation, a flow from one state to another either initiated by internal factors or external forces, involving individuals, groups or institutions leading to realignment of existing values, practice and outcomes.

This definition brings out change as a process rather than a one-stop event. It also shows that change is initiated or is a result of a need and the fact that initiation of change can be from within or without. These characteristics of change are supported in the literature and research on change cited and discussed below.

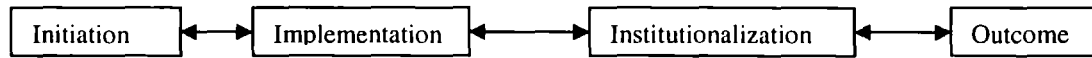
### **2.2.2 The Change Process**

In order to understand educational change, three bodies of literature have been reviewed. In particular, the works of Michael Fullan, Keith Morrison, Gene Hall & Shirley Hord, and Andy Hargreaves have been widely used in conjunction with other studies on educational change.

## Stages of change

According to Fullan's model of education change, there are four stages in the change process as shown in the figure below.

Figure 2.1: Simplified change process



Adopted from Fullan, 2007:66

What the diagram depicts is change as process with one stage flowing into another, though not necessarily in a linear way (Fullan, 2001, Hall & Hord, 2001; Morrison, 1998). On the other hand, Morrison (1998:18) advances seven stages of the change process, namely; 'invention, development, diffusion/dissemination, adoption, implementation, institutionalisation, recommendation'. Looking at the stages outlined by Fullan and Morrison, they are about three things. These are how change is initiated, how it is introduced and how it is supported in order to yield the perceived outcomes. This means that what and how each stage is handled reflects what happens in the other stages. Although the main focus in this study is the implementation, reference to the other stages as they affect the implementation will be made.

### 2.2.3 Implementation of Change

Implementation is interpretation of the educational change, giving meaning to the change in theory and making it practical. This is an important stage in any educational change, we therefore need to understand 'how, why and in what ways new ideas are implemented' in order to understand change in schools (Lieberman, 1998:7). This is because until change is implemented, its practicability cannot be ascertained; McBeath (1991:23) asserts that implementation 'holds a central role in the change processes. Clarifying further the importance of implementation, McBeath emphasises that 'you cannot ascertain the curriculum has been understood until the results of implementation have been seen' (p.25). Research on implementation of educational change and in particular curriculum reveals problems of implementing the intended change in the classroom (Carter & O'Neil, 1995; Cuban, 2008; Fullan, 1993, 2007; Johns, 2002; McBeath, 1997).

Implementation has been identified as the stage where most curricula reforms fail (Fullan, 2007, 2001; McBeath, 1997; Rudduck, 1991). It is at the school level that the changes in a curriculum are supposed to be put into practice, but it is at this level that a good curriculum can be lost, and this calls for well thought out implementation strategies (Higham, 2002). Introducing his book *'Successful School Improvement'* Fullan (1992: vii) notes that 'education changes fail many more times than they succeed,' an observation that is supported by Beauchamp (1981) when noting that few curricula are implemented systematically. Using the Rand Corporation's study, McLaughlin (1998:71) concluded that 'it is extremely difficult for policy to change practice'. This is because putting theory into practice is not straight forward as there are many forces interplaying in the implementation of change. Holding similar views, Darling-Hammond (1998:646) contends that:

policy is not much implemented as it is (...) what ultimately happens in schools and classrooms is less related to the intention of the policy makers than it is to knowledge, beliefs, resources, leadership, motivation that operate in the local context.

To further exemplify the problem of implementing change Fullan (1993:49) uses the example of *'The future initiative to restructure urban schools in the US in 1992'* and observes that the

hardest core to crack in the learning core, change in instructional practices and the culture of teaching. To restructure is not to reculture. Changing formal structures is not changing norms, habits, skills and beliefs.

The complexity of converting theory into practice is further demonstrated by use of Tyler and Teddie's (1992) study of 33 schools that established school based programmes. Fullan uses the study to demonstrate that despite the long held view that when teachers are involved in decision making, ownership is created, is not always the case. The study revealed that teachers did not alter their practice although they had participated in decision making. Using yet another example, Fullan (1993:40) found that in the implementation of the Chicago Reform Act of 1989, the majority of the elementary teachers reported 'their instructional practice had not changed as a result of school reform'.

One of the reasons given for the problems in curriculum implementation is the fact that the problems are not recognised (McBeath, 1997). While analysing the strategy



for dissemination of Technical and Further Education (TAFE) in Australia, McBeath notes that curriculum implementation is rarely officially recognised as a problem. Accordingly, this means the implementation stage is not well thought out during the planning stage, hence even resources allocated are likely to be inadequate. In earlier research on implementation of TAFE curriculum, McBeath (1991) observed that implementation as a process is often neglected. Akerr, Hameyer & Kuiper (2004) attribute this negligence limited investment and unrealistic politically driven reforms. As a result, there is lack of timely and authentic involvement of all the relevant stakeholders based on the assumption that because a curriculum has been planned and is 'good', it will work, this is not always the case as implementation is affected by many factors (Hord, 1998).

### **2.2.3.1 Factors Affecting Implementation**

There are factors that will facilitate change while others will work against it. It is important for those overseeing the implementation of change to be aware of the change facilitators and change inhibitors as it is through balancing the two that successful change can be realised. Fullan (2001: 72) in his model of change specifies four characteristics of change that are bound to influence its implementation. The same factors are amplified and qualified further by Morrison (1998:16-17).

#### **1. Need for change.**

This, according to Fullan (2001:72), is the extent to which change is seen to address the needs of both the consumers and the implementer. Supporting this view, Buchert (1990:14) argues that 'successful educational reform has to be locally based and empowering for the educational actors (students, teachers and communities)'. Similarly Morrison (1998:17) looks at it from the benefits that change is perceived to bring. It is argued that for change to take root, teachers need to be committed to it (Kelly, 2004; Oliver, 1996). Discussing the role teachers played in educational reforms in Australia, Penny and Fox (1997:14) concludes that the 'extent to which the policy makers include teachers and the extent to which the views and interests of teachers are embraced' was important as 'exclusion of teachers reflects their position as receivers of curriculum being designed by others'.

What seems to be advocated for is change not for its own sake but change that has meaning. What then does this imply in terms of supervision? In terms of effectiveness of supervision as perceived by teachers, the focus on their needs is seen as a determinant to its effectiveness (Lucio & McNiel, 1969, Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). Going back to the supervisory dimensions discussed earlier (see 2.1.1) research and evaluation supervisory functions were identified and discussed. I see this as a tool that supervisors can effectively use to identify the educational needs that should lead to educational change that is acceptable and meaningful. In addition, Beach and Reinhartz (2000:307) emphasise that research can be used 'to determine the readiness for change' although in reality, there is usually a gap between research and policy formulation. Giving reasons for the gap, Namuddu (1998:282-283) indicates that the:

policy translators consider their work as that of working guidelines and not conducting research on how the guidelines are evolved. If [they] see the need for research, their working circumstances, their training and the...resource constraints (...) make it difficult to do any research.

Although operating as policy implementers, such supervisors may not be using research to inform educational change, there is also lack or inadequate contribution of research from other quarters for improvement of educational policy and practice as argued by (Abagi, 1999; Crossley, 2000). Supervisors' performance of research as a supervisory function is reported as rarely by supervisors and head teachers, and never performed by teachers (see section 8.1.1 and 8.1.2)

## 2. Clarity of change

For teachers to implement change effectively, they need to be clear on what the change entails, what needs to be done, and how different it is from what they were doing previously (Fullan, 2001:72; Hall & Hord, 2001; Hargreaves, 1998; Morrison, 1998). The clarity of the policy statements and guideline is of fundamental importance. It is at this point that connection between the intention, the implementation and the change in practice should be made especially. This is not an easy task as acknowledged by Lieberman (1998) and Hammond-Darling (1998). This could contribute to anxiety, fear, and resentments, negative emotions associated with change (Fullan, 2001, Harris, 1998). Closely related to clarity is communication (Morrison, 1998; Oliver, 1996). For change to be clear to the implementers, then it

has to be communicated in a way that they understand it. Supporting this view, Kalin and Zuljan (2007:172) in a study on *Teachers' perception of the goals of effective school reforms and their role in it* concluded that:

The success of each pedagogical change, especially of such a radical one as a national curricular reform, is significantly related to teacher perception of instruction and other educational dimensions, and also to how well informed and qualified the teachers are to introduce change and what support they get in the process. How teachers perceive the main goal of a reform is important because it greatly influences their motivation to change their own professional practices and achieve the goals of the reform.

Consequently, a supervisor is expected to possess skills that facilitate communication, knowledge, skills and attitudes identified as facilitators of effective communication. These are: 'human relations, group relations and conflict resolutions (...) listening, speaking [and] writing' (Pajak, 1990a:7). These are consistent with positive attributes of effective supervision as discussed in 2.1.5.1 and 2.1.5.2.

### 3. Change complexity

This has to do with what exactly is in the change, what the teachers have to change. Another characteristic that is related and is likely to determine how complex change may be is centrality or how far the change is going to change 'the institution's order of doing things and the ease of solution' (Morrison, 1998:16-17). Change can be categorised in terms of its size, the changes that are needed or in terms of where it is being implemented. When change is complex (involving more rather than fewer of these kinds of issues) it has more demand on the implementer and resources (Fullan, 2001:72; Hargreaves, 1998; Morrison, 1998). Consequently, this impacts on the skills and knowledge that the implementers have and the resources needed (Beach and Reinhartz, 2000) and additional skills and knowledge that they may need to effectively implement the change (Fullan, 2001; Hargreaves, 1998; Miller, 1998). At times change could be complex and compound to an extent that it is overloading to teachers (Fullan, 1998) preventing them from developing 'teacher-student relationships that are important in teaching and learning' (Glickman et al, 2007:440). Additionally, too complex a change could also result in dilemmas about where the main focus should be (Flett & Wallace, 2005), making it difficult to generate 'workable solutions' (Fullan, 1993:46). On the other hand, change might be 'too limited and specific that no real change occurs' (Miller, 1998:529). In such a

situation people can feel restricted or even get bored since little creativity may be expected on their part.

The curriculum change that this study is based on was complex in content and pedagogy. It was compounded by the introduction of free primary education that was to be implemented concurrently as discussed in detail in section 1.6.2. Additionally, the knowledge and skills of the teachers and the staffing norms in primary education in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1999) as discussed in 1.6.3 may not have matched the demand expected of the teachers in the implementation of the curriculum change. This meant that teachers' knowledge and skills needed to be enhanced if they were to effectively implement that curriculum change.

Literature on instructional change identifies continuous professional development as a strategy of enhancing and upgrading teachers' skills and knowledge (Courtney, 2007; Glickman et al, 2007, Firth & Pajak, 1998, Gordon, 2005). Professional development is a supervisory function discussed in 2.1.1 and 2.1.7. Teacher preparation can also be seen as an incentive to those teachers who may feel threatened and frustrated trying to implement a complex change. Organising their training to handle change is an indication that somebody cares about them and their work (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000).

#### 4. Quality of Change

Whatever reason is given for an educational change, the envisaged result is improvement. For improvement to be achieved; change should possess qualities and support that makes it possible and easier for the implementers to put it into practice (Fullan, 2001; Morrison, 1998). This characteristic is a summary of the other characteristics discussed earlier. A change that meets the needs of individuals and organisations, is clear to the implementers and is simplified for the implementers, and is well supported with resources can be considered to be a quality change.

The factors affecting implementation of change portray the important part that supervisors could play in facilitating change and supervisory functions that can be used towards this end. To establish the need for change and quality, the action

research function would be idea, clarity and complexity of change points to need for dissemination of the change to teachers.

### **2.2.2.2 Why Change Fails**

It is evident that most education reforms are aimed at making some improvement. While this is true, it is also evident that many education reforms fail to yield the intended results. The question then is why does change fail so often? Many commentators in policy implementation acknowledge that the process of creating change is more difficult than many planners envisage (Lockheed et al., 1991; Nadler, 1993; Nammudu, 1998). Several reasons are advanced for the failure of change to yield the intended results; they are varied sometimes contradictory. Most of the factors that impinge on successful implementation are what Fullan (2001:72) calls 'external factors and local characteristics of change'. Penny, Ward, Read & Bines (2008) in reference to implementation of education reforms in Uganda emphasise the need to consider local factors such as the parents, teachers, pupils, and the general context in which change is being implemented. The following are some of the factors that have been identified in the literature as major inhibitors of implementation of change.

#### **a) Gap between Policy and Practice**

One of the main inhibitors of change implementation is what Higgins (2004) in reference to the mismatch between education policy and practice in Uganda calls marching to different drums. Literature on the implementation of educational change portrays a situation where the policy planners and implementers are not in harmony (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Elmore, 1996 et al; Johns, 2002; Lieberman, 1998). There are several reasons advanced for the gap between policy (the intended change) and the practice (implemented change) (McLaughlin, 2008).

Commenting on the disharmony between teachers and supervisors, Contreras and Simon (2003) seem to lay the blame on supervisors' enthusiasm to get schools and teachers to change rather than about the elements of change leading to disharmony between the intended change and the implemented change. Contradicting this view, Hord (1995:92) attributes the disharmony to a lot of attention being given to 'what to

change', 'what change is all about rather than structures and strategies in how to change, the practice of the people in the classroom'.

Offering yet a different explanation, Hall and Hord (2001:39), observe that often change initiators will not have 'thought clearly about what the use of their change will really entail but will have thought more about what is needed to support its implementation such as training materials'.

The three views touch on three important aspects of change. Getting teachers to adopt change is important, just as concentrating and seeing the change clearly and the support it needs for effective implementation. I, therefore, see the emphasis given by Contreras and Simon (2003), Hord (1995) and Hall & Hord (2001) not as a contradiction but call to balance each stage of change.

The primary unit of a curriculum change is the school (Hall & Hord. 2001; Lockheed, et al.1991). It is at the school level that the intended curriculum is put into practice. It is accepted that teachers are the prime determiners of what goes on in classrooms. In an evaluative study examining how teachers accept their changed role according to the goals of Slovenian curricular reform, Kalin & Zuljan (2007:166) concluded that for reform to succeed, teachers need to 'understand, accept, and apply them in their work'. In the same light, Schmidt & Datnow (2005:949), in a longitudinal case study of comprehensive school reforms (CSR) in California and Florida, found the involvement of teachers in the reform was critical as they were considered by the policy makers as experts and the 'centre piece of educational change'. It is imperative therefore that they play an important role in the implementation of a curriculum change. Demonstrating the key role played by teachers, Darling-Hammond (1998:647) asserts that 'the fate of new programs and ideas rests on teachers' (...) opportunity to learn, experiment, and adapt ideas to their local context'. Holding similar views, Miller (1998:529) contends that implementation

depends on the teachers – not schedules, grouping procedures, or policy manuals. It is the teacher who provides the support and challenges that promote learning, it is the teachers who encourage improvement through feedback they provide, it is the teachers who presents materials and ideas that engage students' interests, and it is teachers who safeguard the academic integrity of the work that gets done in school.

Given the important role that teachers play in implementation of change, it is imperative that supervisors should help and support teachers to play their role effectively. The

relationship between the supervisors and teachers as shown earlier section 2.1.4 is important. The supervisor's ability to reach the individual teacher as well as groups of teachers is important. Literature has shown that teachers tend to support and work for success of reform programmes they identify with (Cohen & Ball, 1990; Kali & Zuljan, 2007; Schmidt & Datnow, 2005). The supervisors' role is therefore to ensure that teachers perceive the educational change as beneficial to them and their students and to see themselves as part of the change (Fullan, 1998). This suggests the team work that Hall & Hord (2001:15) emphasise is an important principle of change also described as key by Darling-Hammond (1998). This scenario calls for proper conceptualisation of the change to avoid what Hall and Hord (2001:39) refer to as 'mutation' of the change. They argue that modifying, adapting or mutating some aspects is usually not intended but can result from 'uncertainty about what is supposed to be done' and as teachers attempt 'to do the right thing'. This is supported by Johns (2002) in a study on the implementation of physical education in Hong Kong. He found a gap between 'what was planned and what materialised as curriculum'; however the conclusion was that the gap was not created intentionally but was as a result of policy makers not being aware of the conditions that teachers operate under.

Looking at education holistically, Kelly (2004:10) points out that the quality of any educational experience 'depends on the teachers responsible for it' and suggests the need for teachers to have knowledge of the change aims. Supporting this view, O'Neil (1995:8) asserts that 'teachers who will be required to make changes in their classroom practices have to understand the proposed changes both at ideational and programmatic level'.

Teachers' understanding of an educational change largely depends on how it is communicated or on the dissemination process (Hargreaves, 1998; Oliver, 1996). Dissemination is the process of making the change clear to those involved. Giving an example of the Take-up project (Schools Council) in the United Kingdom, Kelly (2004) observed that the work of the council was not as effective as it should have been. He attributed this to the failure to pay attention to dissemination. On the other hand, Sashkin and Egermeier cited in Hord (1995:92), using studies conducted in the 1970s; show that change works 'where there is a person who provides information.' This would reduce the difficulty of conceptualisation which Hargreaves (1998:281) sees as a hurdle in the implementation of change when teachers would not understand what they are expected

to do. When teachers do not get explanations of what is expected of them they do not feel in control thus affecting the way they perceive the change (Rudduck, 1991).

According to Oliver (1996:5) 'if teachers learn about the change through the medium of memoranda and circulars, then they will not gain that sense of ownership which is crucial if it is to be truly successful'. Commenting on the way dissemination is done, Wagner (1998) points out that in most cases dissemination resembles a large classroom where a few people talk while the passive teachers listen and are expected to go and implement as instructed. This kind of scenario leads to resentments and resistance.

The question of how change is communicated is closely related to how people view the education system or the structure. In the top-down structure, or what Rudduck (1991:29) refers to as 'technocratic bureaucratic approach' decisions are communicated from the top while in the bottom-up approach the implementers participate and make decisions about how to implement change. Hall and Hord (2001:13) report that the two approaches are essential as 'administrator leadership is essential to long term change success.' 'While the bottom may be able to launch and sustain an innovative effort (...) if administrators do not engage in ongoing active support, it is more than likely that change effort will die'. This could be a result of what Contreras and Simoni (2003:67) observe in their study on *Bolivian education reforms 1992 -2002* that 'teachers' compliance with the reform due to pressures brought about legislation (...) does not necessarily indicate teacher buy-in'. This means they could be implementing change but lacking commitment which is bound to affect the quality. To counteract this kind of situation, Hall and Hord (2001:13) suggest a horizontal approach where 'all actors are viewed as being on the same plane rather with none higher or lower than the other' (ibid p.11). Accordingly, teachers and other supervisors/administrators will be in a position to appreciate each others' roles in the change thus building trust since there is 'cross-school consultation and learning' that emanates from the horizontal approach (Darling-Hammond, 1998: 646). Showing the disadvantage of the vertical approach, Hall and Hord (2001:11), proffer that the vertical approach brings about a situation where teachers think

district superintendents and state policy makers have an easy jobs. They are given cars, and all they do is mandate things for the teachers to do; they have no idea what life is like in the classroom'. Policy makers at the other end .... feel harried and pressured, and do not see themselves as being able to influence much of anything. They see the complexity of their work and believe that no one understands their approach to education. Many of them view teachers as having the easy job.



This observation mirrors the feeling that the teacher who triggered this study expressed as quoted in the preface and sentiments expressed by both teachers and supervisors in this study, discussed in 8.2. There is general mistrust which should be avoided as implementation of change requires team effort. This is even more in the case of Kenya in which this study is based where the teachers were implementing two educational reforms concurrently. It also appears as will be revealed in later chapters that there is mistrust between supervisors and teachers prompting recommendations for policy and practice discussed in chapter nine.

Related to structure is the question of mandate. There are varied views about mandate. For instance, Darling-Hammond (1998); Fullan (1993); McLaughlin (1998) hold the view that change can not be effected through mandate. Contrasting with this view, Hall and Hord (2001: 14) are of the view that 'mandates can work'. However they qualify that for mandates to work, they must be 'accompanied by continuing communication, ongoing training, on-site coaching and time for implementation'. This way can operate very well. The Kenyan case of curriculum change was a mandate, but was there training for the implementation, any coaching going on? This question is answered in chapter seven.

Based on the findings of his study on implementation in *Changing curriculum policy into Practice: the case of physical education in Hong Kong*; Johns (2002) suggests three ways of closing the gap. These are:

- Introducing reforms in a way that teachers can 'own, adapt and blend proposed reforms with existing practices' (Johns, 2002:158). Adding to this call, Rudduck earlier (1991:30-39) had put emphasis on the need to establish 'shared meaning and commitment to curriculum change among individuals and working groups of teachers and schools' since a 'curriculum change is not a simple, mechanical process that needs an expert to kick to get it going when it stalls'. It is widely believed that involving teachers in decision making about change results in the ownership of the change. However this is not always the case as exemplified by Tyler and Teddie's study cited in Fullan (1992) which revealed that despite teachers having been involved in decision making, they did not alter their practice

- Educational reformers recognising teachers as professionals, who are skilled to undertake the proposed changes in ways that transform plans into everyday practice (Johns, 2002:158). Emphasising the same strategy, Glickman et al, (2007:440) add change works when teachers are treated not like ‘technicians’ but as ‘professional who can make decisions about curriculum, instruction and assessment’.

- Drawing and respecting teachers’ classroom experience rather than treating them as technicians to implement what has been passed on to them (John, 2002:158). This according to Glickman et al (2007:440) can be achieved if policies do not ‘treat teachers as part of the problem but as a part of the solution’, providing materials and resources’ which Beach and Reinhartz (2000:308) refer to as implementing change ‘in a collaborative way’.

- Using strategies that invite teachers’ participation rather than resistance (Beach & Reinhartz , 2000; Fullan, 2001; Glickman, et al., 2007; Johns, 2002:158)

Although the proposals on closing the gap look viable, their practicably would heavily be influenced by the supervisory model in use as discussed in 2.1.3. This is further demonstrated in a study by Hall and Hord (2001:129- 130) on teachers’ stages of concern (SoC), Level of Use (LoU), and Innovation Configuration (IC) maps. Analysing data from schools that were similar ‘in terms of students’ social economic status’ and where ‘teachers had received the same district workshops and the same curriculum materials’, at the end of two years, the teachers were at different levels of implementation of the science curriculum. This according to Hall and Hord was as a result of the leadership in the different school. Though other factors cannot be ruled out, the lead facilitator plays an important role in implementation of change that cannot be ignored. The ability of the supervisors to motivate the teachers towards tackling the challenges that come with change is important.

#### b) Resistance

A commonly cited problem of implementation of change is resistance. As discussed in section 2.2.3.1, change by its very nature arouses negative emotions such as fear, anxiety, loss, danger, panic (Fullan, 2001: xi) and positive ones such as exhilaration, risk taking, excitement, improvement, energizing (ibid: 1). However it is the negative emotions that

are given attention as they are seen to negatively impact on implementation of change through resistance, resentment, and lack of commitment (Hargreaves 1998:559). Several reasons for resistance are advanced. For instance, Hargreaves attributes resistance to exclusion of people involved in the implementation, 'leaders being too controlling, too ineffectual and change being pursued in isolation and gets undermined by unchanged structure'. This he says can also be as a result of key staff 'becoming over involved as administrative or innovative elite, from which other teachers feel excluded' resulting to 'resistance and resentment'. When those involved in planning change are outside the school setup like the external supervisors, being involved in many administrative tasks in the implementation is likely to result in lack of time with the teachers. Cole (1996:195) uses Kurt's Lewin's (1951) force-field theory to explain resistance in the implementation of change. He suggests there are two forces, the driving force that pushes for change and the restraining force. The 'driving forces push one way to attempt to bring about change, restraining forces push the other way in order to maintain the status quo'. This according to Cole is because 'people feel threatened by change' (ibid: 195) which closely ties with the fact that in change people have to do things differently. Kelly (2004) explains resistance in terms of how change is introduced. He argues that if change is seen to be forced or coerced, resistance is bound to be the resultant reaction. Coercion mainly results from 'power relations in school systems' (Flett & Wallace, 2005:192).

Giving a contrasting explanation, Hall and Hord (2001:72) perceive resistance as 'natural' explaining that 'sometimes what seems like resistance might be aspects of personal concerns'. They attribute this to 'not knowing what is expected and having doubt about one's ability to succeed with a new way (...) sense of loss [or] lack of information' while Cole (1996:193) explains it as a threat that people experience as a result of change. However, Hall and Hord (2001:72) contend that there are 'real resisters' which they attribute to people 'having different agenda from the change agenda (...) or simply personal problems'.

What seems to emerge if change is to be effectively implemented is the need to minimise those factors and conditions that arouse resistance (Cole, 1996). Providing adequate information about the change, resources to support the change, enhancing the skills and knowledge of the implementer, and minimising the sense of loss by presenting change

as an improvement of what already exists can go a long way in reducing resistance to change.

c) Treating teachers as one homogeneous group.

Literature on change portrays teachers as an important cog in the change process (Fullan, 2001; Kalin & Zuljan, 2007; Penny & Fox, 1997). It is also evident that teachers are not a homogeneous group (Hall & Hord, 2001; Hargreaves, 2005, 1998; Oliver, 1996; Schmidt & Datnow, 2005). Teachers' differences are seen in terms of their 'disciplines and subjects (...) different times they were trained (...) (Oliver, 1996:2), age, stages of their career (Hargreaves, 2005; Soelen, 2003), gender, and personal orientation (Schmidt & Datnow, 2005).

In a study on *life, careers and generational factors: teachers' emotional responses to change*, based on interviews with 50 Canadian elementary, middle and high school teachers, Hargreaves (2005:967) concluded that teachers respond to educational change at different ages and stages of their career and asserts that when an educational change occurs, teachers do not all respond in the same way.

Equally important but not in receipt of much attention in the change literature is the emotional differences in teachers (Reio, 2005). Showing the need to focus on teachers emotions, Hargreaves (1998:560) argues that

Educational change initiatives do not just affect teachers' knowledge, skills and problem-solving capacity (they) affect a whole web of significant and meaningful relationships that make up the work of the schools.

Introducing a special issue of *Teacher and Teaching Journal* on interrelationship among teacher identity, emotions, and change in Canada, the Netherlands, and the United States, Reio (2005:985) explains that 'when confronted with ambiguity and uncertainty of change (...) emotional reactions influenced their [teachers'] risk taking, learning and development, and their identity formation'. Based on the overall view of the articles in the special issue, Reio, concludes that emotions are key components of teachers' lives and underscores the need to acknowledge them when planning for change. This observation put a heavy responsibility on the supervisors and the policy makers. It calls for the need to understand the teachers they are dealing with (Hargreaves, 2005). This can only be achieved if there is close interaction between the

supervisors and the teachers. In Kenya, the policy makers at the national level many not have close interactions with the teachers; however, it is expected at the zone level. Whether this happens will be revealed in chapter seven.

Another difference that should be given focus in change implementation is the age and career stage of the teachers. Teachers at the beginning of their career and who are likely also to be young are perceived to be 'enthusiastic about change because they have nothing to compare' though they 'may be less competent and confident in implementing and even understanding it' (Hargreaves, 1998:968). While those nearing the end of their career will have experienced many changes in their career and, hence may not be excited about change and need more convincing about the importance and benefits of the change. The mid-career teachers could exhibit characteristics that are between the starting teachers and those at the end of their career (Hargreaves, 1998, 2005; Reio, 2005). To have all teachers on board in implementation of change, Hall & Hord, (2001:61), Hargreaves, (2005) and Schmidt & Datnow (2005) suggest that teachers should be treated as individuals with consideration of their career stages and emotional needs resulting from the changes.

#### d) Treating change as an event

'Change is a process' not a one time event that is time bound (Hall & Hord 2001:4; Fullan, 1993:21; Owen, 2008:112). Qualifying this further, Morrison (1998) and Lieberman (1998) see it as a dynamic process, depicting continuity. Consequently, Hall and Hord (2001:4-5) suggest that

change is not accomplished by having a one time announcement by an executive leader or a two days training workshop for teachers (...) and/or the delivery of the new curriculum (...) Instead, it is a process through which people and organizations move gradually come to understand and become skilled and competent in the use of new ways.

If teachers perceive change 'as a series of events' which upsets the natural order, then it is likely to be conceived as 'something to fear, and something to avoid, whenever possible' (Oliver, 1996:3). Similarly, if a supervisor conceptualises change as a process or as one time event then this too has implications. Hall and Hord (2001:5) argue that if seen as an 'event, the implementation will be tactical in nature it will have a short term focus typically centring around one formal training session for teachers before schools begin, no on-site coaching or follow up'. This

kind of approach to a curriculum change has its shortcomings. As indicated earlier, change means learning to do new things and some things differently (Fullan 2001, Morrison 1998, Oliver, 1996). Teachers therefore need time to learn for instance the content of the new curriculum, to adopt the use of new teaching methods, and teaching / learning resources. This can be unsettling to both the teacher and the school as revealed by teachers and supervisors in this study and expressed in form of challenges they face and discussed in details in section 8.2. In essence, what teachers need is time and support to 'understand the new ways...and time to grieve the loss of old ways (Hall & Hord, 2001:5).

#### **2.2.4 Elements of Change and their Implications on Supervision**

Educational change has certain characteristics that set it apart from the usual business of a school or organisation. Literature of change spells out several characteristics of change. Two principles that encompass all the other characteristics and which are likely to have an influence on all other characteristics is about change being a natural process and being about people (Fullan, 2008; Morrison, 1998; Oliver, 1996).

According to Morrison (1998:15), change involves people more than content. 'Change changes people but people change change'. It is therefore important for those overseeing the implementation of change to take into consideration the people who will implement the change. In the case of a curriculum change, the teachers' attitude and the acceptability of the change will determine if the change will be effectively implemented. This brings the supervisors into focus as they interact with the teachers in the implementation of change.

Qualifying the natural inevitability of change, Oliver (1996:3) points out that change is a much more natural situation than equilibrium. Commenting on curriculum change, Morrison (1998:1) argues that 'aims, objectives, content, pedagogy, evaluation and direction of education are not fixed but fluid'. This means that the way people handle change will depend on whether they perceive it as a natural occurrence or an imposition that they can do without.

Like change, supervision is about dealing with people. Therefore an educational change is part of a supervisory process as ‘supervisors help provide direction and meaning to change that occur in school’ (Beach & Reinhartz, 200:312). However Beach and Reinhartz acknowledge that this is not a simple task for the supervisors as it is an additional task to the routine tasks such as ‘writing reports, conducting meeting, ordering textbooks and supplies’ (ibid). Consequently change and its implementation has different implications on supervision. Table: 2.1 illustrate different change characteristics that are summarised from literature and their perceived implication on supervision.

Table: 2.1 Characteristics of Change and Supervisory Implications.

Change Principle/Characteristic	Implication on Supervision
Change involves people more than content (Allen & Glickman, 1998; Hall & Hord, 2001; Miller, 1998; Morrison, 1998.	Planning, motivating, collaborating building shared group vision, impacting new skills and knowledge through continuous professional development / in-service
Change is a process, it is not linear (Fullan, 1993; Hall & Hord, Lieberman, 1998)	Continuous monitoring, getting and providing feedback, renewal of the process and product.
Change intention does not mirror change in implementation Hargreaves, 1994, McLaughlin, 1998, Fullan, 2001, Hall & Hord, 2001	Planning, assessing the needs, dissemination , motivation, establishing structures for the change (legal, professional and social)
Successful change is about successful management (Allen & Glickman, 1998; Holmes, 1998; Oliver, 1996)	Planning, decision making, providing resources, staffing, being part of the process, collaboration, facilitating, monitoring, problem solving, organizing
Effective change responds to real needs (Buchert, 1990; Fullan, 2001,1998; Morrison, 1998, Oliver, 1996; Penny & Fox, 1997	Assessing the need for the change and what should be changed and the implementers’ needs.
Change is structural, systematic and upsets the status quo, antagonistic, unsettling (Fullan, 2001; House, 2000; Oliver, 1996)	Planning, collaborating, communicating, providing resources, motivating,

## 2.2.4 Summary

This section has outlined the interrelations between education change and its complexities, and its implication on supervision. The central role that teachers play and the need for support are evident. Consequently, supervisors must possess certain

skills that facilitate the change process. One message that has been made clear in literature on change is the importance of identifying change facilitators and inhibitors with a view of minimizing the inhibitors if not getting rid of them all together.

## **2.3 Chapter Summary**

In this chapter the different views of instructional supervision, the different models of supervision that give rise to different supervisory functions, and the role conflict and dilemmas as a result of multiple roles that supervisors perform are discussed. In addition, the linkage between supervision and implementation of change has also been discussed.

This study examines instructional supervision in a background of implementing a curriculum change. Towards this end, the policy expectations, actual practice, the head teachers' and teachers' expectation, their perceptions of the importance and frequency of performance of instructional supervisory functions and the challenges faced were sought. The literature analysed in this chapter has provided empirical and practical basis for analysis and discussions of the data presented in later chapters. At appropriate point through out the literature analysis an attempt has been made to identify the research question that is addressed by the particular piece of literature. Further to this, it has formed a ground from which conclusions and recommendations for policy and practice presented in chapter nine are discussed.

In particular, what this chapter has shown is that supervision and change are intimately linked, there are many and sometimes confused perspectives on both leading to the conclusion that though linked, each has to be understood for itself. This is despite the fact that supervisory functions expected during implementation of change may not be different but the approach could differ from the day to day instructional supervision.

To further contextualize issues, a historical account of instructional supervision is discussed in the next chapter.



## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **EDUCATION AND SUPERVISION: A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE.**

*Focus on the past to understand the future. A Kikuyu saying.*

#### **3.0 Introduction**

The preceding chapter laid a background for the importance of instructional supervision and the theoretical models on which different approaches to supervision are based leading to differences in practice. In a developing country like Kenya, there are other underlying factors that may not easily be placed or discussed within the premises of the models discussed in chapter two as they are cultural, traditional and historical. In this chapter, a brief history of education in reference to the development of supervision in Kenya is discussed. To link the past and the present, salient features of the African indigenous education, pre and post independence commissions and committees that have influenced and shaped education and supervision in Kenya are discussed. The post and pre-independent policies on supervision and the understanding of the nature of the indigenous education is a good starting point to examining the current policies and practice of instructional supervision.

#### **3.1 African Indigenous Education**

Before the missionaries and subsequently the colonial government introduced western education, Africans had their own indigenous education. This education was highly utilitarian and relevant to everyday life (Otiende, Wamahiu and Karagu, 1992). It provided skills, knowledge, and values that an individual needed to survive in society. It was concerned with economic, religious and socio-political aspects of life (Wango, 2002). Bogonko (1992a:1) summarises the aim of African indigenous education as to:

transit and conserve from one generation to the next accumulated wisdom and knowledge of the clan. It was aimed at adapting children to their physical environments which were crucial to their survival.

Since the aim of education was for adaptation to the environments, it was a life long process. As individuals progressed from one stage to the other, they acquired more education. Kenya has about 42 indigenous communities with unique cultures and living in different environments. This means the indigenous education was unique to each community to suit its needs. For instance Kikuyus who are agriculturists had a different education from the Samburus who are pastoralists (Otiende, et al., 1992).

In the traditional setup, curricula and schools did not exist as we know them today. The age group determined the curriculum that was relevant while the homestead or family setup was the school (Bogonko, 1992a). There were no curriculum support materials nor were there written examinations. Knowledge was passed on by doing and under guidance of those who were experienced. Mothers and grandmothers could go to the river accompanied by the young girls. The girls were expected to learn how to fill the water pots and balance them on the head or back depending on the culture of the people. The young boys accompanied their fathers and grandfathers or older siblings on hunting missions, honey harvesting, fishing, grazing or tilling the land.

In the traditional education, nobody laid out what was to be learned at any particular time unlike in modern education that is guided by syllabi and time tables. Seasons and events dictated what was to be learned. Education was not competitive. Each person learned at their pace. External supervision was absent. This was because there was no prescribed methodology or content. The person guiding or teaching was considered qualified and therefore did not need to be supervised.

Gender was another factor that defined what was to be taught. The gender roles were well defined in the community. Men and women were socialised to fit into the defined roles. While girls' education would centre on being wives and mothers, that of boys would concentrate on male defined roles such as herding animals, tilling the land and offering security to the community.

The indigenous education was very different from modern education introduced by the missionaries and the colonial government. The introduction of western education

by the missionaries and the colonial government changed the meaning and process of education as they were perceived by the African society.

The differences are notable in the aim, structure, content and methods of delivery. In the African setup everybody was a teacher, children included. Older children taught their younger siblings as they took care of them. Teaching took place all the time and anywhere as people went about their daily activities. This was as opposed to modern education where one person (the teacher) is designated the teaching role. Modern education is also offered in one central place, called the school, as opposed to the traditional education that was offered anywhere as opportunities arose and people went about their daily activities.

In the next section, a linkage between the past and the current is developed by discussing some of the pre-independence education commissions that influenced education and supervision in Kenya.

## **3.2 Pre-Independence Education Commissions.**

### **3.2.1 Fraser's Education Commission 1909**

The Fraser Commission was to establish and recommend the type and organisation of education in the country. The commission recommended separate education systems for Europeans, Asians and Africans. As a result, Europeans and Asians had an education that emphasised academic work, while the Africans had a vocational oriented education that was aimed at confining them to rural areas (Bogonko, 1992a, , 1992b; Eshiwani, 1993; Otiende et al.,1992). As Bogonko (1992a:117) strongly puts it, 'it relegated the indigenous people to be hewers of wood and drawers of water'. The missionaries emphasised religious education to prepare the Africans for baptism while the vocational education was aimed at providing cheap labour for the colonial farmers (ibid).

The structure of education as proposed by Fraser also differed according to race. The Europeans and Asians had seven years of education, while the Africans had eight years. The African education was highly selective, punctuated with examinations. After the first four years, pupils had to sit the Common Entrance Examination that

determined who were to continue to intermediate school. The intermediate school course lasted four years followed by Kenya African Primary Education Examination (KAPE) (Bogonko, 1992a; Eshiwani, 1993; Mutua, 1975; Otiende et al.,1992).

Supervision was also along racial lines. The European, Asian and African schools had independent supervisors who were all appointed by the colonial government (Kenya Colony and Protectorate, 1925). As result of the segregated education, supervision was perceived as interference in the African schools and hence resented. It was about control of what was taught and how it was taught (Bogonko, 1992b).

### **3.2.2 Phelps-Strokes Commission of 1924.**

This commission was mainly concerned with education needs of Africans (Wango, 2002). In its findings, the commission decried the dismal state of education for Africans. It recommended a uniform system for all mission and government schools, increased grant-in-aid and further training of teachers. It was only after the criticism by the Phelps-Strokes Commission on the poor quality of education provided to Africans that the government responded by recognising the importance of supervision of schools as a means of enhancing quality of education (Kenya Colony and Protectorate, 1925). In 1929 the Education Ordinance empowered the government to develop, control and supervise education in Kenya. The Ordinance led to the establishment of a Department of Education under a Director of Education. The Director's functions among other things included organization, supervision and inspection of schools (Lugumba, 1973).

### **3.2.4 Beecher Committee on African Education 1949**

This committee's terms of reference included a review of the scope, content and methods of African educational systems, its administration and financing. The committee recommended 'a morally sound education based on Christian principles, conducted with adequate inspection and supervision' (Kenya Colony and Protectorate, 1949:3). Beecher noted that though there was expansion of education, it lacked quality and attributed this to inadequate supervision as there were 'inadequate

supervisors and supervisory patterns lacked direction, coordination and consistency and support from stakeholders' (ibid: 26)

Beecher's commission was the first to spell out the need for thorough supervision of African education. Among the things that were recommended were:

- Inspection and management of African education to be made efficient.
- Inspectorial and managerial functions to be separated.
- Necessary staff be recruited and financial provision made (ibid: 4).

Based on the recommendations of the committee, it is clear that it was concerned about the process of supervision and in particular the evaluative and supportive functions being put together, which is an aspect that has been identified as causing role conflict and overloads as we saw in the previous chapter 2.1.8 (Cooper, 1982; Evans, 1991; Goldhammer et al, 1980). Lack of or inadequate resources have been reported as a hurdle in the supervisory process. Beecher's committee recommendation of provision of adequate staff and finances is recognition of their importance in the process.

The separation of the inspection and managerial functions was an attempt to draw a distinction between the supervisory functions and managerial duties. It was as a result of this recommendation that the country was divided into education administration regions for purposes of administration and inspection. Officers were also appointed to oversee supervision and organisation of primary schools. This culminated in the formation of the inspectorate in 1955 (Bogonko 1992a). The structure of the directorate of quality assurance and standards up to date are along the country's administrative boundaries.

The Beecher report formed the basis for government policy in education in the 1950s until independence in 1963 (Wango, 2002).

### **3.2.5 Binns Report 1952**

This commission's main concern was about the efficiency of the African education. The report expressed concern on the status of the teaching profession 'that lacked coordination and structured teacher institutions' (Kenya Colony and Protectorate, 1952:12). It recommended setting up of an institution to coordinate teacher training activities and formation of a unified teaching force devoid of racial overtones.

On supervision, the Binns report criticised the separation of supervision and inspection that had been recommended earlier by Beecher. The separation was viewed as duplication of duties, though the importance of supervision and inspection was acknowledged. The report noted that 'the purpose of supervision and inspection is improvement of quality of education; separation of these functions obviously duplicates services' (Kenya Colony and Protectorate, 1952:15). Binns considered supervision and inspection as one and the same thing since they were aimed at improving quality of education but failed to recognise that the process the two used is different. This debate on the real meaning of supervision continues as shown in chapter 2.1.2. As is demonstrated in the chapter two, the confusion is yet far from being over and continues to determine how instructional supervision is carried. Consequently, it is also reflected in the way teachers perceive supervision ((Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Tanner & Tanner, 1987).

The Binns report was the last of the pre-independent education commissions as the state of emergency was declared in 1952. The struggle for independence continued up to 1963 when Kenya gained its independence. This period marked slow activity in education as most of the government's resources and time were devoted to stopping the struggle (Wango, 2002).

### **3.2.6 Implications for Supervision**

The influence of the missionaries and the colonial government on education and the departure from indigenous African education had implications for supervision as we know or experience it today in Kenya. It has shaped and influenced the perceptions

of supervisors and teachers towards supervision. The most notable aspects that have influenced education and supervision were:

a) The change in purpose and focus of education from the African indigenous to the western oriented. As a result, there had to be somebody overseeing that the colonial and missionaries objectives were being met. The desire to control what was taught and how it was taught therefore gave rise to supervision/inspection.

b) The shift from everybody being a teacher to this role being designated to particular people (teachers). This necessitated training of the teachers to acquire knowledge and appropriate pedagogical skills. Supervisors being involved in pre-service teacher education and class visits can be seen as a product of this set up. In Kenya today, selection for teacher training is carried out by the supervisors. They are also involved in setting and marking of teacher training college examinations and teaching practice for student teachers.

c) The centralised curricula prescribed for all pupils in the country necessitated the need for a mechanism of ensuring what was taught in various regions and schools hence the need for inspection/supervision.

d) Introduction of examinations. The African indigenous education had no examinations. The introduction of examinations made education competitive unlike in the African set up. This introduced the evaluation aspect of supervision which continues to overshadow other functions of supervision as discussed in details in sections 2.1.2.1 and 8.1.

The formation of Department of Education in 1924 (Mutua, 1975) was the first step towards state control of education. In Kenya, schools are controlled and regulated by the central government through the Ministry of Education. This is by way of management of the institutions, curricula and pedagogical prescription, in the form of schemes of work, lesson plans, and other records. The government also employs all the teachers in public schools through the Teachers' Service Commission. To operate, all schools whether private or public, have to be inspected, approved and

registered by the Ministry of Education. This activity as we shall see in section 8.2 takes a lot of supervisors' time at the district level and zones.

In short the current supervisory/ inspectoral practices in Kenya have their roots in the colonial past. It mostly took shape in the period 1955 to 1963 when the education dynamism among the Africans began to be felt deeply and hence the need for control of what was taught in schools (Bogonko, 1992a). Although some of the post-independent commissions made reference to both inspection and supervision, there was also no distinction between supervisory and inspectoral functions a situation that continues to date as will be shown in the discussion of post-independence education commissions in the next section.

### **3.3 Post Independence Education**

On independence in 1963, Kenya inherited a primary education that was varied in both structure and content (Eshiwani, 1993, Bogonko 1992a). The young nation wanted to shake off the colonial influence in education and all other spheres of society. In addition to correcting the disparities in education, the government needed to have an education that was going to make it possible for the Africans to take over jobs that were vacated by the Europeans who were leaving the country. It also needed an education that was going to facilitate fulfilling its pledge of eradicating poverty, ignorance and disease (Republic of Kenya, 1964).

The development of education to steer the country from poverty, ignorance and disease, and promote economic growth has been and still is a priority of the Kenya government. Since independence, the government has appointed various committees and commissions to address different issues in education at different times. The post independence commissions and committees have shaped and influenced what happens in the education sector. Many of the policies governing education today have been based on the recommendations of these committees and commissions.

The committees' and commissions' recommendations resulted in major changes in either content or structure of education in Kenya. The only exception was the 1976



*Report of National Committee on Educational Objectives and Policies* that was not implemented due to change in government. However, the 1988 *Report on Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for Next Decade and Beyond* borrowed heavily from it.

These commission and committees are discussed in this section in relation to their influence on supervision

### **3.3.1 The Kenya Education Commission: 1964.**

This was the first post independence education commission, popularly known as *The Ominde Commission* after its chairperson Professor S.H.Ominde. Its terms of reference were to survey the existing resources of Kenya and to advise the government in formulation and implementation of national policies for education. This was at a time when the nation wanted to Africanise education and make it relevant to the needs of the young nation. The commission had therefore to take into consideration the cultural aspirations and values of a united nation (Republic of Kenya, 1964).

As pointed out earlier, before independence, education in Kenya was segmented along racial lines and content. It was also restrictive for the Africans who had to go through many examinations before proceeding to any subsequent level. The commission recommended change in structure to 7-4-2-3. seven years of primary education, four years of (lower) secondary education, two years in high school (upper secondary) and a minimum of three years of university education. Initially, as indicated above, there were eight years of primary education for Africans punctuated by stiff examinations while Europeans and Asians had seven continuous years of primary education (Bogonko, 1992a). The curriculum was also to be reviewed to make it more academic as opposed to the vocational one before independence, and to reflect the African values in addition to addressing the needs of the new nation (Republic of Kenya, 1964). The commission also recommended massive expansion of education. This was meant to allow as many Africans as possible to acquire an

education that was to enable them take up jobs that were left vacant by the colonialists. This had implications for supervision.

On supervision, the commission acknowledged Beecher's committee report recommendation of drawing a distinction between the inspection and supervision functions (ibid: 46) and ignored Binns's recommendation that criticised the separation.

Concern was also raised about the low standards of education in primary schools. Expressing this concern, the commission noted 'we have been deeply concerned about the standards of education in primary schools (...) and this has led us to consider the role of the inspectorate' (ibid: 124). The low standards were attributed to lack of or inadequate supervision. It cited the following as reasons for inadequate supervision:

- Too many duties falling under the inspectorate. Qualifying this observation, they explained that officers were used 'widely on purely administrative duties such as collection of school fees and the cash payment of teachers' (ibid: 47)
- Inadequate number of supervisors resulting in 'schools that knew of no supervision from one year's end to the other' (ibid)
- Lack of training and experience for supervisors. To show the extent of the problem they noted, 'the supervising body lacks the corporate practical wisdom and experience (ibid).
- Lack of separation of supervisory and inspection functions (ibid: 124).

The following recommendations were made:

- Strengthening of both internal (supervision by head teachers) and external supervision by supervisors from the Ministry of Education or local councils.
- Recruitment of more supervisors to alleviate the shortage.
- Establishment of supervisory teams under the guidance of education officers.
- Drawing of comprehensive training courses for supervisors to improve the 'initial narrowness of a supervisor's range of knowledge of education' (ibid 47). This was meant to give supervisors lesson observation skills and expose them to supervision in other parts of the world (ibid:48)

- Paying attention to a supervisor's approach to teachers, 'dispelling the policeman approach and creating a kind of relationship that is most likely to lead to a positive and enthusiastic response on the part of the teachers' (ibid).

- Separating the administrative function and the inspection one. Towards this end, the commission noted:

While administrative officers should make fuller use of the specialist educational advice of the inspectorate, the latter should be relieved of all administrative responsibilities. Decisions relating to grading of teachers for any purpose (...) should be transferred to the administrative officers, even though they may seek advice of the inspector. This (is) not only to relieve the inspectorate of administrative work, but also to enable the inspectors establish a new relationship with serving teachers, which is divorced from all powers of control (ibid:125).

This recommendation is another attempt to separate the supportive/helping function and the evaluative function in order to build a mutual trusting relationship between the teachers and supervisors. For supervision to effectively fulfil its core role of improving teaching and learning, trust is a crucial element (Glickman, et al., 2007; Waite, 2005).

The recommendations of the Ominde commission were adopted in the *Sessional paper No. 10 on African socialism and its application to planning in Kenya* (Republic of Kenya, 1965). There are three observations that were raised in the Ominde commission and subsequently in the *Sessional Paper No. 10 of 1965* that I find very relevant to this study and to instructional supervision as it has been practised in Kenya.

The first one is its recognition of primary education as an important 'stage of acquiring the basic equipment for living' (Republic of Kenya, 1964:44). This gives a rationale of having quality primary education. This is important as this study is based on the premises that supervision improves teaching and hence learning, a view that is supported in supervision literature (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005). In addition, as pointed out in 1.6.1, a sizeable number of Kenyans terminate their education at the primary level. This makes primary education an important sector whose objectives the country should strive to achieve. This study is a contribution towards making the

achievement of the primary education objectives a reality through improved instructional supervisory practices.

The second is the recognition of the importance of supervision in maintaining educational standards. The commission observed that 'a good system of supervision is essential to any school system (...) as inadequate supervision was one of the main causes of low standards' (Republic of Kenya 1964:46). Showing the magnitude of the responsibility placed on supervisors and the need for training, the commission noted that

Effective supervision of education is a task of no small difficulty and it is certainly quite unsafe to assume that a promoted schoolmaster will automatically make a good supervisor without training (Republic of Kenya 1964: 47)

The commission also made recognition of the teachers as the most important resource in teaching and learning 'we are persuaded that he/she is easily the most important factor (...) it is the teacher who makes the school' (ibid: 48). This is a fact that is stressed through literature on supervision and also on implementation of educational change.

The third is the control of education and education institutions to ensure uniform standards. This has a lot to do with the process and the relationship between the teacher and the supervisor. The relationship influences the perceptions of the supervisors and teachers on supervisory functions. However, there is a contradiction in the recommendations of the commission. While it advocated control of schools, it made an observation of the need for inspectors to be 'relieved of all administrative responsibilities' in order to 'develop a new professional link between the inspector and teacher, so that the former is looked upon as an adviser and a friend rather than a policeman' (Republic of Kenya, 1964:125). The commission's concern on issues of power, control, trust, and support continues to dominate the literature on supervision and so are the varied views of supervision as revealed in literature analysed and presented in 2.1.2.

### 3.3.2 The National Committee on Educational Objectives and Policies-1976

This committee also referred to as *The Gachathi committee* was appointed approximately 10 years after the Ominde commission. The argument was that 10 years after independence, the country needed to refocus its educational goals to address the country's new challenges. While at independence the country needed to expand education, 10 years down the line there was need to establish the country's needs. The main term of reference for the committee among other things was to 'redefine Kenya's educational objectives and recommend policies to achieve these objectives within the financial constraints' (Republic of Kenya, 1976:193). It was argued that 'education is mainly oriented towards passing examinations (ibid: 17). The committee recommended:

- A new structure of education consisting of nine years in primary education, four years of (lower) secondary education, two of high school (upper secondary) education and a minimum of three years of university education.
- Extension of free primary education to upper primary (Free primary education was applicable to lower primary that is classes 1-3).
- Change of curriculum to include pre-vocational studies, cultural studies, languages, mathematics and science.
- Promotion of teachers on merit as well as academic background.
- Expansion of the primary school supervisory services.
- Strengthening of the inspectorate both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The recommendations like Ominde's before were to bring about a major change in education in the country, both in structure and content process. The importance of supervision and teachers are also reaffirmed as the committee noted the 'need for expansion of the primary school supervisory services' (ibid: 184). The committee also reiterated the importance of teachers; it noted that 'quality of education depends above all on teachers' (Republic of Kenya, 1976:183).

What is most notable in the *Gachathi committee* report is the strong emphasis on evaluation of teachers as a basis for their promotion stating that 'the committee attaches importance to the continuous assessment of the performance of all teachers'

(ibid: 184). The evaluation was to be undertaken by the supervisors. This again raises the question of the role of supervisors. Although the committee made reference to both supervision and inspection, it seems to have had emphasis on the evaluative/inspectoral function.

Soon after the committee submitted its report, there was a political change in the country in 1978. Though most of the recommendations of this committee were not implemented at the time, subsequent education commissions borrowed heavily from its recommendations.

### **3.3.3 The Presidential Working Party on the Establishment of the Second Public University-1981**

This working party whose report is also known as *The Mackay Report* was mandated to establish whether there was need for a second public university in Kenya. At the time Kenya had the University of Nairobi as the only public university (Republic of Kenya, 1981).

Although the working party was on university education its recommendations had a major implication for the other levels of education. It recommended starting a second public university that was technologically based. In addition, the working party recommended change of structure of education from 7-4-2-3, to 8-4-4. That is eight years of primary education, four years of (lower and upper) secondary education and a minimum of four years of university education (ibid).

The other recommendation that had a direct implication on primary education was expansion of the curriculum to include pre-vocational subjects such as Arts & Craft, Home-Science, Business Education, Agriculture and Music in primary education. This was in addition to Mathematics, Kiswahili, English, Science, History and Civics and Physical Education (Republic of Kenya, 1981,1992)

These recommendations were implemented in 1985 in all classes in primary education. The pre-vocational curriculum was introduced in all the classes in primary schools. Due to the haste in which the implementation was done, teachers were not

prepared for its implementation, neither were curriculum support materials ready (Kenya Institute of Education, 1990,1995)

While the intention of preparing the country for industrial development through technical education was noble, the implementation of the recommendations of the working party was hurriedly done. As revealed in literature on education change discussed in details in section 2.2 implementation of change needs time as it is usually complex. It is described as 'processes through which people and organizations move gradually come to understand and become skilled and competent in the use of new ways'(Hall & Hord, 2001:14). Emphasising the need to give the change process time, they note that 'pressing for quick change means there is no time to learn about and come to understand the new ways. No time to grieve the loss of old ways' (ibid). The effects of the hurried implementation are experienced many years after the implementation as the structure has continued to be resented by Kenyans (Kenya Institute of Education, 1995,1999). However the national education conference held in 2003 recommended that the structure be retained (Republic of Kenya, 2003b).

The recommendations of the Mackay report are discussed from the point of view of education change and its implementation. The issues of concern as related to educational change were:

- Teachers were to teach an expanded curriculum that they had not been trained for. The pre-vocational subjects were not part of the teacher training curriculum. Mid and end of cycle evaluations of the implementation of the changes revealed that teachers were not given any in-service training to enable them implement the curriculum. It further indicated that they lacked content knowledge of the subjects they taught. This not only affected quality of education but also the teachers' morale (Kenya Institute of Education, 1990, 1995).

- The implementation was so abrupt that curriculum support materials were not ready.

- Many Kenyans did not understand what the curriculum entailed. The curriculum therefore lacked support from the general public.

- The cost of education to parents went up, limiting access and completion rates.

These three observations had a direct implication for supervision. The supervisors needed to understand the changes in order to prepare the teachers to implement them. This was not the case as revealed in the monitoring and evaluation reports (ibid). Lack of materials to support the curriculum was also not only a challenge to teachers but to supervisors as well. Providing or facilitating schools in the choice of curriculum materials is one of the functions that supervisors are expected to perform (Harris, 1985; Pajak, 1990a). Lastly the resentment of the change meant supervisors had to use public relations skills to convince the public about the need for the change. These are skills supervisors do not have as discussed in 6.2.3.2.

In the general area of implementation of change the recommendation of the working party exemplifies the challenges and difficulties associated with implementation of an educational change or any policy and the influencing factors. For a start, unlike other post-independence inquiries that were headed by prominent Kenya educationists the working party was headed by Professor MacKay a Canadian. It was therefore seen as foreign initiated. Literature on policy change and implementation is clear that the origin of policy is an important factor in its successful implementation (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Fullan, 2001; Haddad & Demsky, 1995; Namuddu, 1998).

Secondly, the implementation was hurriedly done. There was lack of preparation for those involved in the massive educational change (Kenya Institute of Education, 1990, 1995). It was implemented in all classes and without going through the necessary stages in curriculum development and implementation (Kamindo, 1999). Educational change is depicted in literature as a process though not a linear one (Fullan, 2001; Hall & Hord, 2001; Morrison, 1998).

Although the findings of the committee were based on the assessment of the needs of the country, the implementation was a presidential decree, hence the rushed implementation an indication of political influence. Politics is known to be a major influence on educational policy process in many countries (Abagi et al., 2000; Kennedy, 2004; Namuddu, 1998). Expressing similar sentiments Harber (1997b:8)



points out that, in developing countries 'formal education is not purely a neutral or technical exercise. It is bound by values, competing goals.' The varied values and goals coupled with the interest any education change proposal generates are bound to interfere with the policy process at various stages, hence the unlikelihood of a smooth linear process.

The Mackay report exemplifies the gap in policy as intended and policy as implemented. It also brings to light the complexity of implementing an education change which is discussed in detail in section 2.2.3.

### **3.3.4 The Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond (Kamunge Report) - 1988.**

The major term of reference for this committee was to provide proposals and recommendations for the provision and expansion of education, training and research. It was also to look into the effective management, supervision, co-ordination, harmonization and maintenance of quality education for the next decade and beyond (Republic of Kenya, 1988a).

The committee is remembered for the introduction of cost sharing in financing education between the government and communities. It recommended that while the government paid the teachers, parents and communities should support the school in providing the physical infrastructure and other materials needed. This recommendation is blamed for low enrolment, participation and completion rates that were experienced in over a decade following its implementation (Abagi, 1999).

However there are observations and recommendations made by the committee which I consider important in relation to this study. These are:

- Recognition of 'effective supervision and inspection of primary schools as central to proper teaching and learning' and the need 'for supervisors to be supported through skills upgrading and provision of facilities for effective supervision' of primary education (Republic of Kenya 1888a:26). The committee also recommended training of head teachers as the first line of inspectors of their schools.

- The need for teachers to be given adequate in-service training on the curriculum they taught and appropriate teaching methods as a way of improving quality of education (ibid).
- Challenge to the teaching policy expecting teachers to teach all subjects in primary education. The committee observed that 'some teachers teach subjects for which they have a poor or weak academic background' (ibid: 25).

The recommendations of the committee were accepted by the government and a policy statement made through *Sessional paper No. 6 on Education and Manpower Training for Next the Decade and Beyond* (Republic of Kenya, 1988b). However their implementation remains questionable (Republic of Kenya, 1999; Wango, 2002). Despite these recommendations, supervision is still an issue of concern.

### **3.3.5 Master Plan on Education and Training Task Force: 1997-2010**

Unlike the other commissions and committees that were appointed by the president, this task force was an initiative of the Ministry of Education. It was aimed at providing strategies to guide education and training for the socioeconomic development of the country in the early 21<sup>st</sup> century (Republic of Kenya, 1998).

The taskforce noted that investment in primary education in Kenya yields higher returns to individuals, households and the society. It therefore recommended the 'improvement of school inspection to enhance its role in curriculum implementation' (ibid: 61). It called for establishment of a quality development unit and harmonisation of the duties of teacher advisory centre tutors, zone inspectors and education officers. The key role of the proposed quality unit was development of quality education and in-service training of teachers based on the curriculum.

On teacher education, the master plan called for improvement of pre-service teacher training by recruiting candidates at a higher academic level and emphasis on acquisition of pedagogical skills. Under this arrangement, the teacher trainees were to undergo a one year internship in schools under the supervision of college tutors, head teachers and experienced teachers.

Two key issues are improvement of inspection and separation of the inspection and support services. Reference to harmonisation of various duties is seen in the light of wanting to separate the administrative, supportive and evaluative functions.

Though the recommendations of the master plan were overtaken by events and in particular the appointment of the Koech commission in 1998, its proposals are reflected in subsequent strategies on provision of education.

### **3.3.6 Commission of Inquiry into the Education System of Kenya: Integrated Quality Education and Training - 1999.**

Also known as *The Koech Commission*, its aim was to study and make recommendations on a holistic approach to education in Kenya. The commission used an approach that was not preceded by other commissions and committees before. It reviewed all the reports by other committees, commissions, working parties and task forces on education in what it called 'an inventory of current policy instruments' (Republic of Kenya 1999:353). Looking for the future in the past enabled the commission to not only come up with new recommendations but also re-emphasise those of other commissions before it.

The recommendations and observations of this commission that I find pertinent to this study are:

- The observation that teachers are central for quality education and successful implementation of educational change 'the quality of education and training (...) largely depends on the quality of teachers (...) the level of academic qualification and professional training (...) teachers are equally central to any successful implementation of education change' (ibid: 160). It therefore recommended continuous in-service training to improve 'their knowledge, pedagogical skills and competence' (ibid).
- The function of the inspectorate, now the directorate of quality assurance and standards, as entailing inspection of schools and teachers to ensure the curriculum

was being implemented in order to uphold standards. The commission noted that though the department

was responsible for providing teachers with necessary professional guidance on all subject matters in the curriculum, such guidance has not been forthcoming. Lack of professional support has led to low morale on the part of teachers, many who complained that they were just 'groping' in the dark (Ibid:229).

The failure of effective implementation of programmes the commission noted was as a result of 'incompetent and untrained inspection personnel, lack of equipment, management facilities and finances' (Ibid). Addressing the inspectors in the field, it was pointed out that 'school inspectors in the field are generally limited in their movement to schools due to lack of transport' (ibid). This was because the 'inspectors depended on District Education Officers (DEO) and Provincial Directors of Education (PDE) respectively for transport. This is because they are the ones who are authorised to control the Ministry's budget at those levels. It therefore called for 'adequate resources and autonomy for the inspectorate as a quality audit organisation to effectively discharge its duties' (ibid).

The commission recommended competitive recruitment of inspectors and skills upgrading echoing the recommendations of earlier commissions and committees. However, the Koech commission 'did not find evidence that these recommendations were being seriously addressed' (Republic of Kenya, 1999:288). Lack of appropriate knowledge and skills has been identified as one reason why implementation of educational reforms fails ( Chan & Kleiner, 2000; Frase, 2005).

Reaffirming Kamunge's observations, the commission recommended the utilisation of senior teachers and heads of schools with inspection and guidance of others in order to supplement the work of inspectors (ibid). The use of the senior teachers for guidance and support of other teachers is viable as they are promoted as a result of their good teaching performance. The assumption is that other teachers would borrow best practices. Teachers have been found to regard help from their colleagues highly (Tanner and Tanner, 1987). This according to Ebmeier (2003:138) is because:

Peers more directly influence commitment to teaching through establishment of trusting relationships and establishing of satisfying working relationships (....) making teachers establish functional and supportive relationships with other teachers.

By taking stock of what other commissions and committees had done, the Koech commission is a reminder of many layers of recommendation that are aimed at improving teaching and learning but never seem to achieve this goal.

### **3.3.7 Sessional paper No. 1 of 2005: A policy Framework for Education, Training and Research**

In November 2003, the Ministry of Education held a consultative National Education Conference. The conference brought together 800 delegates drawn from different sectors to deliberate on issues affecting education and training in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2003b). It was a result of this conference that *Sessional paper No 1 of 2005 A policy framework for education, training and research* was developed. The paper focuses on education reforms aimed at addressing both the overall goals of the national economic recovery strategy as set out by the government, and the international commitments, which include Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Education for All (EFA) (Republic of Kenya, 2005a.). It also outlines the vision of the education sector which is reflected in the Ministry of Education strategic plan for 2006-2011 (Republic of Kenya, 2006d).

The sessional paper puts into perspective the strategies the government is to undertake in order to address the challenges facing education and training. It acknowledges the challenges facing primary education such as overstretched facilities, overcrowding in schools and high pupil-teacher ratio. Other challenges are poor resources management, and inadequate in-service training of teachers, quality of teacher training, and the expectation that a teacher can teach all seven subjects in the primary education curriculum. The sessional paper acknowledges that 'the two years of teacher training is not adequate for trainees to acquire mastery in subject content and skills of pedagogy in all 7 subjects', (Republic of Kenya, 2005a:39-40).

Although many of the issues and concerns addressed in the sessional paper are not new, it was the first time in the country that a sector-wide approach to programme

planning (SWAP) was put in place to address concerns in education. The sessional paper is made operational through The *Kenya education sector support program (KESSP) 2005-2010*. As a sequel to the sessional paper, KESSP provides a comprehensive framework for programme implementation that spells out the budgetary allocations (Republic of Kenya, 2005b).

In the Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2005 the Kenya government has reaffirmed the core function of the supervisory DQAS as quality assurance which entails effective monitoring of curriculum delivery. To realise effective curriculum delivery, DQAS is expected 'to provide advisory services to schools on how best to improve their teaching' (Republic of Kenya, 2005b:206).

The paper outlines the strategies that the government aims at using to enhance effective implementation of the curriculum. Through supervision, the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards aims:

at conducting subject based mastery improvement and pedagogical upgrading, monitoring school level curriculum delivery; determining existing discrepancies in instruction methodology, and areas that need attention. It will establish a formalized system of in-service training of teachers at all levels (Republic of Kenya, 2005b:213)

Issues raised in the sessional paper that have implications for supervision are:

- Quality of teacher training
- Core function of the directorate of quality assurance and standards
- Inadequate in-service training and,
- Constraints experienced by supervisors.

### **3.4 Conclusion**

The form and structure of the tradition African education had no room for supervisors; hence the idea of supervision is not fully entrenched in the tradition. This and the form in which supervision as inspection was introduced has to a great extent shaped and influenced supervision as practiced today in Kenya.

A meeting point is seen in both pre and post-independence commissions affirming the importance of supervision in improving quality of teaching and learning. However, its continued failure to achieve this is reflected in the fact that every

subsequent commission discusses it as a problem. Other areas that the two eras are in agreement on are in the need for improved supervision of curriculum implementation and the important role teachers play. However, confusion is seen in the foci of supervision as some advocate the evaluation of teachers, with others calling for support of teachers in mutual trusting relations. This confusion is depicted throughout the literature on instructional supervision.

## SECTION THREE

### CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

*He who maps the way never gets lost. (A Kikuyu saying).*

#### 4.0 Introduction

This study examines the existing policy and practice of instructional supervision in Kenya in a background of implementing a curriculum change. To achieve this, answers to the following research questions established at the beginning of the thesis but repeated here for convenience and reference were sought.

1. What is/are the existing policy/ policies guiding supervision in Kenya?
2. What supervisory functions are supervisors expected, according to existing policy to carry out?
3. What are the actual instructional supervisory functions carried out by the instructional supervisors as reported by supervisors, head teachers and teachers?
4. What are the head teachers' and teachers' expectations of supervisors?
5. What are the perceptions of supervisors, head teachers and teachers on the importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions?
6. What challenges are faced by supervisors and teachers in relation to supervision and implementation of curriculum change?

This section is considered a pivot point that connects the background of the study, research questions, findings, conclusions and recommendations. It is for this reason that a detailed account of the research process is discussed.

The section is divided into two. In chapter four the research methodology is discussed while chapter five focuses on the research design. At the end of chapter five, ethical issues and lessons learned in the field are discussed.



## 4.1 Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches

Research methodology refers to the approach researchers use to collect data which can be used as foundation for 'inferences and interpretation, for explanation and prediction' (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2004:76).

The two main approaches that are used in educational research are quantitative and qualitative which Gay and Airasian (2003:183) refer to as 'deductive and inductive approaches'. The choice of the methods used is based on several factors; however what seems to be emphasized in educational research is the approach's ability to answer the study's research questions. Tashakkori and Teddlie's (2003a) terming paradigm issues as secondary noted that getting answers to research questions is the most important. In the same line of thought is Vulliamy (1990) who sees the social process and context of research as more important than the stringent emphasis on methodological issues. Smeyers (2001:481) contends that in educational research, the uniqueness of each situation should be taken into account as it contributes to the understanding of 'its uniqueness as constituted by the perceptions and interpretations of the participants' and hence the need for a researcher to choose research methods that enable them to understand the research topic under study (Burns, 2000; Preston, 1997).

While acknowledging the existence of the philosophical arguments for and against the choice and use of the different research paradigms, the choice of research approaches in this study was mainly guided by practical considerations and the need to answer the research questions. The approaches are therefore seen as tools to help in the attainment of the main goal of the study, an argument that is also advanced by (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2005).

The other guiding factor was McNeil and Coppola's (2006:698) observation that research involving policy should endeavor to capture 'both official and unofficial positions'. Policy and practice are key variables in this study. Borrowing from McNeil and Coppola, several methods have been used to collect data. For instance, analysis of the policy documents gave the official position (Research questions one and two). On the other hand, questionnaires for zone supervisors, group interviews

with them and interviews with supervisors at the head office generated data that portrayed the official and unofficial positions on supervision of instruction (Research questions two, three, four and five). McNiel and Coppola (*ibid.*) also add that the voices of those affected by a policy should be included, hence the head teachers 'and teachers' voices are added through questionnaires and group interviews.

Related to the choice of the research approaches are the preface and epilogue. These two sections serve as self-reflection or reflexivity. Agreeing with Bryman (2004) that no research can be value free and that bias can occur at different stages of research process, reflexivity in the preface and epilogue helps the reader understand my background and orientation. On the other hand, detailed presentation of the research process helps in checking other possible sources of biases.

This study used both quantitative and qualitative approaches to data collection. This was in order to capitalize on the strengths of the two approaches while minimizing the weaknesses that would result from use of a one approach. The two approaches are discussed in the next section.

#### **4.1.1 Quantitative Approach**

Bryman (2004:62) looks at quantitative research as entailing the 'collection of numerical data'. It is also seen in the light of being deductive, the relationship between theory and research as in natural sciences that subscribe to the positivist approach to research. The underlying assumption in quantitative approaches as portrayed by Bryman (2004); Gay & Airasian (2003); Kerlinger & Lee (2000) is the assumption that the world is relatively stable, uniform and coherent. Thus it can be measured and presented in numerical data that can be generalised. Hence, the approach is mainly concerned with cause-effect relations of variables being studied and controls factors that could interfere with the data being collected. Quantitative researchers normally identify a hypothesis that they test using statistical methods to yield results that can be generalised to a wider population. This is because large samples are normally used for purposes of yielding statistical meaningful data (Burns, 2000; Gay & Airasian, 2003). The approach is also seen to emphasise on the

outcome rather than the process (Creswell, 2005) as portrayed by reports of statistical significance.

The main instruments for collecting quantitative data are questionnaires and observation checklists. In this study questionnaires were used to gather quantitative data (appendices 4B-D).

Using quantitative approaches is seen to have several strengths (Bryman, 2004; Cohen et al., 2004; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Vaus, 2004). These can be summarised to include the following:

- Researcher's influence or bias is usually minimised since there is little interaction between the researcher and participants.
- It is seen to be value free. This is because in a pure quantitative research, factual information rather than perceptions is sought.
- Relationships between variables (cause-effect) can be explained through what is measured. For instance the relationship between the level supervisors taught and their interpretation of primary level objectives can be explained and provides what Vaus (2004:5) calls 'hard evidence'.
- Hypotheses are tested scientifically; generalisation can be made to the wider population if the sample is carefully selected.

Several limitations are also associated with the use of the quantitative approach (Burns, 2000:9-10). These are:

- It fails to recognise the complexity of phenomena that are usually under study. In educational research, the issues under study usually involve human beings who can interpret and respond to issues in their own active way. This is unlike in the physical sciences where objects of study are usually inert. In this study, the number of times a supervisor visits the school cannot be interpreted to mean help to the teachers. This is because the relationship between the teachers and supervisors would influence whether the teacher gets help or not. The relationship cannot be explained in numerical terms or be assumed.
- It assumes uniformity, leading to the 'assumption that facts are true and the same for all people all the time' (p.10). It therefore fails to seek people's perceptions and views about the issue under study.

- The approach does not take into account the nature of human beings as capable of 'interpreting their experiences' (p.10) and attaching meaning. For example it would be a big assumption that teachers were prepared for the implementation of the revised curriculum because a certain number reported they attended in-service training courses. The quality of the course in the teachers' perspective needed to be explored.

#### **4.1.2 Qualitative Approach**

Qualitative approach is mainly concerned with the participants' perspectives of the topic under study. It therefore focuses on the process and verbal descriptions. In essence it seeks the insight of the topic under study rather than generalization (Babbie, 2005; Burns, 2000; Mertens, 2005; Tuckman, 1999). For this reason, the sample size is usually small, purposefully selected but based on the participants' knowledge of the topic. Qualitative approach often provides rich data about a real life situation and is able to make sense of behaviour and to understand behaviour in the context (Bryman, 2004; Creswell, 2005; Eisenthart, 2006; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Silverman, 2000). Hammersley (1996) describes the approach in terms of its use of words and images rather than numbers and in terms of the unstructured approach.

Several strengths and limitations of qualitative approach have been advanced by most authors quoted in this section, and Burns (2000: 12-14) seems to have best summarised the arguments for and against qualitative

Some of the strengths associated with the use of qualitative approach are:

- It can bring out unexpected and surprising information.
- There are usually no preconceived notions such as hypotheses. Qualitative research follows the natural occurrence of situations.
- Researcher gains an insider's view of the topic being discussed. By the researcher being there, they see and document the social interactions. Such interactions can reveal aspects and information that cannot be detected by quantitative measures due to their complex nature.
- It allows the researcher to see things in ways other than when they look on the surface by getting different perspectives and the underlying factors.

- The descriptive and narrative styles used in presenting and reporting qualitative data may be of particular benefit to the practitioner, leading to results of studies being used in action unlike the numeric presentations. For instance teachers would get interested in reading other teachers narratives of their experiences with supervisors.

Adding to Burns' summary, Eisenhart (2006:567) indicates that the qualitative approach is powerful as 'it evokes vivid images and recaptures remarkable events'; in addition it 'makes good stories'. This is attributed to use of quotes from the participants. In addition it offers insights about how people make sense of their lives.

Though popular with social scientists, the qualitative approach is criticised in various areas such as:

- Validity and reliability has been one area that the qualitative approach has been criticised for by those who look at it from the nature of validity and reliability in the quantitative approach (Bryman, 2004; Burns, 2000), since conventional methods of measuring validity and reliability cannot be applied. Qualitative researchers have developed their arguments against this accusation by offering alternatives to quantitative validity and reliability (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Hammersley, 1996; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). These alternatives are presented in section 4.3.5.

- Data collection and analysis take a lot of time. A researcher needs to spend considerable time in the research setting (Babbie, 2005; Burns, 2000).

- Researcher's presence may have an effect on the study subjects.

- The nature of presenting and reporting qualitative data may compromise anonymity (Corden & Sainsbury, 2006).

- It is criticised for lack of generalisation, being subjective in interpretation of research findings and being incapable of replication by subsequent researchers (Cohen et al., 2004).

#### **4.1.2.1 Similarities between Quantitative and Qualitative Approaches**

While discussed separately, both approaches are seen to be different; however there are some similarities that exist between them. These are captured well by Johnson &

Onwuegbuzie, (2004:375-379 and Onwuegbuzie & Leech, (2005) in their discussion on importance of combining the two approaches. They observed that both approaches:

- Use observations. Both describe their data, construct explanatory arguments from their data and speculate about why outcomes observed happened.
- Triangulate information gathered through using different methods.
- Provide explanations to the findings
- Select use of analytical techniques that are designed to obtain maximum meaning from the data.
- Interpret and explain the complex social phenomena.
- Verify and analyse data

From my observation and also highlighted in some cases by the authors cited, the differences are in the procedures followed in the two approaches. For instance though the two use observation, in quantitative approach, the observation is systematic while in qualitative it is unstructured and in most cases the researcher is a participant observer. It is probably these different ways of doing things that make the approaches look different rather than what one approach can do or cannot do. It is for this reason that I would agree with Burns (2000); Bryman (2004); Hakim (2000); Hamersley (1996) and Vulliamy (1990) that no single approach is capable of answering all questions; hence the guiding factor in the choice should be the best approach to answer the questions of the study.

It is clear that both approaches have inherent strengths and weaknesses. It is imperative then that no one method is capable of answering all the questions in a study. This is especially true given the nature of this study. It is for this reason that I chose to combine qualitative and quantitative approaches.

#### **4.1.3 Combined Approach**

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003b:11) define this approach as 'research in which more than one method or more than one worldview is used'. The use of the combined approach in this study was not about whether qualitative or quantitative was a better



approach. It was mainly driven by the desire to answer all questions in the study adequately.

The focus of this study is instructional supervision in a background of implementing change. Change is a complex social process. There was therefore need to seek data that would help understand teachers' and supervisors' perspectives. The understanding of the teachers' and supervisors' experience of supervision was as important as establishing the policy guiding practices. This is in agreement with Fullan's (1982) observation that people's experiences (practice) need to be understood as distinct from what was intended (policy intentions). It is for this reason that I used the quantitative and qualitative approach.

The idea was to draw the strength from each approach with the aim of answering the research questions fully. Burns (2000) argues that in reality researchers use both approaches and therefore it is up to the researcher to choose specific methods that enable them to answer the research questions. Gay and Airasian (2003) add that the combination should be done in a way that makes sense of the study.

The other reason that made the use of both approaches feasible is the fact that some questions were exploratory while others were confirmatory. As argued by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003b) using quantitative and qualitative approaches in such a situation is appropriate. To this end, in the questionnaires some factual responses were sought. In addition explanations, comments and suggestions were elicited. In the interviews and group interviews, clarifications and explanations were expounded. Further to this, some unexpected issues were brought out and explained.

Cultural orientation was another reason for choosing the combined approach. In the African culture, knowledge is passed through stories, proverbs and metaphors. Although we are dealing with the modern day knowledge that can be passed through written means, people are still influenced by the traditional way of passing knowledge. People are therefore more at ease talking, telling the story verbally than writing it down. This was noticed during the data collection using questionnaires. After filling the questionnaires, teachers and zone supervisors had many comments to make. These comments were relevant to the study. However, it was apparent that

they were not always included in the written responses. It was at that point that a decision was made to use group interview in addition to the questionnaires. Some of the metaphors and proverbs used by the respondents are quoted in the presentation and discussion of data in chapters six, seven and eight.

Looking at works that discuss the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches in combined form, why, how and when seem to be the main threads that revolve around the use of the combined approach. This is despite the use of different terminologies and explanations. The process and the rationale of the method also seem to be intertwined.

Several strategies and reasons that address the why, when and what of the use of the combined approach advanced by different authors are presented to illustrate how the use of the approach fits in the overall design of this study. These are

- Triangulation – use of quantitative data to corroborate qualitative data or vice versa. It can also be done by use of different methods to collect data or sources of data. It can be used within and across research approaches (Bryman, 2004; Hammersley, 1996; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In this study, triangulation was employed to corroborate information from the zone supervisors' questionnaires and records in the files in schools. Supervisors, head teachers, and teachers' report on some issues such as performance of supervisory functions was corroborated.

- Facilitation – one research strategy is used to aid research in using the other strategy, like using questionnaires to select a small sample for interview. In the same way, qualitative approach can be used to generate hypotheses for quantitative approach (Bryman, 2004; Creswell, 2003, 2005; Hammersley, 1996; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

- Complementary (filling gaps) – Sometimes use of one method may leave gaps or raise issue that may need elaboration, clarification or enhancement. For instance my use of focus group interview with teachers and supervisors helped clarify some issues that were raised in the questionnaires. The same applied with doing a documentary analysis of policy documents followed with interviews with supervisors at the national level. Creswell (2003) sees this approach in terms of



procedure and refers to it as sequential, a view also held by Bryman, (2004; Hammersley, (1996), Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, (2004) and Morgan, (1998).

- Quantitative research tends to portray people or situations as inert or what Bryman (2004:273) refers to as 'static picture' also described by Vaus (2004:15) as 'sterile and unimaginative though it provides hard evidence.' Qualitative views the world more as dynamic and takes into consideration the real life that people live. Combining the two creates a meeting point that may be acceptable to proponents of the two approaches (Bryman, 2004).

- A researcher may want to understand the issue under study from participants' perspective, hence use qualitative approach and also explore specific issues leading to use of quantitative approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004)

- For generality-qualitative research is often criticised for weakness in generalization. Combining quantitative and qualitative would improve generalization (Bryman, 2004).

- Qualitative research can be used to facilitate interpretation of quantitative findings (Creswell, 2003, 2005; Bryman, 2004). The differences in perception of importance of supervisory functions and the frequency of performance (quantitative) can be explained by finding out through face to face interviews and group discussions (qualitative) supervisors' interpretation of the policy on supervision.

- Quantitative and qualitative approaches may be suited and used in different phases of a study or examine different aspects (Bryman, 2004; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

- Solving a puzzle or what Johnson & Onwuegbuzie call 'paradoxes and contradictions' (2004:463). When unexpected and surprising results that cannot be explained occur a researcher may employ different approaches to try and get an explanation.

Looking at the different approaches that are commonly use in social and educational research, an answer to the three concerns seems to be addressed. These are why (reasons for the combination that have been addressed above), when (stage at which the combination is done) and what was combined, in this case the process and the content. I would like to add 'who'. The consumers of the findings of this study are varied. The study addresses a real need or situation. Apart from the academic

community, the finding of this study are bound to draw the interest of policy makers in the Ministry of Education in Kenya, supervisors at the national level, curriculum developers, teacher trainers and teachers. By using a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches, the interests of the different consumers are likely to be addressed. For instance the policy makers are likely to be interested in numerical facts while supervisors may draw more from the text explanations rather than figures. Gorard and Taylor (2004:7) advocating for the use of combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches argue that 'figures can be persuasive to policy makers whereas stories are more easily remembered and repeated for illustrative purposes' thus making a greater impact.

Creswell, Clark, Guttman and Hansom (2003) suggest that the combination of quantitative and qualitative can either be simultaneous or sequential. They identified points at which the integration can be done. These are at the point of formulation of research questions, data collection methods, at the analysis and interpretation levels. In this study, combination was done at all the four levels suggested by Creswell, et al. To start with, the research questions (see section 1.2 and 4.0 above) were formulated to elicit both qualitative and quantitative data. Data were collected using different instruments that are associated with qualitative and quantitative approaches. These were questionnaire which had both closed and open questions, semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews and document analysis. The combination was therefore done at the instrument construction stage as well as administration stage.

The next level of combination was at the analysis stage. Some responses from the open ended questions in the questionnaires were analysed and simple descriptive statistics derived. The third combination was at the report writing stage. In reporting the findings, any statistical data presented are followed by quotes or suggestions from the interview and the group interviews data. This helps to add the voice of the participants in addition to the numbers. In absence of the 'voice', I felt it was almost impossible to have the 'feel of the data'. The data from the two approaches is therefore used either to clarify, explain, support or show divergence in the issues under study.

## 4.2 Research Methods

Research methods are defined as techniques used for collecting data (Bryman, 2004). Questionnaires, interviews, observations, tests, documentary analysis, focus groups interviews are some the methods that have been widely used by educational researchers (Bloor, Frankland, Thomas, & Robson, 2002; Brewerton & Millward, 2001; Patton, 2002; Punch, 2000). These methods can be used individually or in combination depending on the objectives of the study. Cohen et al. (2004) further clarify that the decision on the instrument is determined by the research design undertaken.

This study used self administered questionnaires and semi structured face to face interviews, focus group interviews and documentary analysis. Questionnaires and interviews allow the researcher to gather data directly from the participants and gain access to the information, attitudes and knowledge that respondents have on the issue under study (Burns, 2000; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Tuckman, 1999).

In the use of questionnaire and interviews the researcher assumes that the participants will cooperate and give truthful information (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). This raises the issue of reliability and validity of data gathered using these methods since it depends on the honesty of the respondents (Mertens, 2005). These attributes of the questionnaires and the interviews are discussed in details in 4.2.1 and 4.2.2.

Though the questionnaire and interview have their limitations, some information can only be obtained by asking (Tuckman, 1999). Information on perceptions and expectations being sought in this study can best be obtained by asking and hence the choice of questionnaires and interviews. When a researcher personally administers the questionnaires or interviews to the respondents, it raises the response rate in the questions and that of questionnaires. This is because the researcher is able to establish rapport and trust with the respondents (Gay and Airasian, 2003). This can also go along way in increasing drawing truthful responses since the confidentiality of the information they provide is assured by the researcher (Burns, 2000). The researcher is also able to explain the purpose of the research and how it could benefit the respondents, hence motivating them to respond. However the presence of the

researcher may also create an influence although it can be minimised through self-reflection by the researcher.

Compared to other methods of collecting data, questionnaires require less time and money and can be used to get data from a big number of respondents (Gay & Airasian, 2003). In this study, resources in terms of time, finances and personnel were limited making a questionnaire an ideal instrument for collecting data from the head teachers and teachers who formed the bulk of respondents in this study, and zone supervisors who were few but spread through out the district.

An interview gives an opportunity to probe for details therefore gathering in-depth data that would not be possible to get by use of a questionnaire however open it may be (Mertens, 2005). Though expensive in terms of time and resources required, the six supervisors interviewed at the Ministry's head office were all in one location making it cheaper and also more accessible while at the district level only the supervisor in charge of primary education was interviewed. For further discussion of the sample and population, see sections 5.1-5.4)

#### **4.2.1 Questionnaires**

Questionnaires can be either structured, unstructured or semi structured. The fully structured questionnaires have closed questions that limit the responded answers (Verma & Mallick, 1999). One advantage of the structured questionnaires is generating responses that can be subjected to statistical treatment (Cohen et al., 2004). The responses are also easy to compare (Bryman 2004) since there are little variations in answering.

This kind of questionnaire is also easy to respond to since the respondents do not have to write a lot of text (Fowler, 2002; Wisker, 2001), a factor that is likely to increase the return rate. However, the structured questionnaire limits the responses that a participant can give. This is true especially if the categories provided are not exhaustive (Cohen et al., 2004). There is also the possibility of disappointing respondents if none of the categories provided are suitable. This can affect the way they respond to other questions. The structured questionnaires are however ideal where only factual information is sought

One form of closed questions that was employed was the use of scale items. Rating scales have a set of responses where answers are ordered either from the highest to the lowest or vice versa Vaus (2004). The statements of preference according to Gay and Airasian (2003) are assumed to be able to determine what the respondent's opinions, beliefs, attitudes or perceptions of a given situation or phenomena.

There are four main types of rating scales (Procter , 2001; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Opie, 2004). These are Likert scales, semantic differential scales, Thurstone scales and Guttman scaling. According to Cohen et al. (2004) the most commonly used rating scales in educational research are the Likert and semantic differential. A semantic differential scale places two words that describe opposite situations or meanings at each end of the scale. A respondent chooses on the scale the number that best represents their opinion the issue at hand.

In this study, Likert scale was used to determine supervisors', head teachers' and teachers' perceptions of the importance and frequency of performance of stated supervisory functions. One advantage of using rating scales is the ability to combine 'measurements with opinions, quantity and quality' (Cohen et al., 2004: 253), a factor that was favourable for this study since numbers are just as important as the perceptions of respondents regarding importance and performance of supervisory functions. The other reason is the fact that the findings of this study are meant to address policy issues where numbers and opinions would play a part convincing the policy makers of the importance of focusing on some of the issues raised. For example if a majority of the teachers indicated meeting with a supervisor was very important while they also indicate that it is rarely or never performed is a strong indicator of a gap that needs attention. The big numbers may have an impact on the attention given to the particular issue.

Other advantages are, its responsiveness to the respondents compared to dichotomous questions that give only two categories (Gay & Airasian 2003). The structure of the scale also makes data entry easier for analysis using computer packages like SPSS.

Although widely used, caution is given on the limitations of rating scales. These are:

- Intervals between two categories are not necessarily equal. (Cohen et al., 2004:254).
- Like other closed questions, it limits the respondents' answers (Gay & Airasian, 2003).
- Many respondents tend to avoid the extreme ends of the scale, a situation that might not represent their true opinion (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

The opposite is the unstructured questionnaire which consists of open questions that allow the respondent to answer the questions in their own words and without limitations, therefore explaining and clarifying answers (Creswell, 2005; Gall et al., 1996; Verma & Mallick, 1999). As a result, unexpected responses can be generated that would serve to enrich the data. This can be useful especially in generating responses for closed questions during piloting (Bryman, 2004). While open questions are an advantage when a researcher is exploring and trying to understand a phenomenon, the data generated may be difficult to code and analyze. They are also time consuming and require more from the respondent compared to the closed questions (Babbie, 2005; Bryman, 2004; Burns, 2000; Tuckman, 1999). The method can work well when the sample is small.

The semi-structured questionnaire in this study combines the characteristics of both the structured and the unstructured questionnaire (Creswell, 2005). This allows respondents to express their views in their own words in the open questions while closed questions captured factual responses.

Questionnaires can also be classified according to the method used to administer them.

They can be mailed to the respondents (Creswell, 2005; Bryman, 2004) but mailing questionnaires is known to have very low return rates (Verma & Mallick 1999). Use of internet can also be made to get questionnaires to the appropriate respondents although this is only practical where the facilities exist. The other way of getting questionnaires to the respondents is by delivering them to the respondents.

Postal infrastructure in Kenya is not well developed especially in the rural areas neither is the use of internet as an alternative method of communication. The only

mode of delivery that was to ensure the questionnaires got to the right respondents and in good time was to deliver them personally to the schools. This was expensive in terms of time and finances and especially where the road network is poor but it was the only possible way of getting the questionnaire to schools.

In general, the following are the strengths and limitations associated with use of questionnaires as advanced by Babbie, (2005; Burns, (2000); Creswell, (2005); Fowler, (2002); Gay & Airasian (2003); Tashakkori & Teddlie, (2003b); Vaus, (2004):

- They are considered cheaper to administer. They are therefore useful when a large sample is needed.
- The data collected is free from influence of researchers as all respondents receive questions asked in the same way since there are no probes or emphasis.
- Respondents answer questions at their own time.
- Respondents can write things that they would not normally talk about for instance in an interview.
- More confidentiality can be assured with questionnaires. In most cases even the researcher cannot identify the respondents. They are therefore likely to elicit more honest and truthful answers.

#### Limitations

- Response rates can be low especially if mailing is used as a method of delivery.
- Since there is no probing, answers that are not clear cannot be clarified.
- If items are not clear or considered difficult, respondents are likely not to answer them. This results in missing data that might affect the reliability of the results. Non responses may create bias in the study.
- Respondents can read the questions in any order making them less independent of each other.
- Researchers can never be sure that a questionnaire was answered by the respondent it was meant for.
- Non-verbal communication and the state of the environment, the kind of data that can only be gathered by the researcher having contact with the participants, is lost. In this study, if the questionnaire had been posted, state of offices for the

supervisor would have been missed, so were the useful insights given by head teachers and recorded as field notes.

- If there are questions or instructions that are not clear, there would be nobody to explain them. Hence the need to make the questions and instructions as clear as possible. The questionnaire should also be short to encourage the respondents to answer all questions.

Despite these limitations, questionnaires are still widely used in social and educational research as they facilitate collecting data from many respondents and diverse respondents a characteristic that is common in many educational studies. This makes questionnaires the most economical method of collecting data in such a situation

#### **4.2.1.1 Construction of the Questionnaire**

Three questionnaires were used in this study. There was a questionnaire for zone supervisors, head teachers and teachers. The content in the questionnaires was mainly drawn from literature and relevant documents from the Ministry of Education in Kenya.

While the use a questionnaire that is tested and used by other researchers may have been ideal (Bryman, 2004), it was difficulty to get a relevant questionnaire that combined the variables such as supervision policy in intention and in practice, teachers' and head teachers' perceptions and in addition some aspects of implementing change. The construction of this questionnaire is considered a contribution to the growing field of instructional supervision.

The three questionnaires used had both closed and open items.

Although, Fowler (2000:262) points out, 'open ended items in self administered questionnaires do not always provide useful data', some information for the study could only best be captured in open ended questions. For instances, reasons underlying some of the issues in closed items.



The questionnaires were divided into sections. The first part was a cover letter that introduced the researcher, explained the purpose of the study, role of the participants and instructions. It also served to assure the respondents of confidentiality and anonymity.

The second part constituted questions seeking information on policy and curriculum while the third sought perceptions of the importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions carried while the fourth part was on head teachers' and teachers' expectations, challenges and suggestions for improvement.

The fifth section sought responses on the background information of the respondent. Variables such as teaching experience, administrative experience for head teachers, academic and professional qualifications, and subject taught were solicited. Questions seeking the personal data were asked last on purpose (see appendices 4B-4D). The conventional format is to have the personal data first since it is considered unthreatening as urged by Cohen et al., (2004). However for purposes of this study, the assumption was by the time respondents reach the last part, they will have developed confidence and would be willing to give personal information. In the conclusion, the respondents were thanked and reassured of confidentiality of the information they have provided.

This kind of arrangement made the questionnaires logical and was also a way of making it easy for the respondents give their answers thus minimizing non-responses as suggested by Verma & Mallick, (1999).

#### **4.2.1.2 Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaires.**

Validity is described as the ability of the instruments being used to help the researcher draw meaningful and justifiable conclusions about a sample or population from the data collected (Bryman, 2004; Creswell, 2005; Patton, 2000). The American Psychological Association (APA) (2000) guide to their test users emphasises that validity should be looked at in terms of the application, meaning and use of the inferences made from the test scores. This position is shared by National Council of

Measurements in Education (NCME) and American Educational Researchers Association (AERA) in their joint publication, *The standards for measurements and psychological testing* (1993).

An instrument that measures what it is supposed to measure, can be shown to identify factors that a researcher can use to infer causal relationships among variables, generate research results that can be generalized beyond the research sample and measure the true conditions, opinions and values of the participant can be said to be valid (Brewerton & Millward, 2001; Bryman, 2004; Patton, 2000). Although important, it is difficult to achieve full validity given the many factors that can affect the research process. For instance even the administering an instrument in itself can have an effect on the participants.

There are different types of validity as pointed out by (Creswell, 2005; Gay & Airasian, 2003; Punch, 2000). These are content related, criterion, predictive and construct related. However for purposes of this study, content validity was found to be more relevant and is therefore be discussed. This is because the main aim of the study was to establish the situation as it existed. It was therefore important to get the content right in order to lay a foundation for other researchers who may want to do further research in the area or use variables used in the study.

Content validity is the question of whether the items in the questionnaire are measuring the intended content area (Creswell, 2005, 2003). In order for an instrument to achieve this, as Punch (2000) explains, areas of content being tested should be covered.

To establish the content validity of the questionnaires, expert review was used as proposed by Burns, (2000) and Mertens, (2005). The questionnaires were presented in a postgraduate seminar. The views expressed by the participants were taken into consideration and the questionnaires revised. Expert review sought from the two supervisors who guided this study and another member of academic staff of Durham University School of Education. Their views were considered and the questionnaires revised accordingly. An academic member of staff of Kenyatta University in Kenya who is an authority in the area of instructional supervision and is conversant with

instructional supervision in the Kenyan context was consulted. This was done in order to check the relevance of the questions to the Kenyan situation. Valuable insights were given that helped to make the questionnaire suitable. These steps helped in validating the questionnaires.

Reliability on the other hand is described as the stability of the instrument drawing the same or near equal results when administered to the same sample or closely matched sample Creswell (2005) or when scored by different people and the results are the same or near enough (Crowl, 1996). If an instrument achieves this it is reliable, and the results from such research would exhibit quality that can be documented, evaluated and believed and hence confidence in the decisions made based on the data, (Cohen et al, 2004).

Reliability in research can be affected by several factors. Some of the factors that have been identified according to APA (2000), Burns (2000) and Tuckman (1999) are:

- The nature of the test (what is being tested, its length, and the number of items in the test).
- The person being tested, their skills and experiences, emotional state.
- Physical conditions or environment for instance in a school, an instrument filled in the staffroom with other members of staff present may be different from when it is taken in an office. Similarly a teacher responding to an instrument in the head teachers' or deputy head teachers' office may yield different results from an instrument filled in a different environment. Similarly, a noisy environment would be distracting as compared to a quiet one.
- The person administering the instrument and the general administration process. If for example the instruments in this study were administered by the zone supervisors as they had offered to do, I presume the results would have been different from what I got when I administered myself. Most probably the teachers would not have written information they considered unfavourable to the supervisors.
- The consistency of scoring and/or interpreting the data (Babie, 2005).

There are several methods used to determine the reliability of an instrument. The commonly used ones are:

- Test-retest- where an instrument is administered to the same group twice. If an instrument is reliable individuals taking the test are supposed to score the same or similar scores in the second test as they did the first one. The crucial factor in test-retest is the timing as too short a time will mean participants can remember the answers they wrote while too long time may also affect. There is also the inconvenience of gathering the same group to take the same test (Black, 1999; Cohen et al 2004; Crowls, 1996; Robson, 2002).

- Split half test where the items in one test are divided into two groups. The scores generated are reflected as if they are from two separate tests and compared; the results should be similar for each test taker in each half when correlated (Crowls, 1996). A different method of determining reliability is calculating the reliability coefficient. Two commonly used measures of internal reliability are Kuder & Richardson formula (21) and Cronbach's coefficient alpha (Black, 1999; Burns, 2000; Crowl, 1996; Kerlinger, 2000).

- Use of equivalent or alternative tests that consists of different items but measuring the same things (Burns, 2000). According to Crowl (1996) the challenge when using this method is to ensure that the two tests are measuring exactly the same thing.

In this study, the reliability of the different items in the three questionnaires was established by use of Cronbach's coefficient alpha calculated using SPSS. It is suitable for items that don't have right or wrong answers such as in a Likert scale (Black, 1990; Cortina, 1993; Crowl, 1996; Procter, 2001). According to Black (1999:279) 'it takes into account both the number of questions and the average correlation among questions on a test'. The coefficient alpha ranges from 0 meaning no reliability to 1 which shows perfect reliability (Hoyle et al, 2002). However, the critical cut off point is different for different tests. It is widely acknowledged that people's attitudes are difficult to measure (Black, 1999, Crowl, 1996 and Procter, 2001), hence 'acceptable reliability coefficient for measures for attitude tests may be low' (Crowl 1996: 109). The cut off point for the questions that were tested was set at .70 since most questions were measuring people perceptions of the importance and frequency of performance of instructional supervisory functions.

The results derived for the different instruments are presented in the Tables below.

Table 4.1: Head teachers' Questionnaire (Alpha Coefficient)

Variables	Number of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Importance of supervisory functions	12	0.91
Importance of supervisory visits	11	0.87
Frequency of supervisory functions	12	0.92
Frequency of supervisory visits	11	0.88
Use of supervisory data	6	0.81
Supervisory skills	4	0.77

Table 4.2: Teachers' Questionnaire (Alpha Coefficient)

Variables	Number of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Importance of supervisory functions	11	0.89
Importance of supervisory visits	11	0.90
Frequency of supervisory functions	11	0.89
Frequency of supervisory visits	11	0.95
Use of supervisory data	5	0.88
Supervisory skills	3	0.79

Table 4.3 : Zone Supervisors' Questionnaire (Alpha Coefficient)

Variables	Number of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Importance of supervisory functions	13	0.95
Importance of supervisory visits	11	0.79
Frequency of supervisory functions	13	0.91
Frequency of supervisory visits	11	0.89

From the results on Tables 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3, the three questionnaires can be said to be reliable. However the level of reliability varies as shown by the varied Alpha coefficients.

Other guidelines of establishing validity and reliability in a study are outlined by Creswell (2003:158). These include:

- attaching the instruments used so that readers can see and verify the actual items used. (See appendices 4B-D)
- Explaining the actual content in all sections of the instruments. (See 4.3.1.1)
- Carrying out a pilot test and detailing the process followed. (See 4.8.1)
- Reporting the response rate of questionnaires (see 6.1).

#### 4.2.2 Interviews

The other method widely used in educational research and used in this study is the interview. Interviews can be administered face to face or through telephone. For

purpose of this study, face to face interviews were used since the telephone infrastructure is not well developed. Even when telephones are available like in the Ministry of Education where the interviews with supervisors were conducted, the cost is prohibitive. It is rarely used in Kenya and therefore was unlikely to yield meaningful data.

Interviews, according to Punch (2000) and Wisker (2001) are an ideal way of seeking people's perceptions, and when looking for information based on insiders. Interviews when well conducted can produce in-depth data that may not be possible with questionnaires (Gay & Airasian, 2003). This is mainly made possible by the use of probes and prompts on issues raised by the participant (Cohen et al, 2004). In addition through probes, Berends (2006) explains that elaborating and clarifying questions makes it possible to get more information from the respondents.

Use of probes in this study was useful when interviewing supervisors at the national office. They assumed that since I worked at the KIE a department of the Ministry, then I understood the issues being discussed. They therefore tended to give information that lacked depth. I had to probe to get the in-depth information.

Interviews have the advantage of gathering non-verbal data (Creswell, 2005; Bryman, 2004). This form of data is important as it can be an indication of what the respondent feels about the issue being discussed. It can also be an expression of doubt or honesty in the information they are providing. Sometimes what the participant says is different from the body language, this creates a situation for the researcher to make enquiries aimed at explaining the discrepancy. More often than not, this reveals important information for the study.

Other advantages, associated with interview according to Berends (2006); Burns (2000); Creswell (2005) and Gall, et al., (1996) that were pertinent in this study were:

- Ability to observe the total situation of the respondents. When the supervisors indicated they were short of office space or offices were in poor condition, it was easy to verify this information by observing their offices where the interviews were held.

- Face to face interview enables the research to establish rapport with the respondents a fact that may be motivating to the respondents. This may not only increase the response rates to questions but also the information provided by the respondents.

Berends (2006) raises an advantage of using interviews that I find very pertinent. This is to do with confirmation that the person who responds is the one who was targeted. This verification cannot be done when using questionnaires.

Though useful in data collection, interviews have certain limitations (Bryman, 2004; Burns, 2000; Cohen et al., 2004; Creswell 2005; Gay & Airasian, 2003). These are:

- They are costly in terms of time taken doing the interview and transcribing. More resources are also needed since each respondent has to be reached individually. Scheduling interviews with supervisors in this study was problematic. More time was used trying to get appointments than the interview time. Many were also the times that appointments were not honoured.

- The presence of the interviewer may affect the way questions are answered. This might lead to the respondent giving information they think the researcher should know. The very person of the researcher such as their position in the society, education, race, age or sex may influence the respondents resulting to bias, hence raising the question of validity and reliability. Expounding on this Payne and Payne (2004), observe that the researcher's personal appearance, facial expression, tone of voice may misdirect the informant.

- Data provided from the interview can be 'filtered' by the researcher during recording and analysis. Similarly, the assumption that people attach single meaning to their experiences may be deceptive (Silverman, 2000). However, this can be counteracted by triangulation by instruments.

- Recording the interview may be problematic, handling equipment and paying attention to the respondent. In cases where respondents decline to be tape recorded as happened in this study, the interviewer may miss important non-verbal communication (Creswell, 2005). The fact that the respondent is being recorded may

also interfere with the flow of conversation and the information that the respondent gives. In most cases it may provide information of what may be considered socially acceptable (Cohen et al, 2004).

- Relationships created between the researcher and respondent can make exiting after the interview difficult. Such a situation may require more than just the research skills as wrong exit may affect other researchers collecting data from the same respondents (Burns, 2000). Hence the need to observe ethical procedures that support responsibility to the research community (see 5.8).

According to Brewerton & Millward (2001); Bryman (2004); Creswell (2005); Fontana & Frey (2000); Patton (2002) and Punch (2002) interviews are either structured, semi structured or unstructured. Like questionnaires, structured interviews have closed questions that guide responses. They are easy to analyze since the responses can be quantified and takes a shorter time to administer. However, it leaves no room for an interviewer to seek deeper meaning since there is no probing (Arksey & Knight, 1999; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Patton, 2002). This is a main criticism of structured interviews as the restriction on it goes against the very purpose that interviews are held.

On the other hand, unstructured interviews are non-directive and follow a natural kind of conversation (Verma & Mallick, 1999). The interviewer uses broad topics to explore the issue being studied. The respondents rather than the interviewer usually direct the way the interview flows (Arksey & Knight, 1999). As a result, unexpected information may be brought up making the data richer. However, information collected from different respondents may be diverse making it difficult to analyse and compare.

Semi-structured interviews combine the characteristics of the structured and unstructured interviews (Opie, 2004). This means that the interview can be directed without necessarily limiting the respondents. Semi-structured interviews have a set of questions guided by an interview schedule (Brewerton & Millward, 2001). The schedule guides the interviewer to ask the same questions to all the respondents and guards against the interview going out of the study objectives (Verma & Mallick,



2000). Semi-structured interviews leave room for divergence and probing (Patton, 2002). The interviewer is able to follow-up answers given by respondents to explore meanings as areas of interest emerge (Arksey & Knight, 1999). The information drawn from the semi-structured interview can be quantified (Brewerton & Millward, 2001). This makes it easy to analyse and compare with responses from other respondents.

Semi-structured interviews were used to elicit information from supervisors at the Ministry of Education head and district offices. The guiding questions were prepared and structured in themes in relation to the research questions. This was done in order to make it easy to relate the results from the different respondents and also from other instruments.

#### **4.2.3 Focus Group Interviews**

The use of focus group interviews is defined by Creswell (2005) as a process of collecting by interviewing a group rather than an individual while Fontana and Frey (2000:651) define focus group interviews as 'systematic questioning of several individuals simultaneously'. Expounding further and calling it interaction with a group to bring out data, Cohen et al, (2004) emphasize that the group is specially chosen to discuss the issue being examined in the study, a position that is taken by (Morgan, (1998). Differentiating focus groups from other groups, Hyden and Bülow (2003:306) specify that:

Focus groups are distinguished from other kinds of groups by the primary purpose of the research, the procedure producing interactive at and that groups are gathered as a focus group.

In a focus group interview, the researcher asks questions and moderates the group to ensure that all individuals in the group are given a chance to express their views at the same time keeping the focus of the discussion (Creswell, 2005; Hyden & Bülow, 2003; Morgan, 1998, Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003b). Through the group interaction, perceptions and experiences in the topic of discussion are captured. This according to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003:309b) can be 'exploratory' or can be used by a researcher to 'better understand and interpret information and findings resulting from earlier use of other data collection methods'. They can also be used to gather information that can be used to develop topics and themes for other instruments.

Hypotheses for a study can also be formulated from data collected through focus group discussions (Cohen et al, 2004).

Like face to face interviews, focus interviews can either be structured or unstructured. In a structured focus group, 'the moderator takes an active role in controlling not only the topics but also the group dynamics' (Hyden & Bülow 2003:307). When unstructured, the participants direct the discussion while the moderator takes a less prominent role or what Hyden and Bülow call 'marking distance' (ibid:302).

In this study, two group interviews were held, one with teachers and the other with zone supervisors. Clarifications and explanations were sought on some issues raised in the questionnaires giving a deeper insight. Both group interviews were semi-structured.

The composition of the group depends on the nature of the topic being discussed and the purpose. There seems to be a variation on the best number of participants in a group as demonstrated in the example below.

- Babbie (2005:316) 12 – 15,
- Bloor et al, (2001:26) 6 -8,
- Hakim (2000:35) 4 – 12,
- Morgan (1998) 6 – 10,
- Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003:297b) 6 – 12
- Creswell (2005:215) 4 – 6.

The number of participants is important in terms of group dynamics. Too small a number can exhaust the participants and views generated in a small group could also be limited (Cohen et al, 2004). On the other hand too large a group may be difficult to keep focused on the topic (Bloor, et al 2001). Both situations can affect the validity and reliability of the data or their authenticity and credibility to be discussed below in section 4.2.5. The nature of the topic and purpose are a good pointer of the number of the participants that could provide the data needed. Bloor et al. suggest that 'the size of the group may be decided by logistic issues' (p.26). They further give examples of some researchers who have successively used a variation of

number of participants thus validating that the aim of the study, the nature of data needed and the kind of participants are good guides of the ideal number a researchers should use in a study (Hyden and Bulow, 2003).

Use of focus groups interviews as a technique for data collection is credited with several strengths and limitations. The following are the strength and weaknesses associated with use of focus group interviews as a data collection technique according to Bloor et al, (2001; Cohen et al., (2004), Creswell, (2005) Fontana & Frey, (2000) and Hyden & Bulow, (2003).

Strengths:

- They are useful when time to collect data is limited
- If individuals are reluctant to give data due to the nature of the topic; participation in a group may motivate.
  - Brings together people with varied views, when they agree or disagree and debate about issues, new perspectives of the topic can be generated.
- The focus nature brings out deep insight of issues
- It is relatively inexpensive and produces rich data.

Limitations:

- Recording data from a group is problematic. This is because a lot takes place at the same time. Non-verbal communication is easily missed in a group interviews.
  - It may not be clear when the participants talk as individuals or as members of the group. Hyden and Bülow (2003) suggest this is problematic in analysis and interpretation of the data and drawing conclusions. This can be addressed at the data collection stage if the moderator allows participants to discuss and come to an agreement and conclusion of the issue being discussed. If participants hold very diverse views and cannot agree it may also be problematic to the researcher depending on the nature of the topic and purpose of the research.
- Analysing and interpreting data generated from a group is difficulty. Even when tape recorded, it may be difficulty to identify the voices of individual participants.

- Identifying and bringing individuals who have knowledge and interest in the topic of discussion may not be very easy depending on the topic.

- If not well moderated an individual can dominate a group.

Groups are known to be most productive when individuals are cooperative with each other a factor that promotes interaction. This was the strength in the two groups that were used in this study.

#### **4.2.4 Content Analysis**

Content analysis is defined as an 'approach to the analysis of documents and texts' (Bryman, 2004:181). He further clarifies that content analysis is not a research method of collecting data since it is an 'approach to analysis of documents and texts rather than a means of generating data'. It is however according to Bryman 'treated as a research method because of its distinctive approach to analysis' (ibid.).

In this study, document analysis is treated as an approach to analyse documents as well as a research method. As part of literature reviewed, several reports of commissions and committees set up by the government as well as official reports from the Ministry of Education were analysed. As a data collection method, content analysis was used to analyse policy documents. This was done in order to generate data to answer questions on existing policy on supervision (research question one), the functions supervisors are expected to perform per policy (research question two). Harber (1997a) writing on use of documents for qualitative research in the African context, argues that documents can be useful in clarifying issues that may be ambiguous. I am in agreement with him as there are some issues that can only be explained by analyzing the relevant documents. For instance the actual role of the supervisors may be ambiguous when based on the functions that they are seen to perform, however analysis of policy documents can help clarify their role.

According to Creswell (2005, 2003) and Harber (1997a) a researcher can analyse documents such as minutes of meeting, newspapers, personal journals, diaries, letters or emails discussions, school textbooks in case of educational research, Tuckman (1999) adds reports such as autobiographies and depositions to the list of documents that can be analysed while Robson (2002) includes written curricula, timetables,

notices and course outlines. Hodder (2000:703) goes further and distinguishes between documents and records. Records are said to be for 'official use', like government reports while documents are 'prepared for personal use'.

Content analysis is seen as advantageous as the documents that are analysed do not need transcribing, there is no obstruction as the researchers can access the documents to be analysed at their own convenience, and in addition, the private documents are usually in the language of the participants (Creswell, 2003). Adding to the advantages of using content analysis, Bryman (2004) identifies transparency since steps used can be verified allowing for replication, and flexibility as it can be used on a variety of documents and its use in longitudinal studies. Adding to the merits of analyzing documents Harber (1997a:114) sees them as convenient to use since they can be analysed at the researcher's own time, provide data that cannot be observed and 'portrays what the general 'feel' of people on the phenomenon is' (ibid). In addition, they can be used to verify and triangulate data generated using other instruments (ibid). Despite these advantages, content analysis has limitations. Some of the limitations identified by Creswell (2005:219) are:

- The quality of the data is determined by what the documents contains.
- Clarifications cannot be made exposing the content to misinterpretation.

Although in some instances, a researcher may verify using other methods such as interviews or observations.

- Some documents can be difficult to obtain. This Harber (1997a) argues can be as a result of bureaucratic processes in the African context. Working in a department of the Ministry of Education was advantageous as I could access most of the documents I needed. Accessing government reports and files may be difficulty for an outsider.

- The accuracy of information in the documents may not be confirmed
- Analysing hand written documents can be tedious as some hand writings are difficulty. This was a problem that I experienced when analysing the supervision files in schools as some of the reports were hand written.

Although content analysis has the stated limitations, there are data that can only be generated through analysing relevant documents making it an important in social research. Contending, Harber (1997a) argues that due to the rich insight that

documentary analysis gives, it can be used to generate data in addition to being used in the literature review chapter. Documents in this study were used in analysis of related literature when appropriate like in the historical analysis of supervision in Kenya and to generate data on policy expectations.

#### **4.2.5 Alternatives to Validity and Reliability**

Validity and reliability in qualitative approach has been and continues to be a debate among social researchers. Several researchers have responded to this challenge by developing ground rules that act as alternatives to validity and reliability in qualitative research.

Validity and reliability of interviews has been discussed in terms of trustworthiness, consistency, true value, transferability and neutrality (Arksey & Knight, 1999; Burns, 2000; Lincoln & Guba; 1985, 2000; Mertens, 2005; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Rudestam & Newton, 2001). These aspects that are equivalents of validity and reliability in quantitative research are discussed in the next section..

##### **4.2.5.1. Credibility /Authenticity / Internal Validity**

Credibility attributed to the authenticity of the study according to Miles and Huberman (1994) reflects the extent the study shows true value and has meaning to the people who provided the information and the people who might use the report. It establishes the confidence of the findings hence the internal validity and applicability or what they refer to as 'intelligent action' (ibid: 280). Eisenhart (2006) looks at this in terms of trustworthiness of the study while Maxwell (2002) defines it in terms of the interpretation of what is being studied by the researcher and the participants. They both agree that credibility can be achieved by the researcher demonstrating they indeed carried out the research or what Eisenhart (2006:573) calls 'having been there'. This according to Maxwell (2002) can be done by giving a detailed account or description of the research process. Eisenhart (2006:567) further suggests that use of 'concepts from the literature, excerpts from field notes (...) quotes from interviews' can increase credibility and authenticity of a study. In the same light, Erickson (1986)

refers to it as natural history which the researcher goes through during the research process.

Looking at the same issue; but from a different perspective Lincoln and Guba (1985) focus on whether the areas that could distort the study have been identified and discussed, therefore making the results dependable.

#### **4.2.5.2 Neutrality / Confirmability**

This is expressed by Miles & Huberman (1994); Lincoln & Guba (1985); Mertens, (2005) as the degree to which the information gathered is free from the researcher's values, biases and assumptions. This is seen in terms of how objective the information is and whether it is confirmable. Eisenhart (2006) refers to it as descriptive validity meaning the accuracy from the point of view of the researcher and participants. Maxwell (2002:4) rightfully argues that 'we cannot step aside from our own experiences to obtain some observer-independent account of what we experience' hence the need to establish neutrality and credibility. This according to Eisenhart, (2006:577) can be established by the deconstruction which can be achieved by the researcher being 'self-reflective' and 'analysing their own background and agenda'. In addition Vulliamy (1990) point out that personal account in a study makes it more realistic and enjoyable to read. Similarly, Miles and Huberman (1994:278) indicate credibility of a study can be achieved by giving a detailed description of the research process or what they refer to as 'audit trail' for anybody wishing to trace and confirm how the study was carried out.

#### **4.2.5.3 Transferability / External Validity**

Whether the results of the study can be transferred to other situations is important. In particular, this study is being conducted in one district in Kenya with the aim of portraying what may be happening in other districts in Kenya. Transferability of research findings can be affected by several factors related to the procedures followed (Bryman, 2004; Creswell, 2005; Mertens, 2005). It is for this reason that

Lincoln and Guba (1985:316) advise that the procedures followed must be described in details, what is referred to as 'thick description'. When this is done, it allows anybody who would want to transfer the finding a chance to understand the context in which the study was done.

#### **4.2.5.4 Reliability / Dependability / Auditability.**

This has to do with the consistency of the finding and the extent to which the finding can be depended upon (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994). If the research process, findings, interpretations and conclusions are consistent over time, then the study can be said to be reliable. To determine the reliability there is need then to audit or evaluate the whole research process (Eisenhart, 2006; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

#### **4.2.6 Alternative Validity and Reliability in the Study**

The building of validity and reliability of the study is viewed as a continuous process embedded in the whole study process which began from the time the study was conceived up to its dissemination. The issues that portray the validity and reliability of the study are therefore discussed in the light of the different stages of the study.

##### **4.2.6.1 Background**

The preface in this study gives the genesis of my interest in the study. In addition, my background as a teacher, researcher and curriculum developer at KIE, a department of the Ministry of Education is stated. In a way, this introduces the reader to the bias that might come about as a result of my background. It also serves to address Lincoln and Guba's (1985) concern of identification and discussing some of the areas that could distort the study. However care was taken to minimise them since I was conscious throughout the research process as suggested by Eisenhart (2006:577) of the need for a researcher being 'self-reflective' and 'analysing their agenda'.

The other pointer is in the purpose of the study (see section 1.1). Other than fulfilling the academic requirements, the recommendations are aimed at improving the instructional supervision policy and practice in Kenya. Miles and Huberman (1994:280) argue that any policy study should lead to 'intelligent action'.



Limitations of the study presented may also serve as an indication of the validity and reliability. Pointing out what the study was not able to achieve is guide to the readers and other researchers who may want to use the results of the study, thus increasing trustworthiness.

#### **4.2.6.2 Methodology**

To start with, a detailed account of the procedure followed in the research process is discussed from the research design and methods to ethical considerations. This is what Miles and Huberman (1994:278) refer to as 'audit trail' while Lincoln and Guba (1985:318) refer to it as 'thick description'. The description serves several purposes: It lays bear research decisions such as sampling, instruments used, pilot tests that were taken and why. By doing this, anybody else wanting to replicate the study would have all the details of the procedure. In addition it also points to how far the results can be or not be generalised. The ethical considerations in particular gaining consent of the participants were important in giving authenticity, so was the recording of individual and group interviews. The interviews notes were made available to the participants who read to confirm if they reflected what they said.

#### **4.2.6.3 Data Presentation and Discussions**

Data in this study (Chapter 6, 7 & 8) are presented according to themes developed from research questions and literature reviewed. Data generated from all the instruments used are discussed together. In addition, quotes from the participants and literature are used. In the interpretation of the findings the views of the participants are presented verbatim. Indication is made where the researchers' views or views from literature are added. This not only increases the authenticity of the study but also confirmability and reliability/dependability.

#### **4.2.6.4 Conclusions and Recommendations**

Arising from the data discussed, conclusions and recommendations are made. The conclusions can be traced from the findings that are well documented in (chapters 6,

7 & 8). Recommendations made based on the findings are action oriented (see 9.3). Details of what should be done and by who are outlined. This makes the findings useful in the improvement of instructional supervision in Kenya. Including areas for further research is an admission that the research could not possibly cover all areas that were intended and those that came up in the process of the study. This could be seen as a measure of credibility and applicability as well.

Finally, the inclusion of the epilogue (see 9.5) is a personal reflection of the stages that I have gone through as a novice researcher. The things learned and experiences not only shaped the study but also the person in me. Where and how else would somebody learn so much about research except in doing it practically?

#### **4.2.6.5 Appendices**

This section has attachments of all documents that were used or produced during the study and could not fit in the main body of the report. These range from the instruments used, transcriptions, letters and certificate of authority to conduct research, consent forms and other materials that go a long way in supporting the data and findings of the study. These not only show that the researcher was indeed in the field but also an indication of transferability.

#### **4.2.6.6 Conclusions**

The discussion shows the reliability and validity in a qualitative study depends to a great extent on what the researcher does or does not do in the research process. It is also clear that in a qualitative approach there no clear line between what affects validity or reliability. Everything that a researcher does is important. For instance when a detailed account of the research process is given, it contributes to dependability (reliability), credibility (internal validity) and transferability (external validity) of the study. It can therefore be concluded that when using a qualitative approach, the researcher has to be conscious of the whole research process. Preparation for the study, the research design and methods, reporting and even dissemination of the findings are parts of the research process that can contribute to the validity and reliability of a study; in addition, the researcher's recognition that they are part of the process. This means the conduct of the researcher is as important

as that of the participants. The question of the validity and reliability in a study is therefore imbedded in the total research process.

### **4.3 Summary**

This chapter has outlined the research methodology used in this study. The rational of choice, the strength and weaknesses of the approaches and methods used have been explained in details. In addition, how the methodology fits within the other parts of the thesis such as background, literature, data interpretation, findings and recommendations has been injected at the appropriate points in the discussions. In the next chapter, the research design is presented.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### RESEARCH DESIGN

*'You can throw a stone but it doesn't necessary fall where you aimed'. A Kikuyu proverb.*

#### 5.0 Introduction

A research design according to Bryman (2003:27) gives 'a framework for data collection and analysis of data'. In educational research the most commonly used design is survey (Burns, 2000; Cohen et al., 2004; Tuckman, 1999). Surveys can be descriptive, explanatory or exploratory with variations depending on the general aim and rationale of the study (Babbie, 2005; Williams, 2003). According to Gay and Airasian (2003:277), survey studies are concerned with 'assessing attitudes, opinions, preferences, demographic practices and procedures' which Berends (2006:623) summarises as 'describing relevant characteristics of individuals , groups or organisations'.

The research questions in this study sought to establish the policy expectations, the actual performance by supervisors, the head teachers' and teachers' expectation and the challenges faced by both supervisors and teachers.

In order to answer the research questions, a descriptive survey design was used. Survey methods involve use of clearly defined problem and definite objectives and can combine both qualitative and quantitative approaches in data collection. This is a common characteristic in educational research (Best & Khan, 2001; Burns, 2000; Verma & Mallick, 1999). This strength was exploited in this study to gather data.

Research in education is mainly carried out to solve problems or understand a phenomenon. A survey allows a researcher to gather data to answer questions about a current problem (Rudestam & Newton, 2001). Instructional supervision in a background of implementing a curriculum change was a phenomenon that was core in this study, hence making survey a method of choice.

A survey also describes trends in a population and can be used when more than one population is involved in a study (Bryman, 2004). In this study, supervisors, head teachers and teachers were involved.

In a survey design a researcher can collect data and make statements in terms of correlations or other associations of two or more variables (Cohen et al., 2004). However, Arksey & Knight, (1999); Verma & Mallick, (1999) caution that it does not allow a researcher to make causal connections between variables. This according to Burns, (2000) and Creswell, (2005) is because it lacks the ability to manipulate variables as it is possible in experimental research. However, though limited, the researcher can judge an association if the logic followed is right (Robson, 2002).

There are several types of survey designs that are used in social and educational research. Burns (2000); Bryman (2004); Creswell (2005); Gall et al., (1996) and Mertens, (2005) give two major classifications of survey design. These are the cross-sectional and longitudinal designs. The cross-sectional designs are used to collect data on current trends, opinions and beliefs at one point in time. On the other hand, longitudinal survey designs are concerned with studying individuals or groups over a long period of time (Babbie, 2005; Creswell, 2003; Mertens, 2005).

The study employed the use of cross-sectional survey design. The design was considered appropriate for this study since it involves collecting data at one point in time. A school term in Kenya lasts three month. It is only during the school term that teachers can be available to participate in the study. Changes are rarely made in schools within the course of a school term. It therefore means that data collected at one point in time, in this case within a term, is unlikely to be affected by changes within the school.

The other important feature that made the design suitable for this study as Cohen et al., (2004) and Verma & Mallick (1999) note is that data are collected from a sample for purposes of generalization to the wider population making the use of the survey design economical.

Whether findings of a particular study can be generalised is determined by several factors. The main ones are sampling discussed in section 5.2 and validity and reliability of the methods used to collect data and discussed in sections 4.2.1.2 and 4.2.5 respectively (Merten, 2005; Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

This study did not meet all conditions that would make it easily generalised. The argument by Hamersley (1996) on the importance of results based on and consistent with detailed study of a situation rather than standardised results was applicable in this study. Contending with Hamersley, Williams (2003:56) specifies that generalization does not necessarily have to be the kind that is a result of statistical test but can also be a result of 'cultural consistency generated by shared norms, values rationality and similar physical situations.' There are some common features that exist in public schools in Kenya. Some of these are the nature of training of the teachers and the teaching/learning resources provided by the government through FPE. In addition they follow a centralised curriculum. These common features can make it possible to transfer results generated from a study in one district to another district.

Concerning wider generalisation, the main aim of supervision world over is to improve teaching and learning. Issues identified in this study can be identified with by teachers and supervisors whatever the context in which they operate. The findings would therefore be relevant in general to other situations under similar circumstances and especially in the developing countries. Establishing the gaps that exist between policies as intended, perceived and practiced and teachers' expectations opens up areas for further research.

A survey is also suitable for this study since it allows the use of several methods of collecting data. A researcher can choose to use questionnaires, interviews, observations, focus groups interviews or documentary analysis as methods of collecting data (Brewerton & Millward, 2001; Bryman, 2004). These methods discussed in details in 4.2 can be used individually or in combination depending on the study objectives (Mertens, 2005; Wiskers, 2001). The combined approach adopted in this study allowed for the use of the different methods of collecting data in combination.

## **5.1 Target Population**

A population is described 'as the group to which results of a study can be generalized' (Gay & Airasian, 2000:122), a definition that Babbie (2005) and Hopkins et al, (1996) agree with. The population of this study comprised of supervisors, public primary school head teachers' and teachers'. Since the study aimed at establishing the existing policy on supervision, the actual supervisory functions performed and the teachers and head teachers expectations, it was therefore important to get information from those who performed the functions and those who experienced them.

## **5.2 Samples and Sampling Procedures.**

Studying an entire population would be the most ideal situation for any researcher. However limitations such as cost in terms of time, personnel, materials and accessibility of the sites and respondents prevents researchers from studying whole populations (Brewerton & Millward, 2001; Cohen et al., 2004; Chromy, 2006; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Kemper, Stringfeild & Teddlie, 2003). Similarly Ritchie and Lewis (2003), point out that a study can be conducted in a small geographical region due to resources and the context of the study. These are constraints that were experienced in this study hence the need to sample part of the population.

There are several methods of sampling that can be used but a researcher must be guided by the purpose of the study and the research questions that need to be answered. Punch (2000) emphasises that the sampling strategies used must fit in the overall validity of the research design. This means the sampling method used must enable the researcher to answer the research questions that they set out to answer and achieve the general purpose of the study. Kemper et al. (2003) extend the same thought. Miles and Huberman (1994) specify that the sampling strategy should be in congruence with the method of data analysis to produce results that the researcher can be confident in.

Acknowledging the importance of sampling Kemper et al, (2003:275) present the following guidelines to sampling.

1. The sample should be generated through debates on the type of phenomenon under study. Is the sampling sufficiently focused to allow a researcher to actually gather data needed to answer the research questions?
2. The sample should allow at least the possibility of drawing clear inferences from the data. The strategy used needs to produce a representative sample. In addition it should allow for credible explanations, inferences (internal validity in quantitative, credibility in qualitative research).
3. Sampling strategy must be ethical – can participants give informed consent regarding participation and absolute assurance that promised confidentiality can be maintained? This increases the trustworthiness of the results
4. Sampling strategy used should get a sample that a researcher can access and be congruent with the abilities of the researcher. The limitations that the researcher faces should be taken into consideration.
5. Sampling strategy should allow findings from qualitative data to be transferred to other settings or generalised in case of quantitative data.
6. Sampling scheme should be efficient and practical.

These principles serve to portray the importance of sampling in a study. The usefulness of the resultant findings seems to be pegged on whether the researcher used the right sampling strategy and if they got the right sample. The sampling strategy used should therefore yield a sample that enables the researcher to answer the research question under study.

In a survey there are basically two main methods of sampling. These are probability sampling and non-probability sampling (Brewerton & Millward, 2001; Bryman, 2004; Yates, 2004). According to Kemper et al. (2003) a study can combine probability and non-probability strategies of sampling as is the case in this study. Probability sampling gives each unit of respondents a chance of being selected in the sample (Hopkins et al, 1996; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). Sampling strategies in the probability category are simple random sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling. These strategies are preferred as pointed out by Brewerton & Millward (2001) since they are more likely to yield a representative sample (Babbie, 2005; Kemper et al., 2003).



In simple random sampling every member of the population has an equal and independent chance of being selected which is not affected by the selection of other members of the population from which the sample is being drawn (Babbie, 2005; Creswell, 2005; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Simple random sampling is therefore more likely to yield a representative sample. However, though easy to conduct, the strategy may give a sample that is difficult to reach. For instance in one district, using random sampling; schools from any part of the district may be selected. This would make the data collection expensive and tedious. To take care of such factors, stratified random sampling can be used. This is a variation of simple random sampling where the population is divided into strata and a sample is selected in each stratum using simple random sampling (Gay & Airasian, 2003; Tuckman, 1999; Vaus, 2001). This according to Burns (2000) helps to reduce the sampling error that may otherwise be there as a result of simple random sampling. Since a stratum is formed based on certain characteristics, then it is likely to include all the characteristics that are of interest in the study. The element of random sampling and the categorization into strata fits in combined approach since random selection of the sample takes care of the quantitative aspects of the study while the categorization targeting special characteristics addresses the qualitative aspect (Cohen et al., 2004). A criticism of stratified random sampling is the need to have the names of all the population (Gay & Airasian, 2003). In this study, schools were sampled according to zones since names of all schools were available from the district education office.

The other variation of probability sampling is the cluster sampling. Researchers using this strategy sample groups (clusters) rather than individuals (Burns, 2000; Gay & Airasian, 2003). Sampling can be done in stages where the researcher selects the clusters, then selects units within the cluster such as classes and then uses simple random sampling (Brewerton & Millward, 2001; Cohen, et al., 2004). Using cluster sampling helps to keep the samples in a small area. This may not be possible with simple random sampling (Walliman, 2000).

The other category of sampling is non-probability sampling. This strategy is useful when it is not practically possible to use random sampling or is not cost effective (Brewerton & Millward, 2001; Williams, 2003). Non-probability sampling strategies commonly used are purposive, convenience, quota and snowball samplings (Babbie,

2005, Cohen et al., 2004; Gay & Airasian, 2003). According to Patton (2002) the strength of non-probability sampling is that it provides a researcher with opportunity to select a sample that provides in-depth information.

Research questions may call for expert knowledge or target the only people with the information required to answer the questions. In such a case, a researcher selects people who have the required information (Babbie, 2005; Borg et al., 1996; Patton, 2002). When this happens, the sampling strategy is referred to as purposive sampling.

In this study supervisors were purposively selected as they are the only ones who could provide information on instructional supervision. Purposive sampling is criticised for being unrepresentative although this may not apply in case of a limited population with the information required (Cohen et al., 2004).

Situations may arise where the researcher makes contact with people who can provide information but the number is not enough. A researcher can get a sample by using an initially selected informant to get others. This sampling strategy is referred to as snowball. It is when it is difficult to get people openly due to the nature of the study. A researcher studying activities such as an underground movement, socially unacceptable activities such as drugs abuse among students is likely to use snowball sampling to get inside information (Burns, 2000; Bryman, 2004, Creswell, 2005; Vaus; 2001). Snowball sampling does not yield a representative sample but one that gives rich information that is often needed in qualitative research (Bryman, 2004).

Another non - probability strategy is quota sampling. It uses same principles as stratified sampling but seeks to represent the characteristics needed in the sample in the same proportion they occur in the population (Burns, 2000; Cohen et al., 2004). This sampling strategy is rarely used in education research though it is popular with market researchers and opinion polls (Babbie, 2005).

Convenience sampling is another non-probability sampling strategy where a researcher uses the people who are available as a sample. It is highly unrepresentative but is usually credited for high return rates especially when captive

participants such as students or people attending a conference are used (Bryman, 2004; Cohen et al., 2004). Samples in this study are presented in 5.4.

### **5.3 Sample Size**

Sampling involves selecting a small part of the population; the sample chosen must be representative of the population from which it is drawn. However, how representative a sample is as Fowler (2002) points out is determined by the sample size, sampling frame and procedures used for selection of the sample.

The size of the sample is influenced by several factors. Factors such as access, funding, overall size of population and number of variables influence the size of the sample (Creswell, 2005). One way of determining the sample size is by selecting a sufficient number of participants for the statistical process that is going to be used (Gall et al, 1996). This according to Babbie (2005) is also affected by the degree of error that a researcher is prepared to tolerate when probability sampling is used. This means the higher the confidence level expected; the bigger the sample should be to ensure that all characteristics of the population are included. This also reduces the sampling error (Cohen et al., 2005; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

Gay and Airasian, (2003) indicate that the type of research is a main determinant of the minimum sample a researcher should use. They cite 30% for co relational, causal- comparative and true experimental research. For descriptive studies they give a guide of 10 – 20% of the population (Babbie 2005, Gay & Airasian) but they caution that in reality what should determine the sample size are the type of descriptive research carried out and the overall size of the population. Supporting this view, Bryman (2004) adds that in social research, researchers use many variables and hence their decisions about the sample size are more likely to be influenced by the variables in the study. This point to the research questions the study aims at answering being a basis for the sample size chosen.

The sample size in this study was based on Babbie's (2005) and Gay and Airasians's (2003) proposal. This was as a result of advice from an expert in this area in Durham

University School of Education who has practically used 10 – 20% sample size successfully. Time and financial constraints were factors that contribute to the sample size. Robson (2002:161) seems to sum up the consideration of sample size by saying ‘in real world research, the question of sample size is answered for you by the situation.’

## **5.4 Samples**

Different sampling techniques were used to get the different samples used in this study. These are explained in the sections that follow.

### **5.4.1 The District**

The study district is in the central province of Kenya. The district combines both rural and urban characteristics. The district has general characteristics that are representative of the other districts in Kenya. These are: a vibrant industrial town, rich agricultural land that combines both large scale commercial and subsistence farming, and semi arid areas. Although full generalization may be limited, the findings drawn from data collected in this district give an indication of what is happening in other districts in the country. The district was thus purposively sampled due to its characteristics that are representative of the other districts in the country; however probability sampling is used to select all other samples.

### **5.4.2 Schools**

The study district has 16 educational zones. In order to ensure all schools in all the zones had an equal chance of being selected, zones were used sampling units. A list of public schools per zone was obtained from the district education office. The district’s list of schools was used as a sampling frame. This is because existing records are usually convenient for the researcher to use (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003). They further argue that it is important for the researcher to establish whether the sampling frame contains all the necessary information to allow drawing of a representative sample. Fowler (2002: 12) also indicates that the researcher must

determine how well the sampling frame corresponds to the population they want to describe.

The list of schools at the district is usually comprehensive since it shows all the public schools in the district and where they are situated. I was assured the list was not in any order or done for any particular reason except to show which school was in which zone. The zones had different numbers of schools ranging from 11 to 24. The total number of public primary schools in the district was 273. From the cluster of schools in one zone, a random sample of 20% of the schools was selected based on the number of schools in a particular zone. This was done in order to give every school in each zone an equal chance of participating in the study. The total number of schools sampled was 56. The head teacher in each sampled school participated in the study.

This was considered an adequate sample for the purpose of this study which was mainly to establish and explain the situation regarding instructional supervision. This was possible with a manageable sample as pointed out by Creswell (2005:207) that the ability for a researcher to 'provide an in-depth picture lessens with additional individuals'. The other factor that was taken into consideration was the fact that the variables being studied were to do with the head teachers and teachers and not the schools. Schools were only sampled to get the teachers and head teachers.

#### **5.4.3 Teachers**

Stratified random sampling was used to get a representative sample of teachers. Schools were divided into two strata, lower comprising of classes one to three and upper comprising of classes four to eight. This is a recognised classification in Kenya.

In lower primary, teachers teach all subjects in the class they are responsible for. Three teachers were randomly selected for each grade/year group. However, this was only possible in schools that had more than one stream for each grade/year group. In schools with only one stream, all the teachers were used, a teacher per grade/year group.

In upper primary, the current policy expects a teacher to teach any subject in any class. However, in practice teachers tend to specialize in certain subjects. For this reason, teachers in upper primary were sampled according to subjects. This is because it is likely that a teacher will teach one subject in several classes. Since there are five core subjects, teachers were grouped according to these subjects. These are Mathematics, Science, English, Social Studies and Religious Education, and Kiswahili. A random sample of one teacher per subject was done. The total number of teachers sampled in upper primary per school was five. In each school there were a total of eight teachers sampled. The total sample of teachers was 430 instead of 448 as would have been expected. This is because in schools that had eight classes, the teachers were eight, head teacher included. As a result in such schools the sampled teachers were seven. There were 18 such schools in the sample.

#### **5.4.4 Supervisors**

Supervisors were purposively sampled. The Director of Quality Assurance and Standards and five supervisors at the Ministry head office were sampled. The five supervisors were those in charge of the core subjects in primary education. This is in line with the observation by Gay and Airasian (2003) that a researcher should identify participants who provide in-depth information on the topic being researched.

At the district level, there is one supervisor in charge of primary education. This officer was purposively selected to participate in the study. There are 16 zones in the district. Each zone has one supervisor; they all participated in the study but two did not return their questionnaires.

The samples for the study were therefore constituted of: The director, five supervisors at the head office, one at the district, 16 at the zone level, and 56 head teachers and 430 teachers in 56 public primary schools.

Multiple samples enhance confidence in the findings of a study by providing contrasting and comparative data that can help in understand the topic being studied (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

## **5.5 Data Collecting Procedure**

This section discusses a detailed account of the procedure followed in collecting data for this study. Lincoln and Guba (1985:316) refer to this kind of detailed account as 'thick description' which according to Miles and Huberman (1994:278) would offer an 'audit trail' for anybody wishing to trace how the study was carried out or transfer or generalise results. A summary of methods of data collection, sources of data and the number of respondents is shown on table 5.1 (pg.142a)

### **5.5.1 Pilot Testing**

There is a general agreement among researchers that however careful one is in construction of instruments for data collection, they cannot be perfect, hence the need to test before administering them to the study respondents (Babbie, 2005; Bryman, 2004; Cohen et al., 2004; Gorard, 2001; Williams, 2003; Vaus, 2001). A process that Vaus (2001) refers to as evaluation. This definition brings out the aspect of critically assessing the instrument. To achieve this, Gay and Airasian (2003:288) advise that individuals chosen for the pilot should be 'thoughtful and critical' and 'should be encouraged to make comments'.

Pilot testing is carried out for various reasons. Cohen et al. (2004: 260 – 261) summarising other works by different authors, assert that the main aim of pilot testing is to ensure validity, reliability and practicability of the instrument being pilot tested. This is achieved by respondents giving feedback on the clarity of the questions, content, language, relevance of the items to the intended group, redundant questions, flow of the questions, difficulty questions, and time taken to answer the questions and layout and length. In general, all aspects of the instrument should be pilot tested including the procedure of administration (Babbie, 2005; Gall et al., 1996; Williams, 2003).

Pilot testing can be done in stages. A two-stage pre-testing process is suggested by Burns (2000); Gorard (2001); Robson, (2002); Williams, (2003) while Vaus (2001) proposes three stages. I adopted the two stage format for three reasons. The first was to do with testing the content of the instruments using expert knowledge while the

Table 5.1: Summary of Data Sources and Collection Procedures

Source of data	Method of data collection	Number of respondents/participants
Policy documents	Content analysis	4 (see 6.2)
National supervisors	Face to face interviews	6
District supervisor	Face to face interviews	1
Zone supervisors	Questionnaires	14
	Focus group interviews	One group (eight participants)
Head teachers	Questionnaires	54
Teachers	Questionnaires	380
	Group interviews	One group ( 10 participants)

\* All supervisors were responsible for supervising primary education



second was mainly to gauge the relevance of the instruments in investigating the performance of instructional supervision. Thirdly it was to test the clarity of questions in the questionnaires. This was to ensure that the respondents understood the questions as they were asked.

#### **5.5.1.1 Pilot Testing: Stage one**

In this first stage of pilot testing, questionnaires for zone supervisor, head teachers and teachers and interview schedule for national and district supervisors were sent to colleagues at the KIE, Research and Evaluation Division to be administered to a few respondents who had similar characteristics with the study samples.

The officers at KIE were also requested to read the questionnaires and give their own feedback. As curriculum developers and researchers in education, they are well versed with curriculum implementation and instructional supervision since they work closely with the supervisors. They were therefore in a position to comment on the content of the interview schedules and the questionnaires.

The aim of this first trial was to establish;

- The suitability of the items in investigating the performance of instructional supervision.
- The clarity of the questions
- The time required to complete the questionnaires
- Suitability and adequacy of the response categories in the close ended questions.
- General format of the questionnaires
- Ways of improving the instruments and the study in general

The questionnaires were administered to three head teachers, eight teachers and five zone supervisors. Two district supervisors were interviewed. It was fortunate and a coincidence that at the time I sent the questionnaires, a meeting bringing together head teachers, teachers and supervisors from all the provinces in Kenya was taking place at KIE. The respondents in this particular pilot were therefore drawn from different parts of the country. The officers at KIE also gave their feedback.

Interview schedules for the director, supervisors at the Ministry of Education head and district offices and the questionnaire for the zone were sent to three of Kenya's Ministry of Education senior education officials who were undertaking their doctoral studies in England. These officers had many years' experiences working in the Ministry of Education in Kenya. Two were senior supervisors while one was a Deputy Director of Education. I requested them to go through the interview schedules and comment on the length, content and focus of the questions and any other aspect that would improve the instruments. Valuable feedback was given, with deep insight especially from the supervisors.

The following were the observations from the stage one pilot:

### **1. Questionnaires**

- Length

All the participants indicated that the questionnaires were rather long. However, the officers who administered the questionnaire felt this was mainly due to the format and numbering of items. One colleague had this to say 'every time I gave a questionnaire to a respondent, they quickly went to the last page and exclaimed on the size and number of items'.

No indication of the time it took to respond was given. It was for this reason that I decided to not to remove any item at this early stage. However, to address this concern, the format and numbering of the questionnaires was changed. Lengthy explanations that were not adding value to the questionnaire were removed. This reduced the size of the questionnaire considerably.

- Clarity

Some questions in all the three questionnaires were identified as unclear. The question on teachers' preparation for the implementation of the curriculum was understood to mean the initial training at the teacher training colleges. To address this, word 'preparation' was replaced with 'in-service/ induction'. Some questions were also pointed out as being compound, asking more than one thing, like 'were you and your teachers'. Such questions were separated.

Instructions on answering the section on the importance of supervisory functions and frequency of performance were reported as not clear. Some of the respondents

thought the questions were repeated. This was because the items were similar though one was on importance while the other was on frequency of performance of supervisory. The format used added to the confusion as items on importance and those on frequency were side by side. To avoid the confusion, the instructions were reworded. The items on importance and frequency of performance were separated to form two sections.

- **Redundant Questions**

A few questions in all the questionnaires were perceived to be redundant since they were implied in other questions. There were questions that were also influencing the responses to other questions. This was because of the order of questions. An example was the question on the support they got from the supervisors which was close-ended. This question influenced the responses in the question on what the teachers and the head teachers expected from the supervisors which was open-ended. The respondents tended to copy from the close-ended question. Where this was evident, the anomaly was addressed. In some cases the order of the questions was changed and questions reworded.

- **Close-ended Questions.**

Initially I thought the responses to close-ended questions were exhaustive. However the responses given in the first pilot were used to add to the list of responses.

## **2. Interview Schedules**

The main comments on the interview schedules were on the wording of the questions. Some questions were seen to make assumptions.

- **Length of the Interview Schedules**

The schedules were considered lengthy but ideal to get into the depth of the issue being investigated. The probes were also noted to be very important. To address the length, it was recommended that the interview themes be sent to respondents before the interview date. This would enable them to prepare and get the necessary information ready. In the actual data collection, respondents were given an outline of the areas the interviews were to cover in advance (see appendix 5A)

### 5.5.1.2 Pilot Testing: Stage Two

Stage two was the actual pilot study. It was conducted in September 2006 in three primary schools in the study district in Kenya. The three schools were drawn from different parts of the district. Eight teachers in each school were used, three in lower primary and five in upper as explained in 5.5.2. Since the head teacher is usually one per school, two other schools were used where only the head teacher participated. This made the total number of schools used five.

The other reason for using teachers in the two categories was because the implementation of revised primary education curriculum which in this study is used as a case was started in class one and class four. As explained in 1.6.2, the revised curriculum was to progressively replace the previous curriculum.

The respondents were timed as they responded to the questionnaires. A group discussion was held with them to elicit feedback. I asked them to comment on the clarity of the items in the questionnaires, relevance of the issues, the presentation and formatting of the questionnaire, the time taken to respond and any other concern about the questionnaire. In addition, they were asked to make suggestions on improvement of the questionnaire.

As a result of this second pilot the following observations were made.

- Before the pilot testing, the questionnaire was envisaged to take 20 to 30 minutes. However the fastest teacher filled in the questionnaire in 25 minutes while the slowest took 40 minutes. The five head teachers used 20 - 25 minutes. I discussed the length of the questionnaire with the head teachers and teachers; they indicated that while the questionnaire was lengthy, it was easy to respond to.
- All items were seen to be relevant and necessary.
- All respondents indicated the items were clear and the arrangement of the questions made it easy to respond.

The questionnaire for the zone supervisors was pilot tested with three supervisors in the neighbouring district. This was because there is only one zone supervisor in each zone. If the questionnaire had been piloted with the officers in the district, it would have reduced the number of respondents in this category.

It was also in the second stage of pilot testing that an academic member of staff in Kenyatta University whose area of specialization is Education Management was requested to study the questionnaires and interview schedules and make comments. Berends (2006:632) suggests that when conducting a survey, it is important to use experts in the pilot as they are 'likely to be familiar with the theoretical constructs being examined [and] are likely to have used these constructs in their work'. They can therefore give feedback on wording, order of questions and general format. Valuable feedback was given especially on contextualising the instructional supervisory functions to the Kenya situation and analysis of the data. The feedback was used to revise the instruments before pilot testing them with the supervisors, head teachers and teachers.

#### **5.5.1.3 Lessons Learned in the Pilot Test**

Various lessons were learned during the two stages of pilot testing. The main strength in the pilot testing was the use of experts in the two stages. During the initial development of instruments I thought the literature review was enough to cover all the issues in supervision of curriculum implementation. Suggestions from the people who performed the supervisory functions and those who experienced them were very important in shaping the final instruments that were used. The discussions with the respondents after they had responded gave more insight into the issues raised in the instruments. This strengthened the study.

The use of the academic member of staff of Kenyatta University added value to the study. He made suggestions on the content and also on methods of analysis. I must admit that before the pilot study, my main concern was content and administration of the instruments and not analysis of the same.

The main weakness in the pilot testing was the fact that the initial pilot testing was not done by the researcher. Had I carried out the initial pilot testing myself, there are some categories in the closed questions that I would have been able to eliminate at this early stage, also identifying some difficulties. However these issues were taken care of during the actual pilot testing which I personally carried out.

### **5.5.2 Gaining Access**

Gaining access to the research site is important. Creswell (2005) identifies it as one of the factors that a researcher should consider. Before travelling to Kenya for the data collection, I had to meet the requirements of University of Durham regarding research with human beings and the legal requirements of educational research in Kenya.

While it is a legal requirement to get a research permit, it does not mean that the researcher gets automatic access to the institutions and respondents. It was therefore important for me to make contact with the relevant officers at the Ministry of Education head office, the Thika district education office, head teachers and teachers. The rapport created between the researcher and the respondents was more important than the official authority. The challenge was contacting the zone supervisors. While they had offices in the zones, it was almost impossible to get them in those offices. I was given a list of their names and their cell phone numbers. Using this list I called all of them and introduced myself and the background to my study. We agreed with most of them to meet at the District office, though I later visited their offices in the course of visiting schools in their zones.

In the schools, it was important that the head teacher understood the purpose of the study. In each school I explained to the head teacher the purpose of the study. In addition, in order to build confidence I gave the introductory letter from the District Education office.

Some of the head teachers thought there was no need to meet the teachers since they could hand the questionnaire to the teachers. I politely explained it was important for

me to talk to the teachers about the study though each questionnaire had a cover letter. In all the schools I met the teachers during break time. This was the most ideal time since teachers usually gather in the staffroom for a cup of tea. I was therefore able to talk to all the teachers together to explain the purpose of the study and likely benefits to the country. In addition I was also able to socialize with them over a cup of tea. This made the teachers relaxed and saw me as a colleague rather than an intruder. The other factor that worked for me was the fact that I worked at Kenya Institute of Education, an institution teachers regard highly. The acceptance by the teachers was a first step towards getting information. Pring (2001) argues that accessibility of information is a precondition of proper discussion of any opinion, policy or practice.

## **5.6 The Actual Data Collection**

The actual data collection was carried out in Kenya between September 2006 and December 2006. This is the third term of the academic year in Kenya. This time was found to be ideal since it marked the full cycle of the implementation of the revised primary education curriculum. The supervisors, head teachers and teachers were therefore in a position to comment on its supervision having gone through the whole cycle.

Data were collected in three stages. In the first stage, a survey was carried out in 56 schools, the Ministry of Education head office and the district education office. In the second stage, five schools were selected to help clarify some issues raised in the first stage on circulars and supervision reports. In the third phase, focus group discussions were held with zone supervisors and teachers.

### **5.6.1 The Ministry of Education Head office**

The same day I got the permit I reported to the Director of Quality Assurance and Standards. I explained the nature of my study and what I required from the directorate. Since one of the Senior Deputy Directors of Quality Assurance and Standard (DDQAS) docket was primary education, the Director suggested that he

was the best placed to articulate issues related to supervision of primary education curriculum.

I made contact with DDQAS primary education programmes. I explained the nature of my study. I gave him an outline of the interview themes (see appendix 5A). On reading the issues he thought there was no need of making another appointment. We proceeded with the interview. However, the officer did not consent to the interview being recorded on tape. I therefore used note taking to record the interview. This made the interview last longer than it was envisaged. After the interview he gave me the names of the supervisors in charge of the five main subjects in primary school education.

I contacted the relevant officers. I explained to each one of them the nature of my study. Since I was aware of the nature of their work, I gave each a list of the issues I wanted to discuss with them. We made tentative appointments since it was not possible to make definite appointments.

The most difficulty part of the whole data collection exercise was getting to interview the supervisors at the Ministry of Education head office. I had assumed that since I was acquainted with most of them, it was going to be easy. This was not to be. Most appointments were not kept. I made many visits to their offices before I could finally interview them. This process took about four weeks. Finally I was able to interview all the five officers who are in charge of the five core subjects in primary education. They cited pressure of work as a reason for not keeping the appointments.

The interviews were carried out in their offices. Before each interview, I reminded them of the nature of the study. All the five officers were interviewed on different dates depending on when they were available. Only one officer consented to the interview being recorded on tape. The other four declined. I therefore used note taking as a method of recording the interviews. To cope with recording, I developed my own short hand that proved to be useful. Since different words kept cropping up with each interview, it was difficult to keep up with new vocabulary and remember. I therefore wrote the interview notes filling the gaps soon after finishing interviewing.



This helped me write in full quotations that I wanted to remember. Each interview took approximately one hour. The officers were comfortable with the time as an alternative to the interview being recorded on tape.

The interview with the officer who consented to being recorded was transcribed later the same day. An appointment was made to see him to ascertain that the transcription was a true reflection of our discussion. He agreed it was a true reflection of our discussion. We made a copy of the transcription which remained with him.

### **5.6.2 District Education Office**

At the district level the supervisor who is in-charge of primary education was interviewed. The officer consented to being recorded on tape. The biggest challenge was getting a place to conduct the interview though there was a problem of room due to shortage of office space. After about 30 minutes, one officer who had an office to herself was kind enough to offer us her office. Finally I conducted the interview in a less noisy office, though the tape still captured music from a nearby café. The interview took about one hour; the officer was very knowledgeable on all issues pertaining to primary education. I transcribed the interview and sent him the transcription. He agreed it was a true reflection of our discussion

The main challenge was getting the zone supervisors since they operated away from their offices most of the time. I left the questionnaires and self addressed envelope in their pigeon holes in the district office. They completed the questionnaires and put them in the self addressed envelope. I collected the questionnaires from the district office. However I interacted with all of them during my many visits to the district office.

### **5.6.3 Schools**

In schools head teachers were the entry point before getting to the teachers as explained in section 5.5.2. At the beginning of my research I had planned to visit a school, issue the questionnaires and wait for the teachers to respond. On the first day,

I did that. At the end of the day I realized the approach was not going to work. It took too long since I did not want to put the teachers under pressure. The approach was changed. On visiting a school, I issued the questionnaires and agreed with the teachers on when to collect them.

To ensure confidentiality, with each questionnaire I provided an envelope. I requested the teachers to put the questionnaires in the envelopes after completing them. In each school I provided a large envelope where all the questionnaires were to be put. One teacher was requested to take the responsibility of collecting from the other teachers and putting them in the large envelope awaiting collection or delivery. In most schools, it was the senior teacher or deputy head teacher who took up the responsibility. In some schools I made return visits since some teachers took time to fill the questionnaires. In most schools where I agreed to make return visits, it was the lower primary school teachers who had taken time in responding to the questionnaires.

#### **5.6.4 Second Stage - Circulars and Reports**

After going through the questionnaires for teachers, head teachers and Zone supervisors, I felt there was need to do some checking in schools and the district education office.

The supervisors indicated they visited schools for supervisory visits, observed teachers and issued supervisory reports or what they referred as '*inspection reports*'. They also indicated that they relied on circulars that guided the implementation of the curriculum as reported in 6.2.6.

The questions I needed to answer were:

1. Whether there were inspection reports in schools?
2. Was there evidence in the schools of these supervisory visits?
3. If the reports were available, what information was contained in these reports?
4. How useful was the information to the teachers?
5. What circulars were available in the district office and in schools?

In order to answer these questions, I visited the district office and schools to get information from the relevant documents. In the district office I perused the communication files and inspection files. In schools I went through the inspection files, visitors' books and any other relevant documents.

Since there are five educational divisions, I purposively selected one school in each division. These were schools I had visited during the questionnaire stage and they seemed well organized. There were signs of order in all parts of the school, the head teachers' office, deputy head teachers', senior teacher offices and staffrooms. These schools also happened to be the ones where the head teachers and teachers were very cooperative. The assumption was it was in such a school that records were likely to be kept in order. These were the school where I was likely to be allowed to peruse files and other documents.

### **5.6.5 Stage Three - Group Interview with Teachers**

It was as a result of the informal interaction that I had with the teachers that I decided to have a interview with a group of teachers. The things teachers talked about in the informal discussions were very relevant to the study, yet some of it was not written in the questionnaires. With the help of the district education office, I took advantage of a teachers' meeting that was taking place in the district.

On the day of the meeting, I went to the meeting venue. I waited for the registration process to be completed. The teachers were registering according to their divisions. Since this was a follow up, I enquired about the teachers who had responded to the questionnaire. It is from this list that I randomly selected 10 teachers to participate in the discussion. Each division was represented by two teachers. The discussion was very open. This resulted in clarifications and further insights into the teachers' experiences with supervision of curriculum implementation.

While I sought clarification on some issues, or probed for more information, I let the teachers discuss their experiences. Later, I went through the notes and categorized their responses according to the themes in the questionnaire.

The teachers declined tape recording of the discussion. I therefore used note taking to record the discussion. Due to the previous experience where the respondents declined to be recorded on tape, this time I had somebody to assist in taking notes during the discussion.

### **5.6.6 Group Interview with Zone Supervisors**

During my many visits to the district office, I met the entire team of the zone supervisors, though at different times. All these times we held informal discussions related to issues in the questionnaire and supervision of curriculum implementation in general. Notes taken during these discussions are also used in discussing the data.

It was as a result of these informal discussions that the idea of holding a group discussion was born. The officers were going to have a meeting to analyse examination results. I requested to hold a group interview after their meeting, a request they accepted. This was ideal since it is difficult to get them in a group in normal circumstances.

Since I had gone through the questionnaires they had responded to, I was aware of issues that needed further discussion. The discussion was guided by general themes that were used in the questionnaires. However this did not limit them from discussing any other relevant issues. The officers had a lot to say on the challenges they faced and recommendations on how the challenges can be addressed. These are discussed in details in section 8.2. The interview lasted for two hours. I took notes assisted by a research assistant since the supervisors declined being recorded on tape.

### **5.7 Data Analysis**

According to Burns (2000:430), the purpose of data analysis is to 'find meaning in the data', which is done through 'systematic arranging and presenting the information'. Gay and Airasian (2003:228) look at data analysis as 'concerned with identifying what is in the data while Obure (2002:1) defines it in terms of the processes that a researcher has to go through. These involve sorting the data, editing,

coding, entry, cleaning, and processing and results interpretation. These are processes that have also been identified by Fowler, (2002), Maxwell, (1996) and Wisker, (2001).

Although data analysis is presented in most educational research books as distinct from other stages of the research, I see it as running through the whole research process a position that Miles and Huberman (1994) agree with.

### **5.7.1 Analysis of Questionnaire Data**

Questionnaire data in this study were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS).

After getting all the questionnaires, they were checked for completeness and numbered as a form of identity during the data entry. The next step was to extract the responses from the open-ended questions. This was done in order to reduce the data by assigning common meaning for the sake of analysis. For example, in one question, teachers used terms such as induction, in-service, seminars or workshops. All these terms had the same meaning according to the teachers, hence the need to collapse statements where they were used. Responses in all the questions were assigned numeric values that are used when data is entered. Obure (2002) warns that it is in the coding stage that most problems in data analysis may occur as it determines the accuracy of the data.

The advantage of coding and assigning numeric values to the open questions made it possible for descriptive statistics to be generated even for the open question responses. This was found to be necessary due to the nature of the research questions. Factual as well as opinions and reasons were sought in some questions. For example while getting the number of teachers who attended in-service training was important, it was also equally important to establish whether they thought the courses adequate and their reasons. Quantifying the number of teachers who gave a particular reason could be useful to organisers of such courses. They can identify where the deficiency was.

Data were then entered, cleaned or checked for any mistakes in entry, a process that was repeated several times to make sure that there were no mistakes in the data entry before the data analysis was done. This step according to Robson (2000) involves proof-reading for errors. The data was sent to the SPSS processor for computation and manipulation and outputs produced. Since the study aimed at establishing the situation as it was; the data were mainly subjected to descriptive statistics. It was only research question five that sought the perceptions of the participants on the importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions that was subjected to further testing. ANOVA was used to establish whether there were significant differences in the perceptions of the three groups of participants. Post hoc (Tumhane coefficient) which is suitable for unequal sized groups was used to test where the difference were between groups. It is however noted that not all the conditions necessary for use of ANOVA were met in this study. Hopkins et al. (1996) recommend that samples be equal, in the case of this study they were not equal. However the groups were independent of each other.

### **5.7.2 Qualitative Data**

As explained in section 4.8.4 most of the qualitative data was recorded by note taking, as the wish of the respondents not to be taped-recorded was respected. Only two of the interviews with the supervisors were tape recorded.

Analysis of the interviews and group discussion data started as soon as each session ended. The interviews that were tape-recorded were also transcribed as soon as the interview ended. Similarly, notes taken during the interviews were checked for gaps. This was done immediately in order to record all that I could remember and had not managed to write it down. The other reason was in the course of recording. I developed my shorthand that I had to write in full before I could forget the meaning of some of the shortened words.

For the group interviews, I had an assistant who took notes. Immediate recording was done for purposes of comparing what I had and his record in order to capture issues we may not have written down. Identification labels were given according to the

respondent such as (ID) for the senior supervisor, S1- S6 to identify the six supervisors interviewed, (TD) teacher discussion, and (SD) supervisor discussions.

Notes were recorded in a format that had been prepared using the themes that were running in the questionnaires. This was done so that issues raised could be recorded within those themes for ease of analysis. As pointed out earlier in section 4.2.3, the qualitative data were presented and discussed together with the quantitative data. Having it recorded in broad themes made the presentation and discussion more practical.

Although these themes were identified, most of the qualitative data generated were used verbatim. This was done for two purposes. One, the way each idea presented, the views and the comments all told a story. Most of these were so rich that giving them a numerical coding seemed like not only diluting them but also taking away the power the spoken words had in portraying the participants' perceptions of the issues discussed.

The other reason was because most are used together with the numerical data, either to show emphasis, variance or simply to support. The direct quotes were considered the best to do this other than my interpretation of what the respondents said. The combination of what was written (questionnaire), said (face to face interviews and group interviews, field notes and some incidental observations) give the 'feel' of the situation of the instructional supervision as performed by supervisors and experienced by teachers. Chapters six, seven and eight show the numerical and text data were used in combination.

## **5.8 Ethical and Access Issues**

The main aim of research is to search for new knowledge. While researchers aim at producing new knowledge, they must ensure that their participants are protected from harm that might arise as a result of the researchers' activities. It is for this reason that associations whose members conduct research with human beings come up with codes of ethics to guide their members.

Analysis of the *British Educational Research Association, Educational research guidelines*, (2004), *Scottish Educational Research Association, Ethical Guidelines*, (2005), *The American Anthropological Association's Code of Ethics* (1998), *The Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* (2003), *American Statistical Association* (1998) and *The University of Durham Ethics Advisory Committee Application Form* (2004) shows that a researcher has a responsibility to the respondents, profession, sponsors and all institutions involved. The guiding principles are concerned with the participants, research sites, scholarship and the general public. Usher and Simmons (2000) sum the principles as guiding procedure and conduct in the field and after. Patton (2002) calls it an ethical issues checklist.

There are pertinent ethical issues or what Patton (2002) calls an Ethical issues checklist that seem to be discussed by all authors and researchers who have written on educational research ethics. Babbie, 2005; Burns, 2000; Creswell, 2005; Wiles, Charles, Crow & Heath, 2006; Pring, 2001; Small, 2001 all have explained the need for -;

- Informed consent from participants when they understand the purpose of the research
- Confidentiality, this provides protection by guaranteeing that data will not be released to anybody else. It also helps to 'reassures participants that they can reveal what they otherwise may not reveal to help the researcher understand their perspectives' (Tickle, (2001:348).
- Openness especially on how data collected was going to be used and who was going to have access to it.
- Respect for research site

These are issues that I found relevant and endeavoured to abide by during the whole research process.

To start with, I have presented in details the research process and all the procedures taken. This is done to ensure that readers can verify and relate the various stages of the study and especially the data collection, findings, conclusions and recommendations. This I feel is my responsibility to other researchers. Pring (2001:418) looks at it as 'intellectual virtues' that are concerned with 'the truth, openness to criticism, an interest in clarity of communication, concern for evidence'.



During the actual data collection, I explained to the participants the purpose of the research and the procedure of collecting information. This was done to ensure that they gave an informed consent. The right of the participants to agree to participate or withdraw from the research at any point with or without explanation was spelt out to them. To show that the participants have understood and agreed to participate in the research, they were required to sign a consent form. Signing consent forms as proof that the participants had consented is not a common practice in Kenya. Most of them felt like they were doing what Coomber (2002:1) called 'signing your life away' when questioning whether it was necessary for research ethics committees to expect consent to be written. However, explaining the purpose of the study and the benefits that it is likely to have on primary education convinced especially the teachers and head teachers to sign the consent forms.

Where consent was not given, I respected the wishes of the participant. Some data for the study were collected using face to face interview and focus group interviews. Out of the seven supervisors who were interviewed, only two consented to the interviews being tape-recorded. I respected this and took notes instead of tape-recording. This is a position that many researchers find themselves in as noted by Coomber (2002: 6) 'not all participants agree to being recorded'.

To ensure confidentiality and privacy of the participants, they were not required to put their names or any mark that would identify them on the questionnaires. Codes are used to identify the supervisors without revealing their identity. I must admit that sometimes this is a challenge. This is especially when there is only one such officer in a district or head office.

Openness also means that the participants who provide the data have access to the report. The accessibility of the report to the research community is also a form of openness that is considered ethical. To ensure that I captured what the participants meant, interview transcripts and notes were shared with the interviewees. Some clarifications were done in some notes and corrections noted. It was not possible to go through the notes from the discussion with the teachers as they were drawn from different schools. However a summary of the final report will be made available at zone teacher resource centres where teachers can easily access it. The report will also

be available in the Ministry of Education head office resource centre, KIE and KESI libraries.

Schools were visited mainly during tea breaks in the morning and in the afternoons. This was done to ensure that teaching was not interrupted. It was also a good opportunity to interact informally with the teachers. This proved useful in gaining their confidence, a factor to which I attribute to the high return rate of head teachers and teachers questionnaire.

Other formalities required were approval by School of Education Ethics Committee, Kenya's Ministry of Education and district education office. (See appendices 3A & B).

Although efforts are made to ensure that educational research is conducted ethically, from my experience in the field, I agree with Pring (2001:418) that rules cannot cover all possible situations that a researcher is likely to encounter. This then calls for individual researcher's development of the capacity to make ethical decisions in the research process (Small, 2001).

## **5.9 Summary**

In this chapter, the study design has been discussed. In addition the interrelationship between the study design and methodology is outlined in reference to the main aim of the study, the variables that were studied and the sources of data. A detailed account of the data collection procedures is presented and ethical considerations. This is done since the process (research methodology and design) is likely to affect the product (findings, conclusions and recommendations). This is the pivotal role that was referred to in 4.1.

## **5.10 Reflections from the Field.**

Before the data collection, I thought I knew exactly what I wanted and how to get it. However it is the experience that I had with the respondents that finally shaped the

procedures and the information that was collected. I see this as strength in the study. I allowed those who performed the supervisory functions and those who experienced them to express their views in different forums. This helped me capture their perceptions in a way that may not have been possible had I followed my pre-determined procedure. It also offered various lessons in data collections. The direct quotes that I gathered especially from supervisors and teachers greatly helped clarify issues and are used in discussing the findings. This corresponds to triangulation by source of data and by instrument since on each group of respondents two different instruments were used.

The insights gained into the supervisors' role and the teachers' expectations explained and narrated in their own words helped me re-examine my position as researcher and curriculum developer.

## **SECTION FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSIONS**

### **CHAPTER SIX**

#### **POLICIES GUIDING SUPERVISION IN KENYA**

##### **6.0 Introduction**

In the previous chapters, the background to the need for instructional supervision in Kenya, the meaning and trends in supervision, the research methodology, and design have been discussed. The literature analysed has provided both theoretical and empirical ideas that are used as a basis of discussions of the finding that are presented in this section. This will help in placing the Kenyan case in context of both theory and practice.

The data presented were gathered from the survey samples that comprised of supervisors at the Ministry of Education national, district and zone offices, head teachers and teachers. Presentation of the data is based on themes generated from the research questions. Both quantitative and qualitative data that were collected using questionnaires, interviews, group interviews and document analysis are presented, analysed and discussed in an integrated way. This is because data collected were meant to respond to the thematic areas based on the research questions irrespective of the data collection methods used. Secondly, this approach allows the reader to see the connection between the research questions, information gathered from the different respondents and the relationship between the findings and the literature reviewed. In certain cases like the discussions with teachers and zone quality assurance and standard Officers, information sought clarified some issues that had been raised in the questionnaires. Such information is used for triangulation and emphasis.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to process the data. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages are calculated based on the number of participants who responded to each question. This is done for purposes

of getting the true picture of each item in the questionnaires as opposed to when they are calculated based on the total number of respondents.

One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to establish if there were statistically significance differences in perceptions of teachers, head teachers, supervisors, and teachers teaching different subjects in the importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions. Where differences were established, the Post Hoc (Tamhane coefficient) test was used to establish where the differences were among the groups.

The section is divided into three parts. Chapter six presents characteristics of the respondents and examines the policies and the direction they give to instructional supervision regarding the procedures and functions that supervisors should perform.

In chapter seven, the actual supervisory practices and head teacher's and teachers' expectations of supervisors are presented and discussed. The respondents' perceptions of importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions and challenges are discussed in chapter eight.

## **6.1 Characteristics of Respondents**

In any study, it is important for the reader to make connection with the people who provided the information. This section presents the characteristics of the respondents. Response rates of the questionnaires are also reported.

Although the response rate of the questionnaires was high (88.4%) teachers, (96.4%) head teachers and 87.5% supervisors, means and percentages of responses are calculated based on the number of participants who responded to each question. This is done for purposes of getting the true picture of each item in the questionnaires as opposed to when they are calculated based on the total number of respondents. The characteristics are presented and discussed in the next section.

### 6.1.1 Teachers.

Four hundred and thirty questionnaires for teachers were distributed. The total received was 380 (88.4%). In Kenya, primary schools are divided into two levels: lower primary comprising classes 1 – 3 and upper primary comprising of classes 4- 8 as upper. Out of 379 teachers who indicated the level they taught, 138 (36.4% taught in lower primary and 241 (63.6%) in upper primary.

Teachers in lower primary, classes 1-3, teach all subjects in the classes they are responsible for. In upper primary, teachers teach different subjects and in different classes. This study focused on teachers who taught the five core subjects taught in primary education in Kenya as shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1: Subjects Teachers Taught

Subject	(f)	%
Mathematics	58	22.7
Science	51	19.9
English	60	23.4
Kiswahili	37	14.5
Social Studies	50	19.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>256</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Although the number of teachers who indicated the subjects they taught was 241, 15 teachers indicated they taught more than one subject, hence the total of 256 instead of 241.

#### a. Years of Experience

Research has shown that teachers at different points in their career may have different supervisory requirements (Soelen, 2003). The teachers were asked to indicate their teaching experience in years. The years were grouped into four categories in order to include teachers at the different times of their career, from those beginning to those almost at retirement. Table 6.2 shows the distribution of the teachers' teaching experience in years.

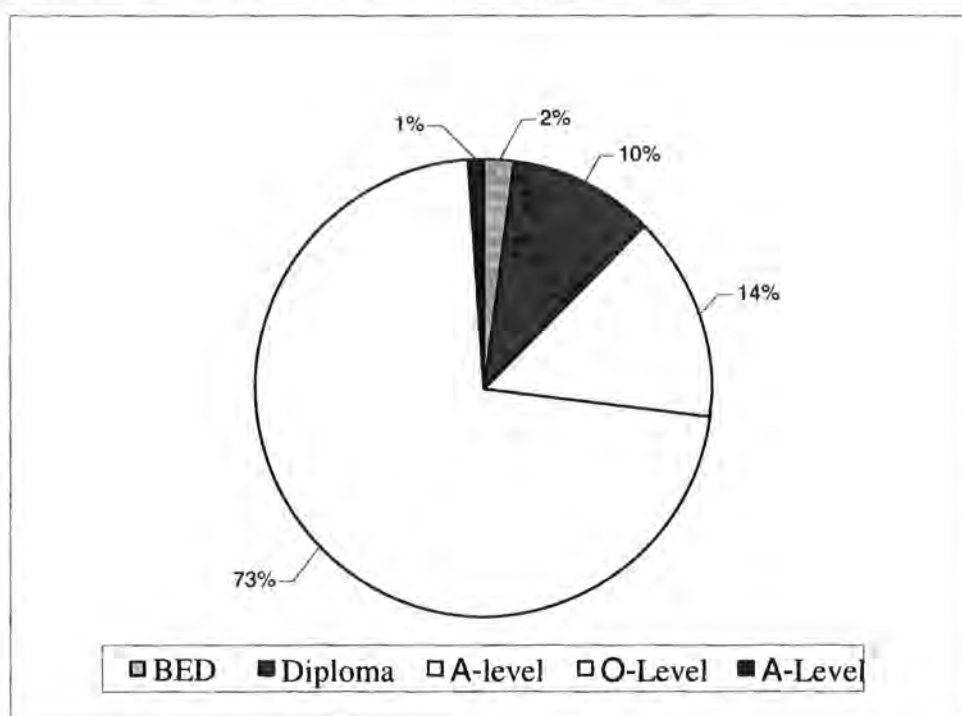
Table 6. 2: Teachers' Year of Experience

No of years	1-5	6-10	11-15	16 above	Total
(f)	9	49	94	201	353
%	2.5	13.9	26.6	56.9	100

Teachers who were at the beginning of their career with an experience of between 1-5 years were only 9 (2.5), while 143 (40.5) had between 6 and 15 years and 201 (56.9) sixteen years and above. This teaching force can be said to be well established and experienced as a whole.

**b. Academic and Professional Experience**

Figure 6.1: Teachers' Highest Academic Qualification



Primary education teacher training in Kenya is a certificate course whose basic entry qualification is O-level qualification. This explains why majority of the teachers had O-level qualifications.

Table 6.3: Teachers' Professional Qualifications

Qualifications	Graduate teacher	ATS	P1	P2	P3	Total
(f)	3	168	192	7	1	371
%	0.8	45.2	51.8	1.9	0.3	100

In terms of professional qualifications, many 192(51.8) of the teachers had Primary one (P1) qualifications. This is a certification that teachers are awarded after training for two years and passing examination set by the Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC). Only a few teachers (1.9% and 0.3%) had P2 and P3 qualifications respectively. These two courses were offered to teachers who had low academic qualifications. These were usually Kenya Junior Certificate of Secondary Education (KJSE) and Certificate of Primary Education (CPE) or its equivalent. These were teachers who were probably trained when Kenya was getting out of the colonial period and the demand for teachers was high. Hence people with very low qualifications were trained. The courses were later discontinued and hence there are now only a few of teachers with these qualifications. The approved teacher status (ATS) is a promotional grade awarded to teachers who have long experience and have shown exceptional professional competence. The small number of teachers with a Bachelor of Education is a result of universities opening up admission to experienced teachers to study part time in the last five years.

In general, most teachers have high professional qualifications, 46.1% have ATS while 51.8 have P1. For a teacher to acquire ATS status they are assessed over a period of time to prove their professional proficiency.

### 6.1.2 Head teachers

The head teachers were asked to indicate their experience as school heads. Their responses are shown in Table 6.4.



Table 6.4: Head teachers' Years of Experience

Years	1 -5	6 -10	11 - 15	16 and above	Total
(f)	25	18	7	1	51
%	49.0	35.3	13.7	2.0	100

\*3 head teachers did not respond to this question

About half 25(49.0) of the head teachers had an experience of between one and five years while the other half was between 6 and 15 years, only one head teacher had an experience above 16 years. This shows a balance between those at the beginning of their careers as head teachers and those who had long experience.

### Academic Qualifications

Figure 6. 2: Head Teachers' Highest Academic Qualifications

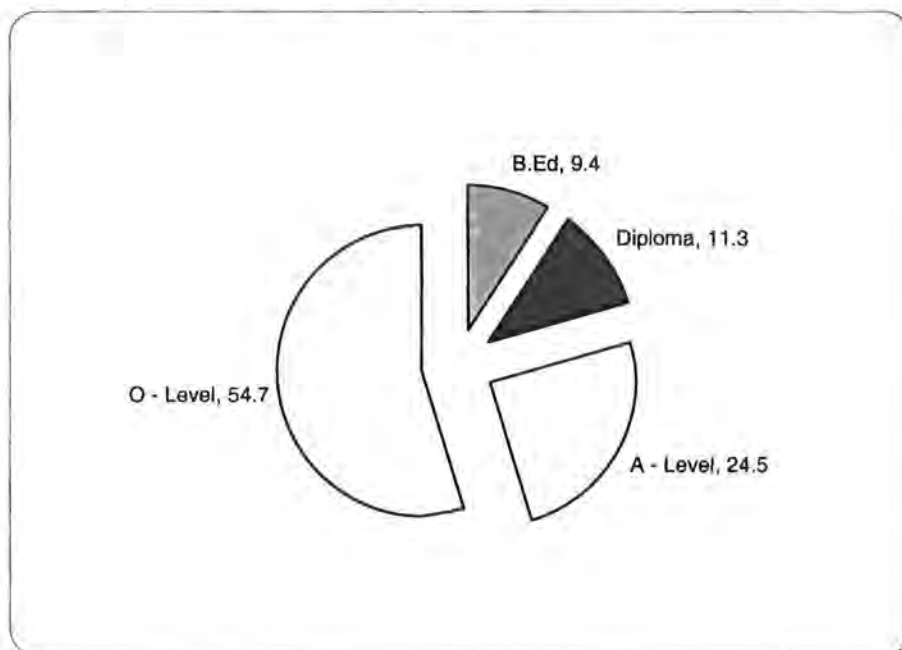


Figure 2 show that many of the head teachers (54.7%) had O- level qualifications.

Like in the teachers' case, this is because this was and still is the basic qualifications for entry to teacher training colleges in Kenya. In terms of professional qualifications, 3(5.7) were B.Ed graduates. 39(73.6) ATS, and 11(20.8) were P1.

This shows the possibility of head teachers who are both professionally and academically qualified as a factor that may contribute to effective administration in the school and in particular, in curriculum implementation. During the group

discussion with teachers, they expressed the desire to have better qualified people supervising them. However the supervisory role of the head teachers is not a focus of this study.

### 6.1.3 Quality Assurance and Standards Officers (Supervisors)

The supervisors were sampled at three levels, Ministry of Education, head, district and zone offices. Six supervisors at the head office and one at the district were interviewed. The district has 16 educational zones. All the 16 supervisors in charge of those zones were issued with questionnaires, 14 (87.5%) responded.

The responses from all the supervisors show that they were all teachers before being appointed supervisors. This is as per the recruitment criteria spelt out in the *Hand book for inspection of educational institutions* (see 6.2.3). All supervisors at the head office had taught at secondary school level, five at the zone level were former secondary school teachers while eight were former primary school. Their teaching and supervision experiences varied as shown in Tables 6.6 and 6.7.

Table 6.5: Supervisors' Teaching Experience

Years of teaching Experience	ZQASO	QASO
1-5	1	1
6-10	3	4
11-15	3	-
16- 20	4	1
21 and above	3	-

Table 6.6: Experience as Supervisors

Years of experience as supervisor	ZQASO Count	QASO Count
1-5	2	-
6-10	8	3
11-15	3	4
16-20	1	-
21 and above	-	-

The supervisors at the Ministry of Education head office; district and zone officers were experienced teachers and had many years of experience as supervisors. Their experience as teachers could be as a result of the selection criterion that requires one to have served as a teacher before being recruited as a supervisor (Republic of Kenya, 2000:6). The teachers seem to be in favour of supervisors who were former teachers and especially those who had primary school teaching experience. During the group discussions, they recommended that;

Experienced primary school teachers or teacher training college tutors should be promoted to be supervisors. These are the people who best understand primary education (TD).

In terms of academic qualifications, all the supervisors at the head office were B.Ed graduates, as were six out of the fourteen at the zone level and the other six held diploma certificates while one was an A- level graduate. The presence of supervisors with lower qualification than the policy requirement is a result of former recruitment criteria. Supervisors for primary schools were mainly former 'primary school head teachers who had excelled in administration and their subject areas' (Republic of Kenya, 2000a).

#### **6.1.4 Summary**

The response rate recorded in the study is high. The respondents are experienced and qualified for the post that they hold according to the specified criteria. It is therefore assumed they are qualified to comment on issues raised in the questionnaires, interviews and discussions, hence giving the data credibility.

## **6.2 Policy Documents**

### **6.2.1 Sources of Policy Guidance for Supervisors**

Literature on implementation of educational change reviewed in section 2.2.0 points to the discrepancies that exist between policy as intended and policy in practice (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Johns, 2002; Lieberman, 1998; Penny, et al.; Tunison, 2005). It was therefore imperative that the first task of this study was to establish the

policy/policies that guide instructional supervision in Kenya. This was done at two levels. In the first level, information was sought from supervisors at the Ministry's head office, district and zone levels on what guided them. In the second level, documents were sought from the Ministry of Education and analysed.

During interviews with supervisors at the Ministry of Education head office and district offices *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions* was cited by all the seven supervisors interviewed, schedule of duties by five, while circulars, personal experience were mentioned by one supervisor each. The Education Act was mentioned by the senior most supervisor interviewed who had this to say

The directorate is guided by the **Education Act**. This is where it gets its powers from. All other documents are based on the Education act. **The handbook** the main tool that QASOs use is guided by the Education Act. (ID).

The same question on what guides the supervisors was posed to the zone supervisors in the questionnaire. However, the zone supervisors were provided with four sources of guidance that were identified during the pilot testing of the questionnaires. They were asked to rank the four sources according to how important each was in guiding them in a scale of 1 to four, where 1 is the most important guide, 2 important, 3 slightly important and 4 the least important. The question required them also to include any other source that they use. Their mean ratings are presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.7: Sources of Guidance for QASOs/Supervisors

Source	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Education Act	14	1	4	2.14	1.167
Circulars from MoEST headquarters	14	1	4	2.29	1.069
Inspectors Handbook	14	1	4	2.43	1.222
Notes from induction courses	14	1	4	2.93	.997

Results in the table 6.7 show that the Education Act (2.14), Circulars from MoEST (2.29) and inspectors' handbook (2.43) are considered important sources of guidance by the supervisors. Notes from induction courses were ranked as slightly important. None of the guiding documents was listed as most important. A clarification on why this was the case was sought from the supervisors during the group interview. The

supervisors clarified that they did not consider the documents very important since they felt they were not in charge of their own schedules. They had this to say

The documents are good but our schedule is so **unpredictable** that the documents become of **little purpose**. What we do **depends** on the DEO. We wish for a time when the Directorate will **operate independently**.... We also **do a lot of things that are not in our schedule of duty**. Leading to the question of **why** we should even have the schedule anyway (SD).

The use of words such as 'unpredictable', 'depends' and 'operate independently' seem to indicate dissatisfaction. The concern is mainly not being able to be in charge of their programs. The supervisors felt that the only way they could be effective and the policy documents would be meaningful was by the directorate being made autonomous from the parent Ministry. This was also expressed by the senior supervisor interviewed:

challenges can be addressed if the directorate becomes autonomous. We need a quality and standards directorate that is independent (ID).

In addition to the sources that were provided in the closed ended question, the zone supervisors were requested to add any other documents they used to guide their work. They added the following:

- Kenya Education Sector Support Programme (KESSP)
- TSC code of regulations
- KNEC examinations handbook
- Current primary education syllabi

A search at the Ministry of Education yielded a list of policy documents similar to the one provided by supervisors with the addition inspectors' schedules. These are the documents that supervisors use, hence the need to analyse in order to establish the policy on supervision. However, the TSC code of regulations, KNEC examination handbook and current primary education syllabi are not discussed as they were found to have minimal reference to instructional supervision. The inspector's schedule of duty which is an outline of the duties they are expected to perform is also not discussed in details in this section. The schedule was found to be drawn from the Handbook. For details of the schedule of duty (see appendix 1).

In the analysis of the policy documents, the term inspector is used interchangeably with supervisor and quality assurance and standards officers (QASOs). This is because some of the documents published before the change of name in 2004 still refer to officers as inspectors. For purposes of clarity, where the documents use inspection, supervision will be put in brackets.

### **6.2.2 The Education Act, Cap. 211, Section 18. – A Source of Authority**

The laws governing education in Kenya are contained in the Education Act Chapter 211. Section 18 of the Act specifically deals with supervision of educational institutions. It is titled *Inspection and control of schools'* (Republic of Kenya, 1980). This is where DQAS the supervisory arm of the Ministry of Education draws its authority from.

According to the Education Act, CAP 211, Section 18, the Minister of Education confers the authority of inspecting (supervising) schools. This is done by;

1. ... appointing officers **with authority to enter and inspect any schools**, or any place at which it is reasonably suspected that a school is being conducted, at any time, **with or without notice**,....
2. ...appointing officers **with authority to enter any school at any time**, with or without notice and inspect or **audit the accounts** of the school or **advise** the manager of the school on the maintenance of accounting records, may temporarily remove any books or record for purposes of inspection or audit.
3. On being requested by an officer appointed under this section, the principal of the school shall place at the disposal of the officer all facilities, records, accounts, notebooks, examination scripts and other materials belonging to the school that the officer may reasonably require for the purpose of the **inspection of the school or inspection of audit** of its accounts.
4. An officer inspecting a school under this section shall have special regard to the **maintenance of educational standards and compliance with regulations**.... (Republic of Kenya, 1980:13).

Analyses of the four sections of the act that give the legal backing of supervising schools to the inspectorate/DQAS show that the main emphasis is on the authority conferred to the supervisors. The other functions that are stipulated are audit of accounts and other facilities In addition the Act sums up the main aim of inspection

of schools as maintenance of educational standards and ensuring compliance with regulations.

The approach to supervision as depicted by the Education Act mirrors the scientific approach (see 2.1.3.1) that tends to be authoritarian and bureaucratic (Evans, 1991; Morsher & Purpel, 1972). It is about control, accountability and efficiency. This is exemplified by the use of phrases such as authority **to enter and inspect any school at any time with or without notice**, requirement of the school manager of the school to put at their disposal all records and facilities and reference to compliance with regulations. It is probably this approach that for a long time has given the supervisors/inspectors in Kenya the label of *policing* schools and teachers. In a foreword to the directorate's annual newsletter, the Director of Quality Assurance and Standards explains that 'in the past the schools inspectors were seen as fault finders, police officers, poor listeners...' (Oyaya, 2006:4). The policing label was confirmed by teachers during the group discussion. Comments such as 'QASOs are very unfriendly'. One teacher vividly described how the QASOs enter a school. She had this to say:

The approach they use when they come to schools is **very scaring**. They come like there is **a state of war**. They **jump** from their vehicles even before they stop, go straight to class. That in itself is enough to put a teacher off. Their presence in class **scares the pupils**; they can not answer even the simplest question (TD).

Another teacher added:

Every time they visit a school, **teachers are left demoralised** that for two weeks following the visit no teaching takes place as teachers absorb **the shock and humiliation** by people who are supposed to be colleagues (TD).

Similar sentiments though on 'deteriorating quality of teaching and learning after inspection' rather than lack of teaching are cited by teachers in study by Chapman (2001:69). The reasons are however different as the Kenyan teachers cite demoralisation, shock and humiliation while the teachers in Chapman's study cite 'tiredness and lack of motivation' as reasons for the deterioration of quality of teaching and learning. The meeting point in the two studies is the fact that supervision/inspection had negative effects on the teachers' performance. Similar

observations are made by Case, P, Case, S. and Catling (2000) who report similar findings arising from the build up of pressure as a result of preparation for OFSTED inspection. Teachers in their study 'expressed a uniform dislike and distrust of the OFSTED process in general' (ibid: 612). What these findings seem to suggest is that it is the inspection process rather than the inspection itself that has the negative effect on the teachers.

The discouragement this teacher cites is supported by one of the supervisors at the Ministry's head office. Commenting on the supervisors' attitude, he said

The 'know' [sic] it all attitude that the inspectors used discouraged teachers. (S1 4).

Adding to the fault finding approach, another teacher in the group wondered:

Why should somebody who is supposed to guide, facilitate, advise and help behave like a police inspector? We do not need policing we need professional support (TD).

The strong words such as shock, scared, humiliation and demoralised are a demonstration of the effect the approach to supervision has on teachers. From the teachers' sentiments, one cannot fail to notice the use of words like colleague, advice, facilitate and help. These words in addition to depicting teachers' expectations also seem to suggest that teachers appreciate supervision when it is geared towards supporting them professionally but are not comfortable with the manner in which it is carried out. Expressing similar sentiments teachers who were quoted in an interview in a Kenya newspaper, *The Standard* depicted the inspector/supervisor as one to be feared with statements such as 'the mere mention of a school inspector was enough to make a teacher faint' while there was accusation of some supervisors harassing teachers 'in front of our pupils.' ([www.eastandard.net/](http://www.eastandard.net/) July 27<sup>th</sup> 2006).

Consequently, 'supervision without intimidation' is one of the things the teachers in this study cited they expected from the supervisors (TD).

Identifying with this image of supervision, the Director of Quality Assurance and Standards quoted in an article *The changing face of schools' Inspection*, in the same newspaper indicated that the negative image was to be replaced by good public relations, integrity, teamwork, trustworthiness, belief in others and courtesy. Similarly, during the group interview with teachers, they expressed the need for



'friendlier supervision being respected and treated like professional colleagues' by the supervisors (TD). However, they were sceptical about the directorate's change of approach and name. The teachers did not seem convinced that the change of name would amount to a positive approach to supervision. Further probing on the reasons of such deep suspicion was summed up by teachers in the following statements.

A rose will always have thorns, no matter how beautiful (TD).

A sheep does not become a goat just because you call it so. I have no description for these fellows (ibid).

Does a snake stop being one just because you have removed the fangs (ibid).

The comments made by teachers reflect their doubt on the change in approach by the supervisors. While the supervisors strongly believe they have changed and dropped the policing approach during supervisory visits, teachers do not seem to recognise the changes. This view held by the teachers could be as a result of several things. Notably, according to the supervisors, the change of name was not accompanied by training for the new role; secondly the structures and framework remained the same or probably it was too early for the teachers to have experienced the new approach and changed their attitude towards supervision. It is possibly noteworthy that data for this study was collected two years after the inspectorate changed to DQAS.

The teachers' concerns point to the need for good interpersonal skills that is consistent with democratic human approach to supervision (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005). It is for this reason that head teachers and teachers were asked their opinion on supervisors having strong interpersonal skills. The majority 43 (79.6%) of the head teachers strongly agreed, 10 (18.5%) agreed while one disagreed. On the other hand, most 212 (57%) teachers strongly agreed, 121 (32.4%) agreed, while only 25 (6.7%) disagreed and 16 (4.3%) strongly disagreed. This shows that majority of the head teachers and teachers prefer a supervisor who is friendly. Their perception of a friendly supervisor falls under Sergiovanni and Starratt's (2002) categorization of sources of authority for supervisors as professional, personal and moral. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt, these are sources of authority that can be used in combination or in isolation depending on the situation.

Based on the foregoing discussion, it can be concluded that the Education Act is meant to facilitate the work of supervisors by having access to schools all the time. However, the authority it manifests and the way it is interpreted and used seems to generate a negative attitude that may create barriers in instructional supervision.

### **6.2.3 The Handbook for Inspection of Educational Institutions -The Inspectors' Guide**

The handbook for inspection of schools is the 'first formal inspection guide ever produced in Kenya' (Republic of Kenya, 2000a: ii). It was also cited as an important guide by all the supervisors/inspectors. It is therefore analysed to establish the function that the supervisors are expected to perform.

#### **6.2. 3.1 Objectives of the Inspectorate**

The objectives of the inspectorate (DQAS) are captured in the following two broad objectives. These are:

- Achieving quality assurance through the inspection of institutions and reporting the inspections to the institutions and to the Ministry.
- Achieving quality development through the work of advisory services, provision of staff development opportunities and development of learning and teaching materials (Republic of Kenya, 2000a:4).

The objectives are also reflected in the mission and vision of the inspectorate. The mission is to 'establish, maintain and improve educational standards' while the vision is 'provide quality assurance feedback to stakeholders in all educational institutions' (Republic of Kenya, 2000a:2).

From the mission, vision and the broad objectives of the inspectorate, the functions that the department is expected to perform are:

- overall inspection/supervision of education and providing feedback
- provision of advisory services
- provision staff development opportunities
- development of learning and teaching materials

These functions bring out the multifaceted nature of supervision and the conflicting roles that supervisors play as brought out in literature. They are expected to carry out inspection which is evaluative and identified as the most controversial of the functions and at the same time offer advisory services. Contending with the situation supervisors find themselves in, Cooper (1982:1824) explains that the problem for supervisors is 'how to balance their conflicting roles as evaluators and helpers'.

### **6.2.3.2 Characteristics of an Effective Inspector- Supervisory Skills**

According to the handbook, the inspector / supervisor is defined as 'official of the Ministry of Education who identifies and provides feedback on strength and weaknesses in educational institutions, so that these institutions can improve on the quality of education provided and the achievements of their pupils' (Republic of Kenya, 2000a:5). From this definition, the role of the supervisor seems to be evaluative in nature but for purposes of improving education.

The criteria used to select and recruit the inspectors/ supervisors as stipulated are:

- Having a good track record in educational matters
- Be graduates or its equivalent, with at least three years of teaching experience.
- Show evidence of potential on inspectors' training
- Having ability to good practice in the field.

For purposes of inspection of primary schools, it is recommended that people with primary teaching experience and training be recruited as educational inspectors (Republic of Kenya, 2000a). During the group interview with teachers, it was strongly evident that they preferred a supervisor who was conversant with primary education teaching methods and were good teachers. The teachers indicated that an ideal supervisor should either be a former primary school teacher who had advanced both academically and professionally or an experienced teacher trainer. To use the words of one teacher:

We are sick and tired of being inspected by people whose only experience of primary schools is when they were pupils. How can one guide in something they do not understand? (TD)

I enquired the reasons for this kind of comment. Another teacher added:

It is only natural that those who supervise should be academically better than the supervised. They should also lead by example that is by being or having been good teachers. That way we can take their advice seriously and respect their judgements (TD).

Although the teachers were in favour of supervisors who had experience of primary education methodology, the data revealed that all six supervisors interviewed at the head office one at the district, and five at out of fourteen who responded to the questionnaire at the zone level were former secondary school teachers.

The third criterion is showing potential for inspector training. Lack of training for the supervisory role is identified as one of the inhibiting factors to effective supervision (Chan & Kleiner, 2000). The first post-independence commission on education in Kenya also identified the importance of training supervisors owing to what the Ominde commission termed as the 'complex nature of supervision' (Republic of Kenya, 1964a:124). Similar views are expressed by Kamuge and Koech commissions (Republic of Kenya, 1988a, 1999).

Supervisors were asked whether they were trained when recruited as supervisors. Out of the six senior supervisors interviewed, three had not been trained while those who were trained reported it was done eight, six and four years respectively after they were recruited. They indicated they learned what to do on the job. One supervisor commented that it was assumed that on recruitment at that senior level, 'one knew what to do' (SI 4) which according to him was not always the case. In contrast, only two supervisors out of 14 at the zone level indicated they were not trained. The 12 who were trained were asked to describe the kind of training they received. The training according to these officers was a form of induction, either formal or informal. The supervisors further clarified that the induction is usually focussed on the legal aspects of inspection/supervision of schools, management and report writing. No training was reported as a result of the inspectorate changing to DQAS.

Summing up their need for training, the supervisors at the zone level commented that whereas formal training was ideal, the informal inductions were more helpful as they tended to be more practical and frequent. This was in agreement with an observation

made by one supervisor at the head office who termed the formal training as ‘too theoretical and only good for purposes of getting a certificate but not practice’ (SD 3).

The use of ‘potential’ in respect to training is perhaps in recognition that in Kenya, supervisors are recruited from the teaching profession as there is no institution that offers supervision as a course of study. In spite of this, it is evident from supervisors’ responses that training is not always done or when done, it is usually done many years after the officer joined the directorate. When the training occurs as in the case of zone supervisors, it seems to concentrate on administrative aspects. An important component that seems to be missing from the reported aspects of training is the teaching/learning or curriculum implementation aspect.

In addition to the recruitment criteria, the handbook also stipulates other skills and knowledge that supervisors should possess (Republic of Kenya, 2000a). Supervisors in this study were asked to mention the skills and knowledge they thought a supervisor should have. The policy stipulations and the supervisor’s responses are presented in Table 6.8.

Table 6.8: Supervisory Skills per Policy and According to Supervisors

Skills/Knowledge as per policy	Supervisors’ responses on skill/knowledge
Be experienced and outstanding teachers	Be conversant with primary education pedagogical skills , good teachers
Good rapport with colleagues teachers	
Expert knowledge curriculum matters	Knowledge of their subject areas
Ability to write comprehensive and accurate reports	Report writing skills
Be a good time manager	Management/administrative/ assessment skills
Be resourceful and widely read	Be abreast with changing trends in instructional supervision.
Portray impartial judgement	Just/fair/accountable/transparent/honest/observant
Be conversant with government policies	Clear understanding of government policies
Have excellent interpersonal skills	Good public/interpersonal relations/communication

Keep abreast of changes taking place in education nationally and internationally	Research/data collection/analysis
	Computer skills

Comparing the two lists of skills and knowledge that the policy stipulates and the supervisors' responses, it is evident that supervisors understanding of the required skills and knowledge are in agreement with the policy stipulations. There are differences in that research and computer skills are added by supervisors to their list. The other notable difference is in management skills. While the handbook states time management the supervisors have expanded management skills to include administrative and assessment skills.

Looking at the skills and knowledge spelt out in the handbook and the supervisors' list and comparing them with the characteristics identified in the literature and discussed in 2.1.5.1, there is a notable similarity across the three. For instance in the literature, cognitive skills in teaching and learning, curriculum development, communication skills, human and group relations, mutual trust, listening and speaking skills, open and approachable and accepting diverse points of views are skills, knowledge and attitudes identified as constituting effective supervision (Alfonso et al., 1981; Blasé & Blasé, 2000; Harris, 1985; Mosher & Purpel, 1972; Pajak, 1990a).

In addition to the skills they thought were necessary, zone supervisors were asked if there were skills that they thought were necessary but lacked. The following were listed according to order of priority.

- Computer skills 5 (35.7%)
- Management / financial skills 3 (21.4%)
- Report writing / analytical 3 (21.4)
- Research skills 4 (28.6%)
- Primary education teaching methodology 2 (14.3%)

Further clarification on the skills lacking was sought during the group interview with the zone supervisors. The supervisors reported that provision of computers and report

writing skills would make their work faster and efficient. In addition, financial management skills would be helpful since they were expected to monitor the use of funds in primary schools. This is also a high priority spelt out in the Education Act (see section 6.1).

On primary education pedagogical skills, the supervisors explained the skills were needed mainly for assessment of teachers. Even those supervisors who had primary school teaching background indicated a need to have refresher courses. Summing up the need for the courses, one supervisor had this to say:

When most of us taught, the issue of multi-grade and multi-shift was not there, now it is the buzz word as a result of free primary education. There were no emerging issues, now they are there. How can I assess a teacher using these approaches when I have no idea what they are? (SD).

The skills that the supervisors reported were important but were lacking seemed to be those skills they needed in order to keep abreast with the both technological and educational changes. The skills they lacked are also consistent with those involved in the multiple roles that supervisors in Kenya play. For instance, financial management is a skill needed as a result of the expectation that they inspect and audit school accounts.

### **6.2.3.3 Skills in Curriculum**

Curriculum development is a skill required of supervisors by policy and is also well identified in literature (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Glickman et al., 2007, 1995; Pajak, 1990a). In addition, supervisors are expected to keep abreast with changes in education which they also identified as a skill they should have (see Table 6.8). These two are pertinent to this study since it is about supervision in a background of implementing a curriculum change. One way that supervisors can attain curriculum skills is by participating in curriculum development or being trained. It was therefore necessary to establish supervisors' knowledge of the curriculum whose implementation they were overseeing and whether they were trained.

#### a) Knowledge of Revised Curriculum

As discussed in 1.6.2, the primary education curriculum on which this study is based was a revised in 2003 and incorporates major changes from the preceding curriculum. It is also clear that supervisors are expected by policy to be experts in curriculum matters and be abreast with curriculum and educational changes. The supervisors' involvement in curriculum development was sought as was the zone supervisors' knowledge of the curriculum. This is because according to the administrative structure of the Ministry of Education, zone supervisors are expected to be in more contact with schools than the supervisors at the district or national level. This makes their being conversant with the curriculum important.

#### b) Participation in Curriculum Development

All the six supervisors interviewed at the Ministry's head office had participated in the development of the curriculum. This is explained by the fact that one of their main roles is to participate in subject panel meetings at the Kenya Institute of Education (Republic of Kenya, 2000a:7).

The supervisor interviewed at the district office had not participated in curriculum development but been inducted into the curriculum content. Out of the 14 zone supervisors, only three had participated in the actual development of the curriculum. Those who had not participated were asked if they were inducted into the curriculum. Ten of the supervisors who had not participated in the development of the curriculum reported they were inducted.

During the group interview with the supervisors, they expressed their dissatisfaction with the induction. They indicated that:

Induction was done in a hurry. Little time was given. The worst was that the training materials were not available (SD).

While they were expected to support the teachers in the implementation, they were not themselves sure of the changes in the curriculum. They pointed out 'we were inducting them on something that we were not sure about (ibid). This claim was supported by one of the very senior supervisors at the Ministry of Education head office. He regretted that the induction exercise was not well executed mainly due to



understaffing in the Ministry and inadequacy of time. It was further clarified that induction of all teachers and field officers had to be completed within a short period before the actual implementation of the curriculum in schools. It was therefore a crash program. Commenting on educational change, Hall and Hord's (2001:5) conclude that when change is done in a hurry 'there is no time to learn about and come to understand the new ways'. This may have been the case in the implementation of the revised curriculum revealed in the challenges that supervisors and teachers faced as presented and discussed in 8.2.

c) Knowledge of Revised Curriculum

The supervisors' knowledge of the revised curriculum was sought in terms of their familiarity with the:

- National goals of education
- Primary objectives
- Subjects in primary education
- Textbook policy

These four areas were major changes that were a departure from the previous curriculum.

The supervisors' responses are shown on Table 6.9

Table 6.9: Zone Supervisors Familiarity with Curriculum Changes

Change	N=14	Yes		No	
		(f)	%	(f)	%
National goals		6	42.9	8	57.1
Primary level objectives		8	57.1	6	42.9
Subjects		14	100	-	-
Text book policy		14	100	-	-

Results show that majority of zone supervisors were familiar with the change in subjects taught in primary education and the text book policy. Slightly above half were familiar with the national goals of education and the primary level objectives. A clarification was sought during the group interview. The supervisors explained that they knew the number of subjects but not the changes in subjects' content. This was proved in a follow up question which required them to indicate the changes they were familiar within the subjects. Only one supervisor out of the fourteen indicated real changes in the subjects although only in general terms. For example he mentioned the inclusion of care of the environment as an emerging issue. The

majority were familiar with the text book policy. The policy spells out what books are approved for the different subjects and how schools should choose and the procurement procedures. Their familiarity with text book policy could be associated with their involvement in monitoring the use of the free primary education fund provided to each school by the government.

On the national goals of education and primary level objectives, the supervisors reported that given the amount of work they had to do, they did not concentrate on them however they acknowledged their importance though 'time was just not there to follow the details' (SD).

Even those who claimed to be familiar with the goals and the objectives could not state any goal or objective or a general change that was effected. This cast doubt on their claim to familiarity and suggests they are not complying with the policy expectation that they should be experts in curriculum matters and keep abreast with changes in education nationally.

Similarly teachers indicated they were not keen on the national goals or the primary level objectives. One teacher had this to say

National goals! Who cares, I have too much work load. My interest is just going to class, deliver the **content and complete the syllabus**. After all that is what is checked. Are national goals examined? (TD).

The key issue according to the teachers is the delivery of the content and in so doing complete the stipulated syllabus content in the time. Supporting this, the supervisors reported that:

...teachers don't follow the syllabuses. They use textbooks to scheme, meaning they have no idea what objectives they should be covering (SD).

Subject content is an important component in the teaching/learning process. The supervisors, head teachers and teachers were asked to rate the importance of the supervisor having content knowledge of the subjects they observed in class. The majority, 92%, of the ZQASOs rated it as very important while one rated it as important. Four of the five supervisors interviewed at the head office indicated it was important while one thought all that one needed was to be conversant with the teaching methods appropriate in primary education. The head teachers and teachers

were equally in agreement that a supervisor should have knowledge of subject content. The majority of the head teachers 43 (79.6%) strongly agreed while 10 (18.5%) agreed, and only one disagreed. The same pattern was observed among the teachers 249 (66%) strongly agreed, 80 (21.2%) agreed, 9 (2.4%) disagreed while 10 (2.6) strongly disagreed. On average supervisors, head teachers and teachers were in agreement that supervisors should have content knowledge of subject they observe being taught. However, evidence in the district education office and information from the district supervisor does not show this expectation is realised. According to the district supervisor, there are supposed to be officers in charge of different subjects in the district office but there was a severe shortage of staff. The supervisors 'end up doing everything irrespective of their areas of specialization' (SI 6). The same pattern is repeated at the Ministry's head office where shortage of staff was also reported to be a big problem. Lack of content knowledge could have an implication on their ability to support or even effectively evaluate teachers as argued by Earley, Ouston & Davies. (1998).

#### **6.2.3.4 Roles of Inspectors**

The instructional supervisor in Kenya according to the handbook appears to have multiple roles (Republic of Kenya, 2000a:7). I have summarised the roles into four broad categories presented below.

1. Assessment;
  - Inspecting all educational institutions regularly and compiling appropriate reports.
  - Monitoring and advising on standards of education based on an all-round standard performance indicators
2. Advisory
  - Advising the government on the type and quality of education being offered in the country

- Advising stakeholders on education matters pertaining to curriculum delivery, assessment and provision of resources
- Advising the government on the trends in the learning institutions in areas such as equity, access, enrolment, curriculum delivery, learning and teaching materials, and curriculum evaluation, pre-service and in-service teacher training.
- Advising on the identification, selection and promotion of teachers in collaboration with Teachers' Service Commission

### 3. Curriculum

- Reviewing the learning and teaching materials in collaboration with Kenya Institute of Education (KIE)
- Advising on curriculum evaluation in collaboration with Kenya National Examinations Council (KNEC)

### 4. Administration.

- Participating in the presidential award schemes in collaboration with the office of the president.
- Providing career guidance to educational institutions.
- Establishing and maintaining registers of inspections.
- Maintaining annual action plans and three years strategic plans for inspection activities in the district and national levels
- Establishing and maintaining professional linkage with institutions of higher learning on matters of education standards

Although these roles are loosely classified, there are clear overlaps in the different functions that fall under each category and this perhaps explain the confusion and role dilemmas that were revealed in the literature and in which supervisors find themselves in. Harris (1985) attributes this confusion to instructional supervision not being related to the whole school system. In reality the performance of one role may

affect or influence the other. In advising the staffing arm of the ministry on selection and promotion of teachers, the supervisor will have performed an assessment and administrative role in addition to the advisory one. This trend is seen in most of the other roles that supervisors are expected to perform. One supervisor rightfully observed, 'you cannot assess if you have not set standards' (SI 3).

According to the director, the main responsibility of the supervisors 'is to ensure curriculum implementation among other roles'. He went on to add that 'they should understand their role and follow it to the letter' ([www.eastandard.net/](http://www.eastandard.net/) July 27<sup>th</sup>, 2006). The roles as defined in the handbook are all related to education but not necessarily directly related to curriculum implementation (teaching and learning). This seems to fit Harris's classification of the roles in to those that are 'instructional related' and providing supporting services and those that are 'highly pupil related' (Harris,1985:6)

Though the director seems categorical on the main role of the supervisors, the interrelationship as exhibited by the classification raises the question as to who exactly a supervisor is in the Kenyan context. Supervisors', head teachers' and teachers' views on who a supervisor is are discussed in the next section.

### **6.2.3.5 Description of a Supervisor**

#### **a. Supervisors' Description**

The *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions* Republic of Kenya (2000a:5) defines an inspector in the Kenyan context (see 6.2.3.2). Supervisors in this study were asked to define who they were. Among the senior supervisors who were interviewed, three described themselves as assessors, two as coordinators, one as a facilitator and the other as an advisor. The same question was asked during the group interview with the zone supervisors. These supervisors were in agreement that the right description was assessors. They saw the quality assurance and standards function as an assessment function.

To have **standards**, one has to carry out **assessment**; to ensure those standards are kept assessment is needed. What do you call that if not assessment all the way? (SD).

Although various descriptions were used; the word ‘assessment’ kept coming up during the interviews. This prompted me to ask the district supervisor what they exactly meant by assessment. The answer was in the form of this explanation:

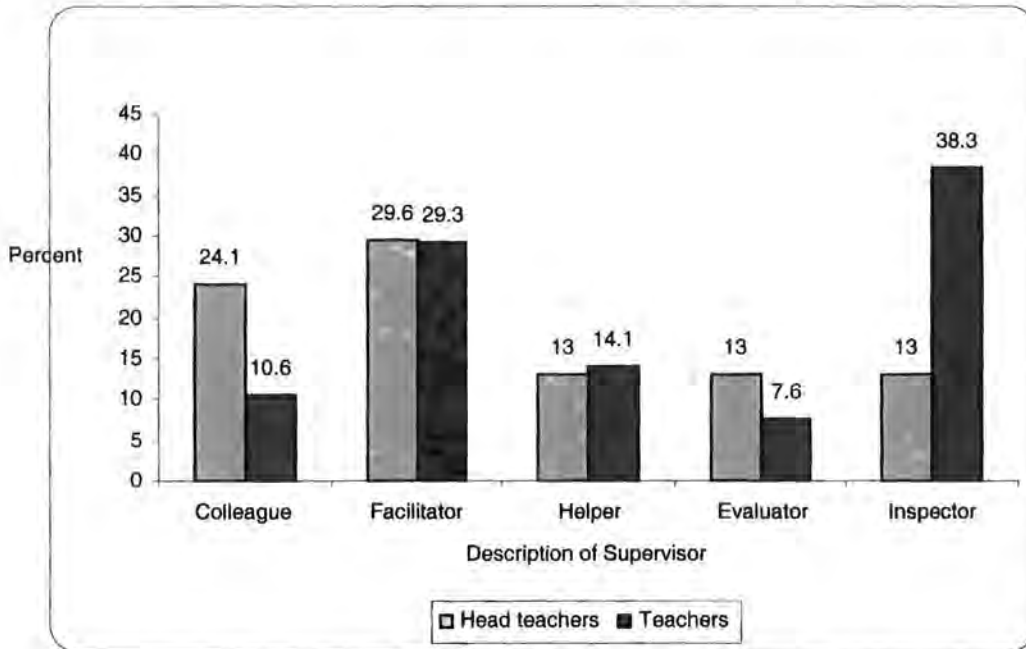
Previously there was the word **inspection** used since the colonial times. Just like the police inspector, when you inspect you are **not very friendly**, the word was changed to create a **friendly atmosphere**. ...when you **assess**; you also **share** and **learn** from the teachers in a friendly (SI 6).

The explanation shows that the word assessment is a substitute to inspection. It is perceived to be milder than inspection and friendlier. The sharing and learning depicts people who are at the same level, colleagues; it doesn’t show the supervisor as superior. This is a departure from the bureaucratic supervision to a more collegial supervision. As a result, the move is towards what Hall & Hord (2001:10) refer to as a horizontal approach ‘that recognizes that every person is an important member of the system’ and that for change to work ‘all actors need to be on the same plane with no one higher’. This approach contradicts the authoritative approach advocated in the Education Act.

#### **b. Head Teachers and Teachers’ Description of a Supervisor**

Head teachers and teachers were provided with a list of four words and asked to pick the one that best described the supervisor in their zone. The list was generated during the pilot study and from literature. The words were: colleague, facilitator/helper, evaluator, and inspector. Figure 6.3 below shows the head teachers and teachers’ descriptions.

Figure 6.3: Head Teachers' and Teachers' Description of Supervisors



Results on Figure 6.3 show that head teachers and teachers agree on supervisors as a facilitator or helper. However they tend to differ in the use of colleague and inspector. While 24.1% of the head teachers indicated a supervisor was a colleague, only 10.6% of the teachers held the same view. Similarly, while 38.3% of the teachers referred to the supervisors as an inspector, only 13% of the head teachers used the same term. This trend is repeated as 7.6% of the teachers see the supervisors as an evaluator as compared to 13% of the head teachers. Teachers and head teachers seem to perceive the role of the supervisors' differently. This provides some common ground for further discussion of the role of the supervisors' role among teachers and head teachers.

In addition to the four descriptive words, the head teachers and teachers were asked to add any other description that they would give their supervisor. Teachers used words such as fault finder, dictator, threatener (sic), disciplinarian, enemy, and guide. Out of the six word used by teachers to describe their zone supervisor; five had a negative connotation.

This corresponds with Gordon's observation (in Glickman et al., 2007:7) that 'when teachers were asked to make a word association with instructional supervision, most of

the associations have been negative'. In Gordon's list there are words that are similar to the ones used by the teachers as shown in the list below.

<b>Kenyan teachers</b>	<b>Gordon's list</b>
Fault finder	Control, consistently under watch,
Dictator	big brother, bureaucrat, authority, directive
Threatener	anxiety, control, negative
Disciplinarian	rules, intimidating,
Enemy	unrealistic, restricting, irrelevant
Guide	control, guidelines, evaluation

Unlike the teachers, the head teachers did not add other descriptive words other than those provided in the closed question. Only one head teacher added the word 'mentor'.

In comparing the teachers' responses in the closed question to the descriptions of the supervisors and the descriptions they gave in the open question a number of discrepancies are revealed. The teachers' descriptions in the open question are all negative except one while in comparison the head teachers were positive with only one head teacher adding mentor to the list, which is a positive description. It is possible that the descriptions given earlier did not reflect their perception of the supervisors. The open question gave them a chance to express their thoughts.

Differing from the teachers' view, the supervisors reported they thought they had moved from the not friendly approach to supervision to a friendlier one. The supervisors' perceptions of the change in approach to supervision are exemplified in the quotations below, where the key words are highlighted.

Attitude has changed, we have become **friendlier**. We are no longer **fault finders** (SI 1).



... we **no longer do inspection** but quality assessment...(SI 2).

This was an **accusing kind of language, as QASO we know longer use**. We see ourselves as **quality assessors than inspectors**. The aim of supervision is to **help** teachers become **better** in order to **improve quality** and hence achievement of objectives of education (SI 3)

...approach to work has changed. (...) the public used to associate us with police inspectors. The attitude teachers had of the **inspector** was that of somebody who comes to **terrorise**. This has now changed. We **dialogue** with the teachers as **colleagues**. We are **friender**, although some officers have not changed (SI 4).

Considering the above comments by supervisors, they seem to be convinced that their approach to supervision is now friendly, positive and aimed at helping teachers improve. They also seem to make a distinction between inspection and assessment, by using friendlier language and dialogue. Supervisors also seem to believe that teachers recognise the change in approach. However this contradicts the teachers' views as portrayed in their description of supervisor.

Considering the different descriptive terms given by supervisors, head teachers and teachers, assessor/evaluator and facilitator/advisor/guide were common among the three groups. Similar categorization is seen in Beach and Reinhartz (2000:16) who also add leader, planner, motivator, communicator, decision maker, and change agent to their list. These are roles that I see as summed up in the two broad categories of administration and supervision depending on the task at hand. This differs from Harris's clear cut categorization of the two functional areas (Harris, 1985:6).

#### **6.2.3.6 Inspection /Supervisory Procedure**

The steps that inspectors are supposed to follow are spelt out in the Handbook (Republic of Kenya 2000a:11-13). One thing that is clear is the need to inform the institution being inspected to enable them prepare for the inspection. This contradicts the entry 'with or without notice' that is prescribed in the Education Act.

Clarification on this was sought during the interview with the district supervisor. He explained the discrepancy in terms of the purpose of inspection. If the inspection was for purposes of finding out what is happening in the school, then, he said giving notice will not yield results. He gave an example of establishing teachers' absenteeism or lateness. In such a case if notice was given, 'everything you observe would be stage managed' (S1 6).

The handbook also specifies how the supervisors should enter a school and the need to meet with teachers and other stakeholders. In addition, it gives a format for report writing, outlines the areas to be covered during inspection/supervision.

Although the handbook covers general school inspection, for purposes of this study, only those directly related to teaching and learning and implementation of curriculum are presented in this section. In this respect, the inspection/supervision team is supposed to focus on the following areas:

- Staffing paying attention to the teacher-pupils ratio
- Provision of textbooks, their accessibility, utilisation
- Examination performance
- School/community relations
- Subject panels and key resource teachers.
- Individual teacher observation.

Out of the five functions, observing teachers in class seems to be given greater emphasis going by the details on the procedure. Though given this emphasis, as will be shown in chapter eight, teachers themselves do not regard it as important. This contrasts with the supervisors who rate it as very important and the head teachers who rated it as important.

While carrying out observations, they are expected to focus on a teacher's professional records such as lesson plans, schemes of work, pupils' performance records. In addition follow the development of the lesson in class in order to capture the overall quality of the lesson. Among the key areas of observation is curriculum knowledge and interpretation. Provision of feedback is given emphasis. After a lesson observation, the teacher and the inspector are supposed to discuss the lesson together. The discussion is supposed to be mutual and not 'negatively judgemental' (Republic of Kenya, 2000a:39). The teacher and the inspector/supervisor are expected to come to an agreement on the strength and weaknesses and ways of addressing them. This is an approach that proponents of clinical supervision such as Acheson & Gall (2003); Beach & Reinhartz (2000) Glickman et al.. (2007) and Sullivan & Glanz (2005) encourage as the supervisor and the teacher look at the supervisory data together and objectively for purpose of improvement. This practice

is one of the factors that contribute to effective supervision as observed by Zepeda & Ponticell (1998).

Pre-observation and post-observation meetings between supervisors and teachers is emphasised both in the Handbook Republic of Kenya (2000a) and in the literature (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glickman et al., 2007; Lovel & Wiles, 1985; Sergiovanni & Starratt 2002). Information gathered from the supervisors, head teachers and teachers showed variation in accounts of what actually happens. While the supervisors reported pre-observation were held frequently and post-observation very frequently, head teachers and teachers reported they were rarely performed. This is despite the clarity in the handbook on the need for supervisors and teachers to meet and detail on how a inspection report should be written in order to be helpful to teachers and schools (Republic of Kenya, 2000a:34-40). Feedback is an important part of the supervisory process which the teachers value (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Blasé & Blasé, 2004). In the group interview, teachers in this study expressed the need for feedback 'we expect to get positive comments about our work, not negative all the time'. However, as will be demonstrated later in section 8.1.7, the feedback given after class observations does not seem to tell the teacher much. Demonstrating the importance of feedback given to teachers after class observation, Chapman (2001:69) in his study on impact of OfSTED inspections on classroom change concluded 'that feedback may be the key to inspection impacting on classroom practice' but noted that 'most cases of feedback appear to be short, non-formative positive reassurances of teaching quality'. Similar observations are made in this study where written feedback of lesson observations are in short statements such as 'improve in all areas' 'lesson well delivered', 'scheme of work does not include all columns' (see Appendix 16).

The supervisors at the head office reported that after inspection a staff meeting is held with all the teachers to highlight areas that needed improvement and those areas that were done well. Meeting between a teacher and a supervisor they said were rare mainly due to lack of enough time. While supervisors visit a district, they have to inspect/supervise as many schools as possible.

The supervisors' comments and the findings reported in section 8.1.7 suggest lack of meaningful feedback that and may contribute to the significant differences in the perceptions of its importance with teachers perceiving it as slightly important, head teachers as important and supervisors as very important.

In summary, the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions* is a comprehensive document that covers a wide range of functions that the supervisors are expected to carry out. It makes a major source of information on the instructional supervisory functions the supervisors are expected to carry out and how they should be carried out. The clarity of the supervisory functions as laid out in the Handbook is almost unquestionable; however, it is the actual performance that may be questionable. This has been revealed by comparing the recommendations of the Handbook with informants' views and will be further discussed in the section on actual performance of supervisory functions.

#### **6.2.4 The Kenya Education Sector Support Programme 2005 – 2010 – Investment Plan.**

The Kenya Education Sector Support programme (KESSP) is a policy document on investment in education. It is a sequel to *Sessional paper NO. 1 of 2005 on a policy framework for education, training and research* (Republic of Kenya, 2005a.). It comprehensively spells out the government's expenditure in all sectors of education. KESSP recognises the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards as key in advancing the government's agenda of providing education opportunities to all Kenyan children. This is in line with the poverty eradication and economic recovery strategies, ideals that the Kenya government is committed to (Republic of Kenya, 2005b). It also shows how education policy is part of a wider social policy.

The core function of the DQAS is summarised as quality assurance which 'entails effective monitoring of curriculum delivery in schools to ensure effectiveness' (Republic of Kenya, 2005b:211). It goes on to elaborate that to 'realise effective curriculum delivery, DQAS is expected to provide advisory services to schools on how best to improve their teaching' (ibid). Among the functions that are supposed to be conducted by DQAS are:

- Conducting subject-based content mastery improvement and pedagogical skills upgrading training.
- Monitoring school level curriculum delivery to determine existing discrepancies in instruction methodology and areas that need attention.
- Undertaking continuous research to determine the quality of education being offered.
- Institutionalising of monitoring learning achievements in lower primary.
- Developing school capacities to manage their own improvement plans through teacher supportive initiatives.
- Establishing a formalized system of in-service training for teachers at all levels
- Re-activation of subject panels at the school level (Republic of Kenya, 2005b:213).

Considering the core functions of DQAS as stipulated in KESSP, the same trend as in the Handbook is noticed. The functions are both evaluative and advisory. Analysis of the list of supervisory functions compares well with the functions spelt out in the Handbook. The seven functions can be grouped into:

- professional and group development
- evaluation/assessment
- action research

What sets aside KESSP from the documents discussed earlier is the break down of the functions into specific activities. For instance on the in-service training of teachers, it is specific about conducting subject based mastery improvement and pedagogical skills upgrading training. It also specifies the budgetary allocation for the various activities. Consequently, KESSP's vision of supervision cannot be ignored given the heavy financial investment in the program.

A difference is also seen in the reason for monitoring or assessing curriculum delivery. While in the Act and Handbook it is mainly evaluative to ensure compliance with regulations, in KESSP it is for purposes of identifying areas that need attention. This is a departure from faultfinding to identifying teachers' needs in order to assist them improve. In addition developing school capacities to manage

their own improvement through teacher supportive initiatives and re-activation of subject panels portrays a more collaborative approach. Given that this is the most current document guiding supervision in Kenya, one cannot help to notice the shift in the different times the policy documents were written, the Act (1980) and the Handbook (2000). A change from the authoritarian scientific bureaucratic approach to supervision (see 2.1 3.1) that is supervisor centred to a more inclusive approach falls under the collaborative model of supervision discussed in 2.1.4.4. Agreeing with this approach to supervision, Sergiovanni & Starratt (2002:5) assert that supervisors need to 'support need to engage in the supervisory function for themselves as part of daily routine'. Sharing similar views on the importance of collaboration between supervisors and teachers are Blasé & Blasé (2000), Wanzare & da Costa (2000) and Zepeda (2005). Correspondently, inspectorial fault-finding approach is identified as negative in supervision by Blumberg (1980). Sergiovanni & Starratt (2002) and Zepeda (2005).

### **6.2.5 Circulars**

Supervisors at all levels as discussed in 6.2.1 mentioned circulars as some of the documents that guided them in their duties. During my interaction with the supervisors, they indicated that many times circulars are sent to address issues as they arise. This prompted me to find out what kinds of circulars were available at the district office. The decision of checking circulars at the district office was because it is at this level that decisions made at the Ministry's head office are implemented. Secondly, the presence of the circulars at the head office may not necessarily mean they were sent to the district office. Policy decisions made at the Ministry of Education head office are sent to the district education offices for implementation in the schools.

It was therefore at the district office that I requested the files that contained circulars related to curriculum implementation or supervision in general. A file *Ref.A/2/IA/Vol.11/47* that covered the period between 2003 and 2006 was put at my disposal. Although the file covered the period from 2003, the first entry was an inspection report sent from the district office to national office on 28<sup>th</sup> June 2004.

When i enquired about the time before this, the officers were categorical there was no other file in use except the one that was at my disposal.

Most of the communications between the national and the district offices were mainly on inspection reports, either the routine inspection or reports of inspection of schools for purposes of registration. The others contained annual reports, notices of meetings, courses, and seminars either for the supervisors or teachers.

There were also several circulars with instructions on free primary education and especially use of funds provided to schools and accounting for the same.

However, there was one circular that provided information on various issues related to the revised primary education curriculum. The issues covered were:

- The testing policy
- Textbook policy and ratio
- Availability of the syllabuses
- Integration and infusion of emerging issues in different subjects, and
- Teaching of subjects that are not examined externally.

This information is about evaluation of the curriculum, teaching and learning of teaching materials, and changes in the curriculum. Although the information contained in the circular was important at the commencement of the implementation of the revised curriculum in 2003, this circular was dated 2005, three years after the implementation of the revised curriculum commenced.

This prompted me to find out the kind of information schools received from the district or zone education offices.

In the five schools visited, most of the information received from the district or zone offices was on the implementation of the free primary education program especially guidelines on the use of resources and auditing of the finances. Those that were curriculum related were from KIE and were mainly on broadcast to schools, either time table or guidelines. Others were from Teachers Service Commission but were not related to curriculum implementation or supervision. They were mainly on the teachers' annual, maternity or study leaves.

It is apparent that although circulars are available in both district office and schools, only a few were directly related to curriculum implementation. General inspection of schools and management of FPE funds seem to be the main focus.

### **6.2.6 Summary**

Analysis of these policy documents shows that while the main aim is the improvement of teaching and learning by monitoring curriculum implementation the difference is in the areas that they give emphasis to. Based on the foci of the different policy documents, I categorize them into three groups. These are:

- Legal (In this category is the *Education act*).
- Procedural (*Handbook for inspection of educational institutions*, Inspectors' schedule of work, circulars)
- Supportive (KESPP)

The most comprehensive among them is the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions* that supervisors refer to as the 'inspectors' handbook'. It details the legal status of inspection/supervision as spelt in the *Education act*, the role and qualities of an effective inspector/supervisor, the functions that supervisors are expected to perform, procedures to be followed and treatment of the outcomes of inspection/supervision which are report writing and dissemination. However, it is noted that though the directorate reports to be reforming to improve its image and be friendly to teachers, the handbook is based on the old face of supervision (inspection).

The next section summarizes the supervisory functions that supervisors are expected to perform according to the existing policies.

### **6.3 Summary of Supervisory Functions as Per Existing Policies.**

The policy documents analysed have give an insight into the policy expectations in instructional supervision in Kenya. Although the documents give emphasis on specific issues, they have a common binding factor which is improvement of teaching and learning. There are also similarities and issues that are repeated in



almost all the documents. It is on this basis that this section summarises these functions answering research question (2).

### **6.3.1 Curriculum Related Functions**

All functions that are discussed in the policy documents relate to one aspect of the school or the other. However there are those that are more related to curriculum implementation than others. In general, all the documents analysed and information gathered from the supervisors are in agreement that the main aim of supervision is to improve teaching and learning. Towards this end, the supervisors are expected to participate in curriculum development. The curriculum related functions that have been identified in the policy documents are:

1. Chairing subject panels in their subject areas.
2. Reviewing the learning and teaching materials.
3. Monitoring curriculum implementation in their subject areas. The functions they expected to perform are:
  - Monitoring teaching and learning, in particular school level curriculum delivery, to determine existing discrepancies in instruction methodology and areas that need attention.
  - Assessing the interpretation of the curriculum by the teachers
  - Analysing teachers needs with the view of conducting in-service courses and establishing a formalized system of in-service training for teachers at all levels.

These could be subject-based content mastery improvement and pedagogical skills upgrading training.

- Providing of in-service training and general staff development
- Observing individual teachers for promotion, identifying weakness for purposes of rectifying and for routine assurance of curriculum delivery
- Appointing and supporting of subject panels and key resource teachers at the school level
- Liaising with KNEC on matters relating to examination in their subject

### **6.3.1.1 Assessment**

The assessment function has featured prominently in policy documents and also in the supervisors' interpretation of their role.

The assessment function has many facets in the policy documents. Some are general while others are specific. Under assessment, the supervisors are expected to:

- Monitor and advice on standards of education based on an all-round standard performance indicator. The indicators are not specified.
- Inspect all educational institutions regularly and compile appropriate reports and provide feedback to the institutions inspected and the Ministry of Education. The reports and feedback are to inform the government on trends in education institutions in equity, access, curriculum evaluation, pre- service and in-service training of teacher.
- Check the legal requirement that all educational institutions are registered by the Ministry of Education before they can operate. The supervisors inspect such institutions to ascertain they have met all the requirements. This also applies to school requiring starting a new subject.
- Follow-up previous inspections to ensure recommendations are acted on.
- Assess the teacher-pupil ratio

### **6.3.1.2 Advisory**

- Advising the government on the type and quality of education being offered in the country
- Advising stakeholders on education matters pertaining to curriculum delivery, assessment and provision of resources
- Advising the government on trends in the learning institutions in areas such as equity, access, enrolment, curriculum delivery, learning and teaching materials, and curriculum evaluation, pre-service and in-service teacher training.

### **6.3. 2. Administration**

- Participate in the identification, selection and promotion of teachers and advisors in collaboration with TSC.
- Provide career guidance to educational institutions.
- Establish and maintain registers of inspections.
- Maintaining annual action plans and strategic plans for inspection activities in the district and national levels
- Promote school community relations
- Develop school capacities to manage their own improvement plans through teacher supportive initiatives
- Undertake continuous research to determine the quality of education being offered.

### **6.3.3 Conclusion**

The functions that supervisors are expected to perform are multiple. This means that the supervisor is expected to have different competencies in order to perform the different tasks. This raises the question of whether the initial qualifications required for recruitment to the supervisory service are sufficient.

The other issue that comes to question is that of the foci of supervision. While all the tasks the supervisors are expected to perform are related to the well being of the school, some are more directly related to teaching and learning than others. There is also a clear overlap between different functions. Some functions also seem to contradict other functions. These are issues that will be discussed in the next section that looks at the actual performance of the supervisor

### **6.3.4 Section Summary**

In this section the policy documents that the supervisors consider as their guide were identified. Although the policy documents give a direction on the functions

supervisors are expected to perform, they lack clarity on instructional supervision when an educational change is being implemented. Some functions such as in-service training of teachers and monitoring curriculum implementation could be implied and used during implementation of change; there is no explicit reference of functions that are specifically for change implementation. As a result, there is need for a school based investigation on how teachers cope with implementing educational changes.

It is apparent that the more specific and clear a policy document is the more widely it is used - as exemplified by the reported use of the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions*. However, the relevance of the documents over time in a dynamic society and in times of implementing an educational change is questionable. There is need therefore for a revision of the current policy on supervision in order to make it relevant to changes in teaching and learning and in education on general.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

### SUPERVISORY PRACTICES AND EXPECTATIONS

#### 7.0 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the policies that guide supervision and the supervisory functions that supervisors are expected to perform have been discussed. This chapter examines the reported actual performance of supervisory functions.

Studies on educational policies and educational reforms by Ball (1998), Penny, et al. (2008); Darling-Hammond (1998), Kennedy (2004) Lieberman (1998), Osborn (2000) and Tunison (2005) show that policy as planned and policy in practice are different most of the time. It is on this basis that actual performance of the supervisory functions is sought from supervisors, head teachers and teachers.

#### 7.1 Actual Supervisory Functions Performed.

##### 7.1.1 Actual Supervisory Functions as Reported by Supervisors.

The zone supervisors were asked what functions they carried out. Their responses are shown in table 7.1

Table 7.1: Actual Functions as Reported by ZQASO

Functions	(f)	% N=14	Rank
Coordinate co-curricular activities	9	64.3	1
Assessing education standards	8	57.1	2
Coordinating supervision and invigilation of examinations	8	57.1	2
Advising, teachers, parents and stakeholders	8	57.1	2
General administration	6	42.9	5
Assessing schools for registration	6	42.9	5
Advising teachers on curriculum implementation	3	21.4	7
Overseeing ECD activities	2	14.3	8

% does not add up to 100 due to multiple responses

Data on Table 7.1 reveals that zone supervisors performed more administrative function as compared to assessment and advisory ones.

The actual functions that the supervisors at the head and district offices reported to be engaged in are recorded below in a progressive order from the most mentioned to the least mentioned. These are:

- Quality assessment, mentioned by five out of seven supervisors.
- Curriculum development and evaluation was reported by four of the supervisors as a main function they perform.
- Only two supervisors indicated that overseeing curriculum implementation, staffing and in-service training as functions they performed while
- Quality maintenance was reported by only one supervisor.

In terms of priority functions, all supervisors interviewed indicated assessment as a priority function. This confirms an earlier observation that supervisors consider themselves assessors (see 6.2.3.7).

A comparison of the reported actual supervisory functions performed by the zone supervisors and the supervisors at the Ministry head and district offices presented in Table 7.2 show only two functions common in the two groups. These are quality assessment that is ranked second by the zone supervisors and first by the supervisors at the head office. Although overseeing curriculum implementation is one of the functions that supervisors are expected to perform according to policy and discussed in 6.2.3.4, they do not seem to regard it as priority. It is ranked last by both groups.

Table 7.2: Actual Functions Reported by all Supervisors

Zone Supervisors		Supervisors at head & district offices	
Actual Function	Rank	Actual Function	Rank
Co-ordination Co-curricular activities	1	Quality assessment	1
Assessing education standards	2	Curriculum development & evaluation	2
Advising teachers, parents and stakeholders	3	In-service training	3
Coordinating examinations	4	staffing	4
General administration	5	Quality maintenance	5
Assessing schools for registration	6	Overseeing curriculum implementation	6
Advising teachers on curriculum implementation	7	-	-
Overseeing ECD activities	8	-	-

### 7.1.1.1 Priority Supervisory Functions

Among the functions that the supervisors indicated they carried out, they were asked which they considered as priorities. The following activities were listed by the zone supervisors as priority areas. They are:

1. Quality assessment/assessing education 11 (78.6)
2. Assessing teachers 5 (35.7)
3. Advising teachers on curriculum 4 (28.6)
4. In-service 1 (7.1)
5. Administrative duties 1 (7.1)

The priority areas listed by the zone supervisors are a further confirmation that assessment is highly placed among the functions that supervisors perform. The majority 11 (78.6) of the zone supervisors reported assessing education standards was a top priority as compared to only four out of the fourteen who listed advising teachers on curriculum implementation as a priority. Observation of teachers in class as they taught, which they also referred to as assessing of teachers, was cited by five of supervisors.

Five of the supervisors interviewed at the head office and one at the district office reported assessment/inspection as a top priority function. A senior supervisor also indicated quality assessment as a core function of the directorate (ID).

The supervisory functions that supervisors at the Ministry's head and district offices reported to perform are the same functions they cited as priorities when ranked according to the number of supervisors that cited each. Table 7.3 shows the priority supervisory functions and their rankings.

Table 7.3 Priority Functions as Reported by all Supervisors

Zone Supervisors		Supervisors at Head & District offices	
Function	Rank	Function	Rank
Quality assessing/ assessing education	1	Quality assessment	1
Assessing teachers	2	Curriculum development & evaluation	2
Advising teachers on curriculum	3	In-service training	3
In - Service	4	staffing	4
Administration duties	5	Quality maintenance	5
	-	Overseeing curriculum implementation	6

The top priority in the two groups of supervisors is assessment. The zone supervisors treated assessment of teachers as separate from the general assessment and ranked it second. Curriculum development and evaluation was second among the head office and district supervisors and third among the zone supervisors while overseeing curriculum was the last in the list by the supervisors in the head office. Commenting on their priorities, the director indicated:

Quality assessment is our priority. However, in my own opinion, I feel KIE should take the **lead in preparing teachers for curriculum implementation**. They are the **best placed**. Though we work together in subject panels, their main duty is curriculum development. Therefore they **understand** the curriculum better than anybody else (ID).

The director's comment on who should prepare teachers for implementation of a curriculum change is an indication of his awareness for the need to focus on the role of the other departments that are involved in curriculum provision in particular KIE that develops the curriculum and KNEC that evaluates it.

Given the functions the supervisors have indicated are priorities it can be argued that the assessment function is the most important. Correspondingly, when the supervisors were asked to use one word to describe themselves, assessor and evaluator are among the words they used as discussed in 6.2.3.7. This could imply that the supervisors are still influenced by the traditional approach to supervision that falls under the scientific management style that is discussed in 2.1.3.1 and amplified in the *Education act*. This is the approach that the directorate is reported working towards changing. In scientific management, a supervisor oversees the work of the subordinates and assesses their performance. If the supervisors in Kenya are using this style of management, then there is a missing link. Training in scientific management is emphasised so that the workers can produce. However, training of both supervisors and teachers in the tasks they are expected perform is wanting. They reported teachers as not having had adequate training for the implementation of the revised curriculum as discussed in 6.2.2.2 and 7.2.1.

#### **7.1.1.2 Policy Expectations and Functions Performed.**

Supervisors were asked whether there was a difference between the actual function they performed and the policy expectations. In the questionnaire for the zone



supervisors 9 (69.2%) of the supervisors indicated that there were differences. This was confirmed during the group interview as portrayed in this quote:

What we are **expected** to do is **clear**. This is not what always happens. The **practice is different**... (SD).

The words highlighted in the quotation show that the zone supervisors are aware of what the policy expects them to do. However, they acknowledge that the situation in practice is different.

...**having the documents** is one thing and **what we do is another**. The documents are **good** but our schedule is so **unpredictable** that the documents become of little purpose (SD).

Supervisors at the head office concurred with their zone counterparts that policy expectations and actual practice differs as depicted in the following quotes.

While there is **what we are expected to do**, the **practice may slightly differ** largely due to the **many tasks** one officer is expected to carry out. (SI 1).

The handbook has the best of **intentions** but when you go out the **situation dictates** what you do. (SI 2).

Our duties are well **stipulated** however there are **many interfering factors** (SI 3).

There is difference in what I am **expected** to do and what I **do** (SI 4).

We also tend **to deviate** from the script to **meet the demands** of the time (SI 5).

When they were asked the reasons for the differences, they listed the following:

- Heavy workload
- Conflicting roles
- Too many administrative duties and too much data to be collected
- Ignorance of school managers leading to supervisors doing tasks that should be handled by school managers.
- Unpredicted events
- Staff shortage

All the limitations resulting in differences between the policy expectations and the actual functions carried out seem to be administrative. Issues of staff shortage and assignment of duties that the supervisors have reported to be limitations may be a product of the administrative structure of the Ministry as portrayed by the supervisors in the following quote:

What we do **depends on the DEO**. We wish for a time when the directorate will **operate independently**. The district QASO should have a separate budget from the DEO's. It is only then that we can run our programmes without **interference**. The documents will then be of significance. We also do a lot of things that are not in our schedule of duty (SD)

In the Ministry of Education, the head office, which is the administrative arm, and the directorate of quality assurance and standards which is the supervisory arm, are separate entities. In contrast, at the district level, the DEO is the executive officer in charge of all aspects of education in the district. The supervisors seem to be questioning the structure of the Ministry of Education where they are under the DEO who is mainly an administrator. They see this as a limitation on their work and yearn for autonomy of the directorate.

### **7.1.2 Summary**

The responses from the supervisors show that they are aware of the functions they are supposed to perform according to policy, though their actual practice is different. This finding confirms what Vidorich and O'Donoghue (2003) concluded about policy and practice that the differences in policy expectation and practice are largely a result of the conditions under which the policies are implemented and not a lack of awareness of the expectation by the implementers. Conditions cited by the supervisors, such as shortage of staff, the many roles that they are expected to play and lack of facilities may affect their performance, and is bound to influence the implementation of the policy expectations.

In an environment of an educational change such as the curriculum change that this study is based on, the difference may be amplified as Morrison (1998:15) comments, 'change involves people rather than content'. Many writers and researchers on policy have developed similar arguments while trying to define policy in expectation and policy in practice (Ball, 1994; Bredeson & Kose, 2007; Chrysos, 2000; Coldren &

Spillane, 2007; Guba, 1985; Tunison, 2005). This creates the need for thorough examination of what needs to be implemented against the people and resources.

## **7.2 Actual Performance as Reported by Head Teachers and Teachers**

Head teachers and teachers are the recipients of the supervisory functions that supervisors perform. In both the head teachers' and teachers' questionnaires, there was no question that directly asked them the actual functions that supervisors performed. This was done deliberately. During the pilot testing of the questionnaires, there was a question asking the teachers and head teachers to list the actual functions that supervisors perform. The teachers' attitude towards the supervisors was evident as majority of the teachers who responded indicated that supervisors performed no supervisory role. The question was removed from the questionnaire. The actual instructional supervisory functions performed by supervisors are inferred from responses to other questions.

In the head teachers' and teachers' questionnaires, three questions were used to make these inferences. These were whether they were in-serviced in preparation for the implementation of the revised curriculum, the support they get from the supervisors in the implementation of the curriculum and the frequency of performance of selected supervisory roles.

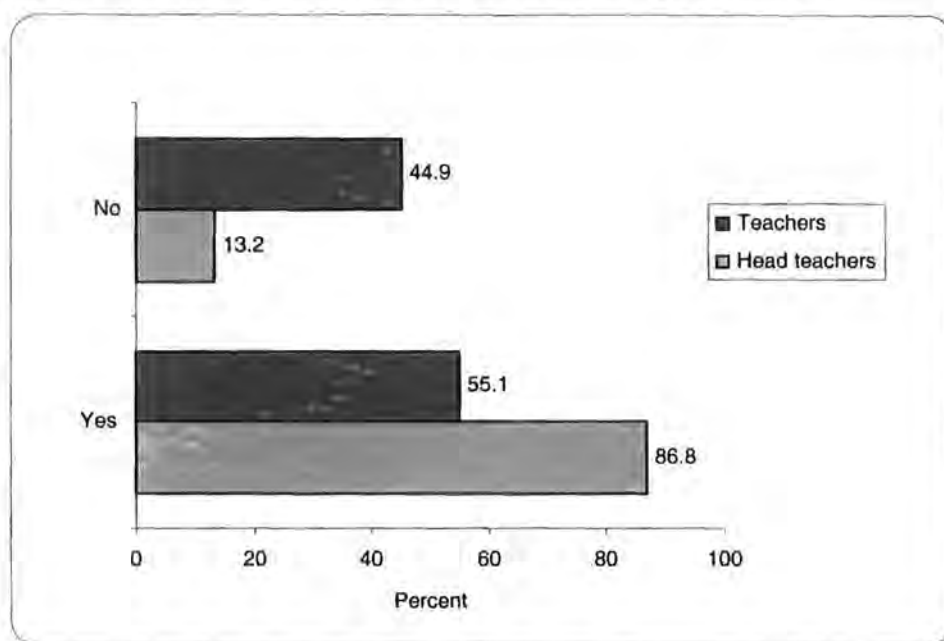
### **7.2.1 Preparation for Curriculum Implementation**

Literature on educational change and curriculum implementation has shown that preparation of teachers for implementation of a curriculum change is paramount if the implementation is to be successful (Datnow & Stringfeild, 2000; Fullan, 2001; Hall & Hord, 2001; Johns, 2002; Morrison, 1998; Oliver, 1996).

According to policy documents analysed and comments made by the director of DQAS overseeing curriculum implementation is a core function for the supervisors. Advising on implementation and in-service training of teachers are also reported as functions that the supervisors should perform. It is on this basis that the head teachers

and teachers were asked if they were in-serviced for the implementation of the revised curriculum and whether it helped them to implement the curriculum. Their responses are on Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1: Whether in-serviced for Curriculum Implementation



Majority of the head teachers 46 (86.8%) and slightly over half (55%) teachers reported they were in-serviced for the implementation of the revised curriculum. The teachers were further asked if the in-service was adequate to enable them implement the curriculum while the head teachers were asked if the preparation enabled them oversee curriculum implementation in their schools. Forty nine head teachers responded to this question, 93.9% reported the in-service was useful. This is in contrast with the teachers who had been in-serviced, only 38% thought the in-service training was adequate and could help them implement the curriculum.

The reasons for the inadequacy of the in-service training were sought from the teachers.

Table 7.4: Reasons for Inadequacy of In-service Training

Reasons n=163	Count	%
Training time was short	91	55.8
Cascade system was not suitable	12	7.4
Training materials not available	19	11.7
Trainers: teachers ratio was too low	30	18.4
Schools lacked funds to send teachers for the training	10	6.1
Content covered was too shallow	11	6.7
No follow up after training	6	3.7

The main reason that was cited by over 50% of the teachers was that time was short. During the group interview, the teachers were more explicit about the lack of preparation for the implementation of the curriculum. Though raising the same issues as they had pointed out in the questionnaires, the teachers used strong words that depict their feelings. Statements such as:

No way, the **charade** we went through in the name of in-servicing **cannot be called preparation**. **Cascade** was the **wrong method**. Most of the teachers who were **supposedly** in-serviced had no confidence of passing the knowledge to their colleagues. In the first place they **had no reference materials**. Even to our pupils we give notes (TD).

Induction was **hurriedly done**....In-service was only one day. More time was needed (ibid).

The teachers acknowledge that an attempt was made to in-service them but were dissatisfied with the method that was used and the time the exercise was given. The use of words like **charade** and **supposedly** that are highlighted in the quotation is a pointer to the teachers' dissatisfaction.

The reasons given by the teachers for the inadequacy of the in-service training were corroborated by the supervisors at the national, district and zone supervisors during interviews and group discussion. All supervisors interviewed at national and district levels agreed that in-service training for teachers was carried out but it was not adequate. The reasons advanced by supervisors are: failure of the cascade system, lack of training materials, large numbers being trained in one venue (about 500) and inadequate time. Commenting on the inadequacy of the training, one supervisor had this to say,

...**an attempt was made** but was **not adequate**. Regional workshops were held where education officials were sensitized on the curriculum, a **cascade system** was supposed to go down to the school level but this **did not happen** and has influenced the way teachers are implementing the curriculum (SI 2).

The sentiments expressed by teachers and the supervisors support earlier observations by Datnow (2004), Kelly (2004), Posner (2004) and Wagner (1998 ) on the importance of teacher preparation in curriculum implementation. The inadequacy of preparation of teachers for implementation of the curriculum change is reflected in the challenges teachers reported to be facing. These are discussed in details in 8.2.

Drawn from literature reviewed and the documents analysed, there are certain supervisory functions that were identified as key in the in the implementation of an educational change. These are making the change clear (Fullan, 2001, Hall & Hord 2001), providing skills to enable them implement the change and overall professional growth of the teachers (Courtney, 2007, Firth & Pajak, 1998, Gordon, 2005) and provision of support materials Miller (1998). Emphasising the relationship between supervision and implementation of change, Fullan & Hargreaves (1992) argue that since change means teachers either do new things or use different methods, dealing with implementation of change is a supervisory task. Head teachers and teachers were asked if they got support in the said areas from the supervisors. Their responses are recorded in Tables 7.5 and 7.6.

Table 7.5 Head teachers Support from Supervisors

Form of support	Yes		No		
	Count	%	Count	%	N
Induction on suitable teaching methods	22	40.7	32	59.3	54
Interpretation of curriculum objectives	25	46.3	29	53.7	54
Selection of teaching/learning materials	18	33.3	36	66.7	54
Opportunity for professional growth	19	35.8	34	64.2	52
In- service training	28	59.9	23	45.1	51

Table 7.6 Teachers Support from Supervisors

Form of support	Yes		No		
	Count	%	Count	%	N
Induction on suitable teaching methods	199	53.1	176	46.9	375
Interpretation of curriculum objectives	176	46.6	202	53.4	378
Selection of teaching/learning materials	150	39.9	226	60.1	376
Opportunity for professional growth	148	39.3	229	60.7	377
In- service training	208	55.2	169	44.8	377

Tables 7.5 and 7.6 show clearly that a large number of head teachers and teachers reported not receiving supervisory support in areas that were crucial in the implementation of a curriculum change. This is despite the major changes in the curriculum in the areas shown in Tables 7.5 and 7.6, and as explained in 1.6.2, the

importance of teachers being clear on the change they are supposed to implement and getting support to do it.

### 7.3 Head Teachers' and Teachers' Expectations of Supervisors

In the previous sections reported actual functions performed by supervisors were discussed. It was important to establish the head teachers' and teachers' expectations. This was done in order to determine if their expectations are met by the policy and supervisors actual performance.

The head teachers and teachers were asked the kind of supervisory support they expected from the supervisors in the implementation of the curriculum.

Their responses are shown on Tables 7.7 and 7.8.

Table 7.7: Head Teachers' Expectation of Supervisors

Expectations	N=52	f	%
Regular/frequent in-service		28	53.8
Frequent supervisory visits		23	44.2
Induction on curriculum/syllabus interpretation/textbook choice		15	28.8
Regular promotion/professional growth opportunities		6	11.5
Promotion of school/community relations		6	11.5
Pre-prepared schemes of work		6	11.5
Adequate staffing		5	9.6
Appointment of key resource teachers		4	7.7
Making subject panels active		4	7.7
Finding out teachers needs		3	5.8
Follow up of supervisory/inspection visits		2	3.8
Evaluation/supervision without intimidation		2	3.8
Well informed QASO on curriculum		1	1.9

\*Percentages do not add to 100% due to multiple responses.

The head teachers' expectations are ranked on the Table 7.7 is based on the number who mentioned each expectation. Regular and frequent in- service training seems to be the head teachers' highest need followed by frequent supervisory visits and induction on the curriculum. In literature on instructional supervision; these areas are mainly discussed under professional development. The main aim is to improve

teaching and hence learning (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Frase, 2005; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Wanzare, 2004; Wanzare & Ward, 2000).

Table 7.8: Teachers' Expectation of Supervisors

Expectations	N=308	f	%
Induction on curriculum/syllabus interpretation/choice of textbooks		186	60.4
Regular/frequent in-service/ follow up		173	56.2
Frequent supervisory visits		45	14.6
Knowledgeable QASO on curriculum/ subject content		42	13.6
Evaluation without intimidation		30	9.7
Guidance on handling transition from Nursery to primary one		28	9.1
Promotion of school community relations		25	8.1
Pre-prepared schemes of work and lesson plans		20	6.5
Making subject panels active		7	2.3
Adequate staffing		7	2.3
Regular promotion/professional growth		6	1.9
Finding out teachers/schools' needs		4	1.3
Appointment of key resource teachers		4	1.3

\* Percentages do not add to 100% due to multiple responses

Teachers' highest expectation is induction on the curriculum with 60.4% of the teachers citing it, regular and frequent in-service training (44.2) and frequent supervisory visits (28.8) being second and third respectively.

Looking at responses from the head teachers and teachers, it is evident that they have the similar expectations. The similarity of the expectations by the two groups is evident when one examines the highest three expectations by each group. High in the lists is induction on the new curriculum that includes syllabus interpretation and choice of textbooks which is put first by teachers and third by the head teachers. The other is regular and frequent in-service training which is second in the teachers list and first in the head teachers' list. Frequent supervisory visits are listed third by the teachers and second by the head teachers. This shows congruence in the teachers' and head teachers' expectations.



Head teachers and teachers expectations also compare well in the areas that many reported as not getting support (see tables 7.5 & 7.6). Consequently the high ranking of the expectations demonstrate head teachers' and teachers need for support in the areas shown in Table 7.7 and 7.8.

There are, however, some notable differences in the ranking of some of the expectations. The head teachers and teachers agree on the need for a supervisor to be knowledgeable on curriculum, to which the teachers added knowledge of subject content. However, they seem to differ on the ranking according to the number of teachers and head teachers who cited it. While among the teachers it is fifth, among the head teachers it is last on the list with only one head teacher listing it as an expectation.

Another notable difference is evaluation without intimidation. It is ranked number five in the teachers' list and number twelve among the head teachers. The same is observed for regular promotion and professional growth which is number eleven in the teachers and number four in the head teachers list. The difference in the expectation or need for promotion among the head teachers and teachers can be explained by their professional qualifications that are presented in sections 6.1.1 and 6.1.2. The majority of the head teachers (73.6%) have reached the highest grade (ATS) as compared to only (46%) that has attained the same grade, hence the difference in ranking the promotion function.

Given the importance of instructional supervision in implementation of an educational change, the fulfilment of the head teachers' and teachers' expectation is of paramount importance. A discordance between the expectations of the teachers and the actual performance by the supervisors could result in unfulfilled need and hence a gap in the implementation of the curriculum.

The expectations of the head teachers and teachers in this study are not far removed from what literature has identified as the needs and expectations of teachers from the supervisors. Nir (2003) in a study on *The impact of school - based management on supervision: instructors' professional considerations* established that teachers needed supervisors who were professional both in conduct and knowledge. They expected a

supervisor with content knowledge, who was friendly, enthusiastic and one who could establish the teachers' needs. These expectations compare well with the expectations of the teachers in this study that are summarized in Table 7.8.

The head teachers' expectations in Nir's study were mainly organizational. They expected a supervisor, who could assist in teachers' professional development, induct when new programs are introduced, improve school outcomes and assist teachers in coping with uncertainties. These expectations are similar to some of the head teachers' reported expectations. Other studies report similar expectations of the supervisors by the teachers. The most common are: increased communication, increased classroom visits, teacher-supervisor collaboration, feedback, professional development, creates positive work environment, good listener, a helper, appreciative (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Blasé & Blasé, 2000; Pajak, 1989; Pajak & Blasé, 1989; Soelen, 2003; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005).

According to the expectations of the head teachers and teachers in this study and findings from the other studies discussed in chapter two, it is clear that what the teachers need are supervisors who are on their side and colleagues who are supportive. The collaborative effort that teachers seem to be yearning for is important in the implementation of curriculum change. Change, as pointed in section 2.2 affects both the teacher and the supervisors. The head teachers and teachers' expectation are therefore not misplaced but represent a call for a joint effort between them and the supervisors.

#### **7.4 Reported Actual Functions Performed and Head Teachers' and Teachers' Expectations.**

A comparison between the supervisory functions that the supervisors are expected to perform and the head teachers and teachers' expectation show that all the expectations are among the functions that the supervisors are expected to perform according to policy as discussed in chapter six except for provision of pre- prepared schemes of work and lesson plans. These are some of the professional documents that supervisors require from the teachers when they make supervisory visits and class observations as shown in the *Handbook for inspection of educational*

*institutions* Republic of Kenya (2000a:35) and supported by four supervisors during the interviews (SI 2; SI 3 ; SI 4 and SI 6). Since teachers are expected to make schemes of work and lesson plans according to the classes they teach, it was unusual for head teachers and teachers to expect supervisor to provide the documents. A clarification was sought from the teachers during the group interview. What emerged was that teachers needed samples of the documents. A statement by one of the teachers made it clear why the teachers expected schemes of work and lesson plans from the supervisors:

QASOs should **lead by example**. Provide schemes of work, lesson plans and records of work to the teachers so that we **can emulate**. You think they can make one? They are good **at theorizing** (TD).

The words used in the statement imply that teachers expect a supervisor to be a good teacher from whom they can learn. The expectation by Kenyan teachers corresponds with one of the characteristics of a good supervisor as defined in the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions*. A supervisor should demonstrate 'experience of being an outstanding teacher' (Republic of Kenya, 2000a:6). It is also one of the criteria used in the recruitment of supervisors. While this is the case, one cannot help noticing the doubt that teachers have in the ability of the supervisors. The question posed as to whether the supervisor has the ability to prepare any of the professional records and the use of theorizing which is highlighted in the quotation portrays doubt, lack of trust and to some extent a challenge. This corresponds with comments made earlier in the group interview, teachers doubting the supervisors' ability and wondering how the supervisors were promoted:

We taught with some of them, they **were no performers**. How did they get to be promoted to guide teachers? (TD).

The head teachers' and teachers' expectations contrast with the functions that zone supervisors were reported as performing. Out of the 13 functions listed in table 7.7 that head teachers expected from supervisors, only two were listed by the zone supervisors' as some of the actual functions they performed. These are induction on curriculum implementation and promotion of school community relations. Similarly, out of 13 functions listed in Table 7.8 that teachers reported they expected from supervisors, only three were in listed by the zone supervisors as actual functions they

performed. These are overseeing early childhood and development (ECD), induction on curriculum implementation and promotion of school community relations.

The evidence suggests that the actual performance by the zone supervisors does not meet the head teachers and teachers' expectations.

When the head teachers' and teachers' list of expectations is compared with the functions the supervisors at the Ministry's head office were reported as actually performing, there are four functions that they have in common. These are:

- Evaluation, which the supervisors refer to as assessment, though the teachers have added a clause that it should be without intimidation. This version can be looked at in the same way as the supervisor's reference to 'friendlier assessment' in order to distinguish the new approach to inspection from that used before. The supervisor in charge of the district where the study was done clarified that they use assessment to mean 'assessment of curriculum delivery, advising, guiding, and showing teachers how' (SI6).
- Induction on curriculum implementation/interpretation of syllabus and on choice of textbooks. This corresponds with the supervisors' function of overseeing curriculum implementation though not quite as explicit on the exact tasks they carry out.
- In-service training, which the teachers and head teachers have indicated should be regular.
- Staffing function. Head teachers and teachers qualify the staffing function to mean provision of adequate staff.

Head teachers and teachers were further asked to state which of their expectations had been met and which had not been met by the supervisors.

Their responses are presented in Table 7.9 in descending order.

Table 7.9: Head teachers and Teachers Expectation that were met

Expectations	Head teachers n=38		Teachers n=220	
	(f)	%	(f)	%
Supervisory visits/ evaluation/monitoring	13	34.2	51	23.2
In – service training	12	31.6	58	26.4
None	7	18.4	67	30.5
Information on curriculum changes	5	13.2	32	14.5
Curriculum/syllabus interpretation	5	13.2	16	7.3
Provision of instructional materials	4	10.5	24	10.9
Induction on teaching and testing methods	2	5.3	-	-
Being friendly to teachers	-	-	8	3.6

Information in Table 7.9 reveals that head teachers and teachers are in agreement on the expectations that they perceive as having been met. Except for induction on teaching and testing methods that was cited by head teachers and not teachers and friendly supervision reported by teachers and not head teachers, all the others are similar in both groups.

The head teachers and teachers were also asked to list those expectations that had not been met. Though the priorities that were not met were reported by only a few head teachers (six) and teachers (31), they are presented here since they are considered important in signifying what could be lacking. The few could also have come from schools that are not visited by supervisors due to their location and distance. As one teacher remarked during the group discussion, 'Does anyone care about some of these schools that are in the remote areas' (TD). 'The last time we were inspected was 2003' (ibid).

The head teachers' and teachers' listed similar expectations not met except for curriculum piloting which was reported by teachers only. The following were the expectations reported as not been met by both head teachers and teachers:

- Provision of materials
- Regular in-service training
- Promotion of school /community relations
- Induction on teaching methods
- Induction on choice of textbooks
- Promotion of subject panels

- Evaluation/supervision without intimidation
- Professional growth/promotion/motivation
- Adequate staffing.
- Piloting the curriculum.

Looking at the list of reported unmet expectations against the background of implementing a curriculum change, one sees a majority of them as supportive. Implementation of a new curriculum needs material support, new approaches to teaching that can be fulfilled through in-service training, peer support that can be provided by subject panels, key resource teachers; community support, motivation through professional growth and the confidence that the teacher is doing the right thing through feedback from evaluation.

## **7.5 Section Summary**

While the clarity of the policy documents is one factor in the performance of the supervisory duties, the interpretation by the supervisors is a strong determining factor. In this study, the supervisors interpret their role as assessment/evaluation. This has an influence on the actual functions they perform as many tend to be administrative and evaluative. This interpretation of their role is different from the support head teachers and teachers expect as they implement the curriculum change. However the head teachers' and teachers' expectations are in line with the functions the policy expects the supervisors to perform.

It is clear that from this that the consonance between policy, the supervisors' interpretation of the policy, their actual performance and the head teachers' and teacher's expectations are fundamental in successful implementation of a curriculum change.

From the findings and discussions in chapters six and seven, a clear gap exists between the policy expectations, the head teachers' and teachers' expectations and actual performance by the supervisors

## CHAPTER EIGHT

### SUPERVISORY FUNCTIONS: RESPONDENTS PERSPECTIVES

#### 8.0 Introduction

The preceding chapter is concerned with the actual performance of the supervisory functions by supervisors and the head teachers', and teachers' expectations. This chapter is devoted to the perceptions of supervisors, head teachers and teachers on importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions and the challenges they face.

#### 8.1 Importance and Frequency of Performance of Instructional Supervisory Functions.

To establish the perceptions on importance and frequency of performance of various supervisory functions zone supervisors, head teachers and teachers were required to indicate the score that best represented their ratings of importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions. In a scale of 1-4 they were to indicate if they considered the performance of the supervisory functions as very important (VI) = 1, important (I)= 2, slightly important (SI)= 3 or not important (NI)= 4.

On frequency of performance, they were to indicate if they considered the function very frequently (VF) =1, frequently (F) = 2, rarely (R) = 3 or never (N) = 4 performed.

##### 8.1.1 Zone Supervisors' Ratings of Importance of Supervisory Functions.

The supervisors' ratings of the importance of the supervisory functions are presented in Table 8.1

Table 8.1: Zone Supervisors' Ratings of Importance of Supervisory Functions.

Supervisory functions	N	Min	Max	Mean	Meaning	S.D	Rank
Evaluating teaching/learning process	14	1	2	1.07	V.important	.267	1
Checking lesson plans	14	1	2	1.14	V.important	.363	2
Checking records of work	14	1	3	1.14	V.important	.535	2

Discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher	14	1	2	1.21	V.important	.426	2
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	14	1	2	1.21	V.important	.426	5
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	14	1	2	1.21	V.important	.426	5
Supervisors participating in curriculum development	14	1	2	1.29	V.important	.469	7
Observing teachers in class	14	1	2	1.29	V.important	.469	7
Checking pupils' progress records	14	1	2	1.29	V.important	.469	7
Giving schools written progress records	14	1	2	1.29	V.important	.469	7
Making supervisory visits to schools	14	1	4	1.36	V.important	.842	11
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	14	1	2	1.36	V.important	.497	11
Promoting teachers' professional growth	14	1	3	1.43	V.important	.646	13
Ensuring adequate staffing in schools	14	1	3	1.43	V.important	.646	13
Checking schemes of work	14	1	4	1.43	V.important	.938	13
Organising INSETs for head teachers and teachers	14	1	4	1.50	V.important	.941	16
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	14	1	4	1.57	V.important	.852	17
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	14	1	2	1.64	V.important	.497	18
Promoting school/community relations	14	1	3	1.71	V.important	.825	19
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	14	1	4	1.93	Important	.917	20
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	14	1	4	2.07	Important	.917	21
Pre-observation meeting with teachers	14	1	4	2.07	Important	.997	21
Conducting research	14	1	4	2.14	Important	1.027	23

Data on Table 8.1 show that on average all zone supervisors rated all supervisory functions provided in the questionnaire as important. Out of 23 supervisory functions presented in the questionnaire, 19(82.6%) were rated very important. Evaluating teaching/learning process was rated highest with a mean score of 1.07 approximately 1 which is very important, followed by informing teachers of curriculum changes, checking lesson plans, discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher, checking records of work with a mean score of 1.14 each as shown by the mean score though the standard deviation varied. Only four functions namely appointment of key resource teachers, facilitating appointment of subject panels, conducting research and pre-observation meeting with teachers were rated as important.

Further scrutiny of the functions that supervisors rated as very important shows they fall in three categories. These are assessment /evaluation that include provision of feedback. Under this category is evaluation of teaching/learning process, checking of



professional records class observation, making follow up of recommendations, discussing supervisory reports with head teachers and giving written supervisory reports.

The other category is what I consider as supportive or advisory functions.

In this category are functions such as assisting teachers to interpret curriculum objectives, inducting them into suitable teaching methods, curriculum development, organising in-service training for teachers and head teachers, promoting professional growth, inducting teachers on suitable teaching learning materials, and making supervisory visits.

The third category comprises of what I see as administrative functions. In this group are the staffing function and promotion of school/community relations.

Although all the supervisory functions are rated very important, it is notable that those that are about assessment/evaluation are ranked highly. This confirms supervisors' view of themselves as assessors (see 6.2.3.7). Assessment/evaluation is a legal requirement expected of supervisors in the *Education Act* (see 6.2.2) and the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions* (see 6.2.3). This could explain the high ranking. However, according to the policies, supervisors are also expected to carry out the advisory function in respect to curriculum implementation and financial management. This is a pointer to the supervisors' interpretation of their role which is further emphasised in the functions they actually perform and those they consider as priority discussed in section 7.1.

### 8.1.2 Zone Supervisors' Perceptions of Frequency of Performance of Supervisory Functions.

Table 8.2: Zone Supervisors' Ratings of Frequency of Performance

Supervisory functions	N	Min	Max	Mean	Frequency	S.D	Rank
Checking lesson plans	14	1	2	1.14	V.frequently	.363	1
Checking records of work	14	1	3	1.14	V.frequently	.535	1
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	14	1	2	1.21	V.frequently	..426	3
Observing teachers in class	14	1	2	1.29	V.frequently	.469	4
Checking pupils progress records	14	1	2	1.29	V.frequently	.469	4
Giving schools written supervision records	14	1	2	1.29	V.frequently	.469	4
Making supervisory visits to schools	14	1	4	1.36	V.frequently	.842	7
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	14	1	2	1.36	V.frequently	.497	7

Checking schemes of work	14	1	4	1.43	V.frequently	.938	9
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	14	1	4	1.57	V.frequently	.852	10
Evaluating teaching/learning process	14	1	3	1.57	V.frequently	.646	10
Promoting school/community relations	14	1	3	1.79	Frequently	.699	12
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	14	1	3	1.93	Frequently	.616	13
Promoting teachers' professional growth	14	1	3	1.93	Frequently	.730	13
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	14	1	3	2.07	Frequently	.829	15
Pre-observation meeting with teachers	14	1	4	2.07	Frequently	.997	15
Ensuring adequate staffing in schools	14	1	4	2.07	Frequently	.917	15
Organising INSETs for head teachers and teachers	14	1	3	2.14	Frequently	.770	18
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	14	1	3	2.29	Frequently	.726	19
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	14	1	4	2.36	Frequently	.842	20
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	14	2	4	2.57	Rarely	.646	21
Supervisors participating in curriculum development	14	1	4	3.07	Rarely	1.072	22
Conducting research	14	1	4	3.21	Rarely	.975	23

Results on Table 8.2 indicate that on average, zone supervisors reported that all the supervisory functions as frequently performed. Eleven (47.8%) of the functions are rated as very frequently performed, 9(39.1%) as frequently performed while only 3 (13%) were reported as rarely performed. Two of the functions rated as rarely performed were rated as important. These are facilitating appointment of subject panels and conducting research while supervisors' participating in curriculum development was rated as very important. The three are supportive according to the categories discussed in 8.1.1.

A similar pattern as in the ratings of importance of functions is observed in the ratings of the frequency of performance. It emerges that most of the functions rated as either very frequently or frequently performed are those that evaluative/assessment in nature are ranked highly. Contending that supervision is often equated to evaluation, Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) attribute it to supervision being a legal requirement supervisors are expected to fulfil. Indeed, in Kenya the *Education act* and the *Handbook for inspection of education institutions* are clear on supervisors carrying out evaluation/assessment to ensure maintenance of education standards and conformity with regulations. This could explain the high rating of the evaluative functions in importance and frequency of performance.

### 8.1.3 Head teachers' Perceptions of Importance of Supervisory Functions.

Table 8.3: Head teachers' Ratings of Importance Supervisory Functions

Supervisory functions	N	Min	Max	Mean	Meaning	S.D	Rank
Supervisors participating in curriculum development	54	1	2	1.09	V.important	.293	1
Ensuring adequate staffing	54	1	3	1.17	V.important	.293	2
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	54	1	3	1.17	V.important	.423	2
Discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher	54	1	3	1.26	V.important	.521	4
Promoting teachers' professional growth	54	1	3	1.28	V.important	.529	5
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	54	1	4	1.30	V.important	.633	6
Organising INSETs for head teachers and teachers	54	1	3	1.31	V.important	.543	7
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	54	1	3	1.35	V.important	.520	8
Checking schemes of work	54	1	4	1.37	V.important	.653	9
Giving schools written supervision records	54	1	3	1.39	V.important	.596	10
Making supervisory visits to schools	54	1	3	1.44	V.important	.572	11
Checking lesson plans	54	1	4	1.46	V.important	.693	12
Checking pupils progress records	54	1	4	1.50	V.important	.720	13
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	54	1	4	1.50	V.important	.666	13
Checking records of work	54	1	4	1.54	V.important	.719	15
Promoting school/community relations	54	1	3	1.54	V.important	.636	15
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	54	1	4	1.54	V.important	.719	15
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	54	1	3	1.57	V.important	.662	18
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	54	1	4	1.58	V.important	.692	19
Evaluating teaching/learning process	54	1	4	1.59	V.important	.765	20
Conducting research	54	1	4	1.80	Important	.762	21
Observing teachers in class	54	1	4	1.80	Important	.762	21
Pre-observation meeting with teachers	54	1	4	1.83	Important	1.005	23

According to results shown on Table 8.3, on average head teachers regarded all the supervisory functions as important. Out of the 23 functions, 20 (87%) were rated very important while 3(13%) were rated as important. None of the functions were rated as slightly important or not important. Based on the categorization discussed in

8.1.2, out of the 20 functions head teachers rated as very important, 12 were supportive, six evaluative and two were administrative. It is also notable that supportive functions occupy the first eight positions in the rank order suggesting that head teachers perceive them as very important.

#### 8.1.4 Head teachers' Perceptions of Frequency of Supervisory Functions.

Table 8.4: Head teachers' Ratings of Frequency of Performance of Supervisory Functions.

Supervisory functions	N	Min	Max	Mean	Meaning	S.D	Rank
Discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher	54	1	4	2.17	Frequently	.545	1
Checking lesson plans	54	1	4	2.20	Frequently	.655	2
Checking schemes of work	54	1	4	2.22	Frequently	.691	3
Checking records of work	54	1	4	2.24	Frequently	.642	4
Checking pupils progress records	54	1	4	2.24	Frequently	.642	4
Supervisors participating in curriculum development	54	1	4	2.24	Frequently	.725	4
Making supervisory visits to schools	54	1	4	2.31	Frequently	.639	7
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	54	1	4	2.32	Frequently	.728	8
Giving schools written supervision records	54	1	4	2.33	Frequently	.734	9
Organising INSETs for head teachers and teachers	54	1	4	2.34	Frequently	.728	10
Evaluating teaching/learning process	54	1	4	2.37	Frequently	.653	11
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	54	1	4	2.48	Frequently	.637	12
Observing teachers in class	54	1	4	2.50	Frequently	.666	13
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	54	1	3	2.52	Rarely	.746	14
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	54	1	4	2.52	Rarely	.727	14
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	54	1	4	2.56	Rarely	.644	16
Promoting school/community relations	54	1	3	2.66	Rarely	.678	17
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	54	1	4	2.69	Rarely	.577	18
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	54	2	4	2.77	Rarely	.724	19
Ensuring adequate staffing	54	2	4	2.77	Rarely	.609	19
Promoting teachers' professional growth	54	2	4	2.87	Rarely	.621	21
Conducting research	54	1	4	2.89	Rarely	.751	22
Pre-observation meeting with teachers	54	2	4	3.22	Rarely	.604	23

Data on Table 8.4 indicate that head teachers did not rate any functions as very frequently or as never performed. They rated 13 (56.5%) of the functions as frequently performed and 10 (43.5%) as rarely carried out. Out of the 13 functions

that were rated as frequently performed, eight fall under evaluation/assessment category and five under supportive. This is a contrast of the ratings of important functions where twelve functions were rated as very important were supportive and six were evaluative/assessment. What this suggests is that although head teachers perceive supportive functions as more important it is the evaluative functions that they perceive to be more frequently performed by supervisors.

### 8.1.5 Teachers' Perceptions of Importance of Supervisory Functions.

Table 8.5: Teachers' Ratings of Importance Supervisory Functions

Supervisory functions	N	Min	Max	Mean	Meaning	S.D	Rank
Supervisors participating in curriculum development	381	1	4	1.18	V.important	.475	1
Promoting teachers' professional growth	380	1	4	1.34	V.important	.717	2
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	380	1	4	1.38	V.important	.733	3
Organising INSETs for head teachers and teachers	381	1	4	1.42	V.important	.705	4
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	380	1	4	1.51	V.important	.750	5
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	379	1	4	1.70	V.important	.819	6
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	371	1	4	1.77	Important	.963	7
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	379	1	4	1.78	Important	.925	8
Promoting school/community relations	375	1	4	1.78	Important	.898	8
Evaluating teaching/learning process	378	1	4	1.79	Important	.791	10
Checking pupils progress records	377	1	4	1.84	Important	.880	11
Checking schemes of work	381	1	4	1.89	Important	.959	12
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	379	1	4	1.90	Important	.853	13
Giving schools written supervision records	379	1	4	1.91	Important	.898	14
Conducting research	377	1	4	1.95	Important	.950	15
Discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher	378	1	4	1.96	Important	.974	16
Pre-observation meeting with teachers	374	1	4	1.99	Important	1.097	17
Checking records of work	381	1	4	1.99	Important	.961	18
Making supervisory visits to schools	377	1	4	2.00	Important	.857	19
Checking lesson plans	381	1	4	2.04	Important	.999	20
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	378	1	4	2.08	Important	.997	21
Observing teachers in class	378	1	4	2.64	Slightly important	1.045	22

According to data on Table 8.5, teachers rated 6 (27.3%) of the functions as very important, 15 (68.2%) as important and only one observing teachers in class was

rated slightly important. This shows that on average teachers rated all supervisory functions as important except observing teachers in class. It is notable that all the functions that teachers rated as very important were in the advisory/supportive category. Out of those that were rated important, nine were evaluative, supportive/advisory and administration had three each.

Between groups ANOVA tested at the 0.05 level of significance for each item relating to importance on the questionnaire revealed there was no significance difference in the teachers' teaching different subject ratings of importance of all the supervisory functions except conducting research ( $p=0.010$ ) and orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods ( $p= .030$ ).

It is common in Kenya to have associations of teachers teaching different subjects. These organisations carry out different activities. It is possible that the significance difference teachers teaching different subjects could have been influenced by activities of their organisations. For instance if a subject organisation organised in-service training for its teachers and invited a supervisor as a facilitator, it is likely their perceptions of supervisors orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods would be different from other teachers.

### 8.1.6 Teachers' Perceptions of Frequency of Supervisory Functions.

The findings discussed in the previous section show that functions that teachers perceive as important are those that enhance their professional development and promote teaching. It is therefore important to establish how often the functions are performed according to the teachers. Their responses are recorded in Table 8.6.

Table 8.6: Teachers' Rating of Frequency of Performance of Supervisory Functions

Supervisory functions	N	Min	Max	Mean	Meaning	S.D	Rank
Checking lesson plans	379	1	4	2.10	Frequently	.731	1
Checking schemes of work	379	1	4	2.11	Frequently	.741	2
Checking records of work	379	1	4	2.13	Frequently	.727	3
Checking pupils progress records	369	1	4	2.14	Frequently	.751	4
Discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher	366	1	4	2.29	Frequently	.676	5
Giving schools written supervision records	373	1	4	2.30	Frequently	.756	6
Making supervisory visits to schools	377	1	4	2.35	Frequently	.643	7
Observing teachers in class	377	1	4	2.41	Frequently	.658	8
Evaluating teaching/learning process	381	1	4	2.41	Frequently	.758	8

Informing teachers of curriculum changes	379	1	4	2.47	Frequently	.758	10
Organising INSETs for head teachers and teachers	379	1	4	2.50	Frequently	.740	11
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	371	1	4	2.61	Rarely	.823	12
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	373	1	4	2.67	Rarely	.798	13
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	377	1	4	2.71	Rarely	.768	14
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	379	1	4	2.71	Rarely	.800	14
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	378	1	4	2.80	Rarely	.856	16
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	372	1	4	2.85	Rarely	.841	17
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	378	1	4	2.90	Rarely	.831	18
Promoting school/community relations	377	1	4	3.04	Rarely	.798	19
Promoting teachers' professional growth	380	1	4	3.15	Rarely	.830	20
Conducting research	374	1	4	3.29	Never	.760	21
Pre-observation meeting with teachers	374	1	4	3.34	Never	.861	22

Data from the Table 8.6 indicate that teachers did not rate any function as very frequently performed. However they rated 11(50%) of the functions as frequently performed, 9(40.9) as rarely performed and 2(9.1%) as never performed. Out of functions that were rated as frequently performed, six are evaluative, three are about providing feedback, and two are supportive/advisory. Conducting research and pre-observation meeting with teachers were rated as never performed.

Between groups ANOVA tested at 0.05 level of significance for each of the items relating to frequency in the questionnaire revealed there was no significance difference in the teachers' teaching different subject ratings of the frequency of performance of all the supervisory functions.

Like the head teachers, those functions that teachers perceived as frequently performed were mainly evaluative contrasting with those they perceived as very important which were mainly advisory/supportive. This implies that teachers perceived the evaluative/assessment functions more frequently performed.

### 8.1.7 Summary of Respondents Perceptions of Importance of Supervisory Functions.

Data presented in Tables 8.1, 8.3 and 8.5 show that in general, supervisors, head teachers and teachers perceived all supervisory functions as important. All functions were rated either as very important or important except observing teachers in class that was rated as slightly important by the teachers. It is not surprising that teachers rated class observation as slightly important. Literature analysed and discussed show that teachers' perception of class observation depends on what they perceive as its intention. When class observation is seen to be for purposes of improving teachers' classroom practices, then it is perceived as important (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Nolan & Francis, 1992; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Tanner & Tanner). On the other hand, if it is found to be fault finding, teachers resent it (Blase & Blase, 2004; Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Zepeda, 2007).

Table 8.7 shows the supervisory functions that were rated as very important by supervisors, head teachers and teachers.

Table 8.7: Summary of Functions rated as Very Important

Functions	Supervisors	H/teachers	Teachers
Evaluating teaching/learning process	√	√	-
Checking lesson plans	√	√	-
Checking records of work	√	√	-
Discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher	√	√	-
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	√	√	√
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	√	√	√
Supervisors participating in curriculum development	√	√	√
Observing teachers in class	√	-	-
Checking pupils' progress records	√	√	-
Giving schools written progress records	√	√	-
Making supervisory visits to schools	√	√	-
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	√	√	-
Promoting teachers' professional growth	√	√	√
Ensuring adequate staffing in schools	√	√	-
Checking schemes of work	√	√	-
Organising INSETs for head teachers and teachers	√	√	√
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	√	√	√
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	√	√	-
Promoting school/community relations	-	√	-
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	-	√	-
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	-	√	-



According to the data on Table 8.7, there are supervisory functions that were rated by all supervisors, head teachers and teachers as very important. These are: assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives, orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods, supervisors participating in curriculum development, promoting teachers' professional growth, organising in-service training for head teachers and teachers and discussing observed lesson with teachers as colleagues.

Those functions that were rated as very important by supervisors and head teachers were: Evaluating teaching/learning process, checking lesson plans, records of work, pupils' progress records, discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher, making supervisory visits to schools, giving schools written supervisory reports, inducting teachers on choice suitable materials, and checking schemes of work.

Looking across the respondents, observing teachers in class was rated as very important by only the supervisors while promoting school community relations, appointment and support of KRTs in schools and facilitating and supporting appointment of subject panels was rated as very important by head teachers only. No supervisory function was reported as very important by the teachers only.

When supervisory functions that supervisors, head teachers and teachers rate as very important are grouped; a pattern emerges. Those functions that are rated as very important by all the three categories of respondents are mainly supportive of the teacher. Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives, orientation to suitable teaching methods, promoting teachers' professional growth, organising in-service training for head teachers and teachers are about enhancing teachers classroom practices while discussing observed lesson with teachers as colleagues is about providing feedback. Drawing from Alfonso et al. (1981); Frase (2005) and Glickman et al. (2007) view of supervision as technical expertise, supervisors' participating in curriculum development provides the expertise in understanding the curriculum that is needed in guiding teachers and hence its rating as very important. From the evidence provided, it could be argued that teachers' and head teachers' perceptions of importance of supervisory function is related to how useful the functions are in supporting and promoting teaching as evident in the functions they have rated as very important.

The next categories are the functions that are rated as very important by supervisors and head teachers. Out of nine functions, five are evaluative, these are evaluating teaching/learning process, checking lesson plans, records of work, pupils' progress records, checking schemes of work making supervisory visits to schools, two are about providing feedback, these are discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher, giving schools written supervisory reports and one is about teaching learning materials. Making supervisory visits can either be evaluative or supportive (Pajak, 1989) depending on the intentions. Supervisors and head teachers are administrators and appear to have similar perceptions of importance of functions that are evaluative or administrative. These findings are consistent with other studies that show that supervisors/administrators equated supervision with evaluation (Gentry, 2002). However it contrasts with Mobley's (2002) finding that administrators believed instructional supervision should be for purposes of improving instruction rather than the evaluation of teachers. This is a further reflection of the divergence views held about supervision as discussed in 2.1.2 and conflicts in supervision (see 2.1.8).

There are functions that were rated as important by supervisors only. Observing teachers in class was rated as very important by supervisors only. If viewed as an evaluative function, head teachers and teachers will not perceive it as important as teachers resent supervision that is judgmental (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Blumberg, 1980; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). On the other hand, other than evaluating teachers, supervisors can use class observation to determine teachers' needs as emphasised in clinical model of supervision (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Glickman et al; 1980, 2007, Lovel & Wiles, 1985; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Sullivan & Glanz. 2005). Similarly, the developmental model of supervision advances observing class observations to determine the teachers' needs.

Promoting school community relations, appointment and support of KRTs in schools and facilitating and supporting appointment of subject panels was rated as very important by head teachers only. Primary school management committees (SMC) are drawn from parents and community living around the school (Republic of Kenya, 1999). In Kenya, head teachers are the chief executives in their schools and secretary to the management committee. This could explain their rating of promotion of

school/community relations as important. Pajak's (1990a) study in his study on identification of dimensions of supervisory practices identified school/community relations as one of the 12 dimensions of supervisory practice. It is meant to 'establish and maintain open and productive relations between school and community' (ibid p.6).

Key resource teachers are experienced teachers who are identified as a result of being competent teachers. They are expected to mentor other teachers (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 1999).

Subject panels are groups of teachers teaching same subjects in a school. They meet to discuss developments in their subject, review teaching/learning materials, set assessment tests among other things (ibid). Head teachers are likely therefore to view KRTs and subjects panels as important in helping teachers improve their classroom practices. However, teachers not rating the two functions as important contradict the views held in literature. Quoting Levins, Hoffman and Badiali's study on '*Rural teachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of various supervisory practices* among 549 rural Pennsylvania teachers, Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) reported that teachers perceived peer collaboration as important while in their own study teachers perceived peer collaboration as important. Similar findings were reported by Ebmeier (2003) whose study concluded that teachers viewed colleagues as greatest source of influence.

The functions rated as important are consistent with those supervisory functions identified in literature (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Harris, 1985; Pajak, 1990; Wanzare & da Costa, 2000; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

Although in general supervisors, head teachers and teachers rated most supervisory functions as important, it was important to establish if there were any significant differences among the groups when tested at 0.05 level of significance. Out of the 22 supervisory functions presented, it was only in 12 functions where  $p < .05$  showing there was significant differences in rating of importance. The results are shown in Table 8.8.

Table 8.8: Summary of ANOVA between Supervisors, Head teachers and Teachers Rating of Importance

Function		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Evaluating teaching/learning process	Between groups	8.221	2	4.111	6.805	.001
	Within groups	267.608	443	.604		
	Total	275.830	443			
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	Between groups	11.521	2	5.761	6.206	.002
	Within groups	410.254	442	.928		
	Total	421.775	444			
Making supervisory visits	Between groups	19.034	2	9.517	13.904	.000
	Within groups	302.548	442	.684		
	Total	321.582	444			
Observing teachers in class	Between groups	54.517	2	27.258	27.138	.000
	Within groups	444.963	443			
	Total	499.480	445			
Checking Schemes of work	Between groups	14.894	2	7.447	8.663	.000
	Within groups	383.391	446	.860		
	Total	398.285	448			
Checking lesson plans	Between groups	25.140	2	12.570	13.792	.000
	Within groups	406.468	446	.911		
	Total	431.608	448			
Checking records of work	Between groups	18.320	2	9.160	10.691	.000
	Within groups	382.117	446	.857		
	Total	400.437	448			
Checking pupils progress records	Between groups	8.931	2	4.465	6.139	.002
	Within groups	321.487	442	.727		
	Total	330.418	444			
Discussing observed lessons	Between groups	13.456	2	6.728	10.956	.000
	Within groups	272.638	444	.614		
	Total	286.094				
Discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher	Between groups	29.318	2	14.659	17.354	.000
	Within groups	374.209	443	.845		
	Total	403.527	445			

Giving school written supervisory	Between groups	17.096	2	8.548	11.619	.000
	Within groups	326.640	444			
	Total	343.736	446			
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	Between groups	17.072	2	8.536	12.957	.000
	Within groups	292.516	444	.659		
	Total	309.588	446			

The supervisory functions that showed significance differences between groups as presented in Table 8.8 are either about evaluation, providing feedback with only facilitating and supporting appointment of subject panels being about promoting group support among teachers. This is expected as evaluation is seen as the most controversial of the supervisory functions that teachers resent especially when seen as fault finding (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Sullivan & Glanz, 2005; Tanner & Tanner; Thrupp & Willmott, 2003). This is further emphasised when one looks at the head teachers' and teachers' expectation of the supervisors discussed in 7.3. Evaluation is cited by only 3.8% of the head teachers and 9.7% of the teachers. Furthermore, those who cited qualified that it should be without intimidation a further proof of their view of evaluation.

Post Hoc test (Tamhane coefficient, which is suitable for unequal sized groups) was carried out at a significant level of 0.05 to establish where the significant differences in perception of the importance of supervisory functions between teachers, head teachers and supervisors. Results are shown on Table 8.9.

Table 8.9: Functions with Significance Differences between Groups

Function/Variable	(I) Position	(J)	Mean Dif. (I-J)	Sig
Evaluating teaching/learning	Teacher	Supervisor	.714	.000
	H/teacher	Supervisor	.521	.000
Appointment of KRTs	Teacher	H/teacher	.497	.000
Making supervisory visits	Teacher	Supervisors	.643	.042
	Teacher	H/teacher	.556	.000
Observing teachers in class	Teacher	H/teacher	.841	.000
	Teacher	Supervisor	1.352	.000
	H/teacher	Supervisor	.511	.011
Checking schemes of work	Teacher	H/teacher	.519	.000
Checking lesson plans	Teacher	H/teacher	.579	.000
	Teacher	Supervisor	.899	.000

Checking records of work	Teacher	H/teacher	.455	.000
	Teacher	Supervisor	.849	.000
Checking pupils progress records	Teacher	H/teacher	.338	.007
	Teacher	Supervisor	.552	.002
Post-observation meeting	Teacher	H/teacher	.533	.000
Discussing supervisory findings with H/teacher	Teacher	Supervisor	.704	.000
	Teacher	H/teacher	.749	.000
Giving written supervisory report	Teacher	H/teacher	.521	.000
	Teacher	Supervisor	.625	.001
Making follow-up of supervisory recommendations	Teacher	H/teacher	.545	.000
	Teacher	Supervisor	.540	.004

Mean Dif (mean difference)

Results on Table 8.9 reveal that out of the 12 functions that showed significance differences between groups, most of the differences are between teachers and supervisors, and teachers and head teachers. For instance, supervisors and teachers revealed significance differences in nine functions, head teachers and teachers 11 and head teachers and supervisors two. This evidence suggests that supervisors and head teachers had similar perceptions of importance of supervisory functions. Zone supervisors are mainly former head teachers promoted to the supervisory position. This means they have had similar experiences with head teachers leading to the similarity in their perceptions of importance supervisory functions. Explaining possible reasons for head teachers and senior managers holding the most positive perceptions of the inspection process, Chapman (2002:261) attributes it to two groups having 'common experiences and interactions'. Similarly, supervisors and head teachers in this study are likely to have had similar experiences as zone supervisors are mainly former head teachers promoted to the supervisory position. Difference in checking schemes of work and appointment of KRTs were between head teachers and teachers.

Observing teachers in class was the only function where significances differences are revealed in all the three groups. Supervisors rated it as very important, head teachers as important and teachers as slightly important.

Commenting on the importance of lesson observations during inspection, Chapman (2001:60) suggests it should be 'an important means of influencing classroom practice'. Similarly, the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions Republic of Kenya* (2000a:34) qualifies that class observations should not just be audits but useful in improving standards. Reports of class observations in five schools and

comments during group discussion could explain the differences. Reports looked like an audit of what the teacher did or did not do (see Appendix 16). The recommendations given do not seem to give the teacher direction on where to improve. Comments such as 'improve in all areas', 'lesson was well conducted' do not seem to give teacher guidance. The head teachers also confirmed that teachers did not access full inspection/supervisory reports. This kind of feedback does not conform to the procedures spelt out in the *Handbook for inspection of educational institutions* and does not seem to give the teacher precise direction on where or what to improve. While this may not be the only cause of the difference in perception, it is an indication that class observation may not be meeting its purpose of improving classroom practices. There is probably need for further investigation in this area focusing on the supervisors competency in making useful classroom observation and if in its current form it is changing or improving teachers' classroom practices and whether it meets the teachers' needs and expectations.

### 8.1.8 Summary of Respondents Perceptions of Frequency of Performance of Supervisory Functions.

A comparison of the respondents' ratings of the frequency of performance of supervisory functions reveal that only supervisors rated 11 functions as very frequently performed while head teachers and teachers did not rate any function as very frequently performed. On the other hand, head teachers rated 10 functions as rarely performed, while teachers rated nine and supervisors three as shown in Table 8.10.

Table 8.10: Summary of Perceptions of Frequency of Performance.

Respondents	Count of Ratings			
	V. frequently	Frequently	Rarely	Never
Supervisors	11	9	3	-
Head teachers	-	13	10	-
Teachers	-	11	9	2
Total	11	33	22	2

From the results on Table 8.10, it is clear that the ratings that were common among supervisors, head teachers and teachers were of those functions that were frequently

or rarely performed. Table 8.11 and 8.12 show the functions that were rated frequently and rarely performed respectively.

Table 8.11: Frequently Performed Functions

Functions	Supervisors	H/teachers	Teachers
Promoting school/community relations	√	-	-
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	√	-	-
Promoting teachers' professional growth	√	-	-
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	√	√	-
Pre-observation meeting with teachers	√	-	-
Ensuring adequate staffing in schools	√	-	-
Organising INSETs for head teachers and teachers	√	-	√
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	√	-	-
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	√	√	
Discussing findings of supervisory visits with head teacher	-	√	√
Checking lesson plans	-	√	√
Checking schemes of work	-	√	√
Checking records of work	-	√	√
Checking pupils progress records	-	√	√
Supervisors participating in curriculum development	-	√	-
Making supervisory visits	-	√	√
Evaluating teaching/learning process	-	√	√
Giving schools written progress records	-	√	√
Class observations	-	√	√
Informing teachers of curriculum changes	-	-	√

What Table 8.11 displays is the variation in supervisors, head teachers' and teachers' ratings of frequency of performance of supervisory functions. It is clear that teachers and head teachers had in common many supervisory functions they rated as frequently performed. On the other hand, supervisors did not share similar views with the two groups except in two functions with head teachers and one with teachers. The main discrepancy is noted in the supervisors rating of functions that can be classified as promoting improvement of teaching and learning as frequently performed while most of the functions that head teachers and teachers rate as frequently performed have to do with assessment/evaluation.

Table 8.12: Rarely Performed Functions

Functions	Supervisors	H/teachers	Teachers
Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports	-	√	√
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	-	√	√
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	-	√	√
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	-	-	√
Appointment and support KRTs in schools	-		√
Inducting teachers on choice suitable materials	-	√	√
Facilitating appointment of subject panels	√	√	√
Promoting school/community relations	-	√	√



Promoting teachers' professional growth	-	√	√
Ensuring adequate staffing	-	√	-
Conducting research	√	√	-
Pre-observation meeting with teachers	-	√	-
Supervisors participating in curriculum development	√	-	-

It is clear from the data on Table 8.12 that supervisors reported the least number of functions that are rarely performed (three), while head teachers and teachers reported 10 and teachers nine respectively. Conducting research and pre-observation meeting was reported as never performed by the teachers despite being a requirement according to policy. Head teachers and teachers had in common seven functions rated as rarely performed while only facilitating appointment of subject panels was rated as rarely performed by the supervisors, head teachers and teachers. Supervisors' participating in curriculum development was only reported by zone supervisors. This was expected as they are the only ones who had the information on whether they participating.

Between group ANOVA revealed significance statistical differences in ratings of frequency of performance at a significance level of 0.05 in all supervisory functions except facilitating appointment of subject panels in schools ( $p=.212$ ) and organising in-service training for head teachers and teacher ( $p=.077$ ). Those functions where significance differences were found between groups are shown in Table 8.13.

Table 8.13: Summary of Function that were Significantly Different between Groups.

Functions		Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Informing teachers of changes in the curriculum	Between groups	7.848	2	3.924	6.723	.001
	Within groups	259.137	444	.584		
	Total	279.991	446			
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	Between groups	7.507	2	3.754	6.116	.002
	Within groups	272.484	444	.614		
	Total	279.991				
Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods	Between groups	8.206	2	4.103	7.418	.001
	Within groups	244.481	442	.553		
	Total	252.688	444			
Inducting teachers on choice of curriculum support materials	Between groups	8.572	2	4.286	6.296	.002
	Within groups	296.104	435	.681		
	Total	304.676	437			
Evaluating teaching/learning process	Between	9.613	2	4.806	8.696	.000

	groups					
	Within groups	246.499	446	.553		
	Total	256.111	448			
Promoting teachers' professional growth	Between groups	22.949	2	11.475	17.681	.000
	Within groups	288.151	444	.649		
	Total	311.101	446			
Appointing and supporting KRTs in schools	Between groups	12.760	2	6.380	9.013	.000
	Within groups	312.881	442	.708		
	Total	325.640				
Ensuring adequate staffing in schools	Between groups	5.460	1	5.460	11.747	.001
	Within groups	30.212	65	.465		
	Total	35.672	66			
Conducting research	Between groups	7.714	2	3.857	6.565	.002
	Within groups	257.325	438	.587		
	Total	265.039	440			
Promoting school/community relations	Between groups	26.283	2	13.141	21.486	.000
	Within groups	269.724	441	.612		
	Total	296.007	443			
Making supervisory visits to schools	Between groups	9.696	2	4.848	11.732	.000
	Within groups	182.628	442	.413		
	Total	192.324	444			
Observing teachers in class	Between groups	11.837	2	5.918	13.775	.000
	Within groups	189.907	442	.430		
	Total	201.744	444			
Pre-observation meeting	Between groups	9.954	2	4.977	7.116	.001
	Within groups	307.026	439	.699		
	Total	316.980				
Post-observation meeting with teachers	Between groups	18.935	2	9.467	15.259	.000
	Within groups	271.759	438.620			
	Total	195.062	432			
Checking schemes of work	Between groups	8.538	2	4.269	8.020	.000
	Within groups	228.164	444	.532		
	Total	244.864	446			
Checking lesson	Between groups	8.257	2	4.129	8.034	.000
	Within groups	228.164	444	.514		
	Total	236.421	446			
Records of work	Between groups	7.496	2	3.748	7.389	.001
	Within groups	444	.507			
	Total	232.716				
Checking progress	Between groups	9.093	2	4.547	8.488	.000
	Within groups	232.472	436			
	Total	241.565				
Giving schools written supervisory reports	Between groups	7.337	2	3.669	6.459	.002

	Within groups	247.975				
	Total	254.975	438			

Results on Table 8.13 show that significant variations between groups were mainly in the functions that are perceived as evaluative and those that are supportive. This confirms an earlier observation where head teachers and teachers perceive the evaluative functions as more frequently performed as opposed to the supportive functions.

Further testing to establish where the differences were between the groups was carried out at 0.05 level of significance. Results are shown on Table 8.14.

Table 8.14: Functions with Significance Differences in Frequency of Performance Between Groups.

Functions	(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig
Informing teachers of curriculum changes	H/teachers	Supervisors	.821	.042
Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives	Teachers	Supervisors	.638	.039
Orientating teachers on suitable teaching methods	Teachers	Supervisors	.780	.001
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.757	.002
Inducting teachers on choice of curriculum support materials	Teachers	H/teachers	.328	.012
	Teachers	Supervisors	.561	.040
Evaluating teaching/learning process	Teachers	Supervisors	.843	.001
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.799	.002
Promoting teachers' professional growth	Teachers	H/teachers	.285	.011
	Teachers	Supervisors	1.224	.000
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.939	.001
Appointing and supporting KRTs	Teachers	H/teachers	.481	.000
Promoting school/community relations	Teachers	H/teachers	.377	.001
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.875	.001
	Teachers	Supervisors	1.251	.000
Conducting research	Teachers	H/teachers	.407	.001
Making supervisory visits to schools	Teachers	Supervisors	.847	.001
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.815	.001
Observing teachers in class	Teachers	Supervisors	.906	.000
	H/teachers	Supervisors	1.000	.000
Pre-observation meeting	Teachers	Supervisors	.842	.016
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.722	.044
Discussing observed lessons with teachers as colleagues	Teachers	Supervisors	1.168	.000
	H/teachers	Supervisors	1.019	.000
Discussing findings of supervisory visits with H/teachers	Teachers	Supervisors	.715	.003
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.598	.015
Checking schemes of work	Teachers	Supervisors	.748	.000
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.865	.000
Checking lesson plans	Teachers	Supervisors	.743	.000
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.847	.000

Checking records of work	Teachers	Supervisors	.698	.001
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.812	.000
Pupils progress records	Teachers	Supervisors	.786	.000
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.884	.000
Giving written supervisory reports	Teachers	Supervisors	.732	.009
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.846	.003
Making follow up of supervisory recommendations	Teachers	Supervisors	.895	.001
	H/teachers	Supervisors	.846	.003

According to results on Table 8.14 significant differences in perceptions of frequency of performance of supervisory functions are between teachers and supervisors, and head teachers and supervisors. It is only in three functions that significance differences are portrayed between teachers and head teachers.

Differences between the three groups were only found in promoting teachers professional growth and promoting school/community relations. This suggests that teachers and head teachers in general have similar perceptions of frequency of performance of supervisory functions.

### 8.1.9 Section Summary

This section examined the supervisors, head teachers and teachers' perceptions of the importance and frequency of performance of selected supervisory functions. From the data analysed and discussed, it is evident that on average all the respondents rated supervisory function as important. However, supervisors perceived evaluation/assessment as more important while head teachers and teachers perceived functions that were supportive to improvement of teaching and learning as very important. Similarly, supervisors' perceptions of frequency of performance of supervisory functions differed with head teachers and teachers. Supervisors perceived almost all functions as frequently performed but with emphasis on functions that support improvement of teaching/learning as frequently performed. On the other hand, head teachers and teachers perceived functions that are supportive of improvement of teaching and learning as rarely performed.

The differences in perceptions of importance and performance of supervisory functions reaffirm the multi-facet nature of supervision and the conflict generated by the different roles. This is consistent with observations by (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Cooper, 1992; Glanz, 1994; Glanz & Shulman, 2006). When called upon to perform

both advisory and evaluative roles, as Cooper (1992) contends, balancing the two is a challenge to the supervisors; they tend to concentrate on evaluation. Contending to this view, Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) explains it to be as a result of evaluation being a legal requirement. This is the case in Kenya as shown in the *Education act* discussed in 6.2.2. Other than evaluation being a legal requirement, from the data it is not clear why supervisors concentrate on evaluation. A deduction can however be made from their reported limited knowledge of curriculum being implemented. Without adequate knowledge of what one is supposed to be guiding, it would be easier to assess than to advice or guide.

Given that this study was conducted in a background of implementation of an educational change, supervisors head teachers' and teachers' perception of the importance and performance of supervisory functions would have implications on implementation of change

Evidence suggests that functions that are perceived as important are not necessarily the ones that are frequently performed. The Evaluative function seems to be more frequently performed confirming Dean's (1992) observation that evaluation tends to overshadow other functions confirming. Literature on educational change is clear on the importance of teachers positive attitude to change Kalin and Zuljan (2007), understanding the change and being supported in its implementation (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Fullan, 2001; O'Niel, 1995). Functions that are perceived by head teachers and teachers as not frequently performed are those that can be used in making the curriculum change clear to the teachers. Functions such as informing teachers of curriculum changes, assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives, choice of curriculum materials and equipping them with relevant teaching methods, and in-service training are examples. As is be shown in section 8.2, some of the challenges that teachers face in the implementation of the revised primary curriculum could be attributed to teachers not being clear of the changes they were expected to implement. Lack of clarity of change has been identified as contributing to failure of implementation of educational changes (Fullan, 2001; Hall & Hord, 2001; Rudduck, 1991).

Another implication of the head teachers' and teachers' perception of importance and frequency of performance of supervisory functions can be seen in the light of effectiveness of supervision. Teachers perceiving supervision as helpful in improving teaching Zepeda & Ponticell (1998), providing feedback Blasé & Blasé (2000), and supervisors meeting teachers' expectations Lucio & McNeil (1969) are identified as promoters of effective supervision. Given the head teachers' and teachers' perceptions of importance and the frequency of performance of the supervisory functions that are supportive of effective supervision, and taking into consideration earlier findings of teachers expectations not being met adequately (see 7.3), it is possible to question the effectiveness of supervision provided as perceived by teachers. A gap between teachers' expectations, what they perceive as important and what they receive seems to exist

## **8.2 Challenges faced by Supervisors and Teachers**

*When the eye cries, it wets the nose (Kikuyu saying)*

Curriculum implementation is a critical stage in the curriculum development process. This is because it is the point at which envisaged change is put into practice. But, as research has found, it can be the most problematic stage (Beauchamp, 1981; Fullan, 2001; Kalin & Zuljan, 2007; Kelly, 2004; McBeath, 1991). This view is supported by literature on educational change and policy implementation which identify the implementation as a most challenging stage (Altricher & Elliot, 2000; Buachalla, 1988; Darling-Hammond, 1998; Hall & Hord, 2001; Kennedy, 2004; Morrison, 1998).

This section seeks to characterize challenges faced by teachers and supervisors in the implementation of a curriculum change and possibly make a connection with supervision and how it can be used to address the challenges.

### **8.2.1 Challenges Faced by Teachers**

Although data presented in the section is mainly from the main instruments used, information recorded as field notes has been used. During the informal chats

especially with head teachers as I explained the purpose of the study, often comments that were thought to be useful and relevant to the study were made. These and some observations made are included in the discussion in this section. In the head teachers' and teachers' questionnaires the questions that sought information on challenges were closed. Responses were generated during the pilot testing of the questionnaires which had allowed a range of typical responses to be identified. An open question was included to capture other challenges that may not have been covered in the closed question.

Zone supervisors' responses are recorded in table 8.12 while head teachers and teachers are in Table 8.15.

Table 8.15: Challenges Faced by Teachers According to Zone Supervisors.

Challenges	Count N=14	Percentage
Heavy workload/understaffing	5	35.7
Inadequate resources	5	35.7
Lack of specialization	5	35.7
Low of motivation/morale	4	28.6
Choice of curriculum support materials	4	28.6
Unsupportive parents	3	21.4
Infrequent supervisory visits	3	21.4
Interpretation of syllabus	2	14.3
Large class sizes	2	14.3
Inadequate in-service education	2	21.4
Emphasis on examination	1	14.3

\*Percentages do not add to 100% due to multiple responses.

It was notable that this question was only answered by five supervisors. This is in contrast with the enthusiasm shown during the group discussions where zone supervisors were eager to discuss the challenges they and teachers faced. An explanation to the discrepancy was sought during the group discussion. Their explanation is contained in the following quotation.

At the point of filling the questionnaire, if we put all these challenges, it is like we are **admitting** we have **failed** to do our job. When we talk, you now understand our position and can understand why teachers may be facing these problems. Our own challenges are overwhelming, unless ours are addressed, how can we help the teachers? (SD).

The supervisors' explanation brings out methodological issues demonstrating the importance of using different methods of collecting data. It also brings the deep-seated and highly charged nature of the focus of the research.

Understaffing, a heavy work load for teachers and inadequate resources, and lack of specialization were reported as challenges by 35.7% of the supervisors. The heavy workload and inadequacy of resources can be attributed to the introduction of free primary education by the government in 2003 that saw the enrolment in primary schools rise without a corresponding rise in the number of teachers (Republic of Kenya, 2005a). Lack of specialization is reference to teachers being required to be able to teach all subjects in primary education. Although this has now changed with the revised teacher education curriculum where teachers train to teach those subjects they are academically well grounded in (Republic of Kenya, 2004b) majority of the teachers in schools were trained before the changes were effected. These reported challenges are discussed further later in the section.

### 8.2.1.1 Challenges Faced by Teachers According to Head teachers and Teachers.

Table: 8.16 Challenges According to Head teachers and Teachers

Challenges	H/teachers N=54				Teachers N=379			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Interpretation of national educational goal	46	85.5	8	14.8	319	84.6	60	15.8
Interpreting primary level objectives	48	88.9	6	11.1	323	85.2	56	14.8
Interpreting subject content	47	87.0	7	13.0	317	83.6	62	16.4
Choosing teaching/learning materials	42	77.8	12	22.2	318	83.9	61	16.1
Acquiring teaching/materials	21	38.9	33	61.1	213	56.2	166	43.8

Results on Table 8.11 imply that majority of the head teachers thought interpreting national goals; primary level objectives and subject content were a challenge to teachers. Teachers supported the head teachers' position as majority reported facing challenges in the same areas as shown in Table 8.16. Acquisition of teaching/learning materials was reported as a challenge by slightly lower number of head teachers (38.9) and 56.2% of the teachers. This can be explained by the fact that through the FPE the government is providing funds to schools to purchase the teaching/learning materials. However there were reports of funds being sent to



schools late and text books not being available in good time for schools to purchase thus affecting implementation: 'delay in provision of teaching/learning materials meant delay in starting the implementation' (TD). This promoted teachers to suggest that, 'books and other curriculum support materials should be made available at the onset of the curriculum implementation' (TD). The reported delay of the materials was confirmed by two supervisors during the interviews. Explaining the inadequate of preparation of teachers for the implementation of the curriculum change, they commented, 'You know even the teaching materials were late reaching the schools' (SI 3)... 'the syllabuses and textbooks were not out (SI 4). Monitoring reports of the implementation of the curriculum show teaching/learning materials were received in schools late (Kenya Institute of Education, 2004, 2005).

In the open question, teachers reported large class sizes, broad content in some subjects such as social Studies, unsupportive parents, too much workload, low morale, too many recommended textbooks, lack of in-service training and inadequate physical facilities as challenges. The open question was answered by only 49 teachers.

Since this study was carried out in a background of implementing an educational change, the reported challenges are discussed in the light of their implications on supervision and implementation curriculum change.

#### **8.2.1.2 Interpretation of Education Goals and Objectives.**

Education in Kenya is objective based. The national goals of education as spelt out in several education documents are further addressed in objectives at various levels of education, for instance in the primary level objectives. These are further broken down into general subject objectives and even further as specific subject objectives (Republic of Kenya, 2002a). The content that is taught in class is therefore expected to address the various educational goals. Teachers are expected to relate or identify the connection between what they teach and the educational goals.

Responses from supervisors, head teachers and teachers reveal that teachers faced difficulties in interpreting the national goals of education, primary level objectives

and subject content. According to the results shown in Table 8.16, it was reported by a majority of head teachers and teachers. In the questionnaire, only two zone supervisors reported that teachers faced these challenges. This was in contrast with their responses during the group discussion where they all agreed that teachers had problems interpreting the goals and objectives of education as shown in this quotation:

They **cannot** even **interpret** the syllabus or **relate** what is in the syllabus with what they teach (SD).

These sentiments were supported by supervisors interviewed at the national and district offices. They concurred with their colleagues at the zone level on the inability of the teachers to interpret the national goals and objectives.

Expressing teachers' ignorance of the existence of the national goals of education, one supervisor said:

They do not **even know** that these goals are there. Some will not even look at the subject objectives (ID).

The ignorance of the existence of the goals and objectives was confirmed during the group interview with teachers as some wondered 'where can we read about them?' (TD).

Responding to a question on teachers relating national goals and objectives of education to the content in their subjects, the following comments were made by supervisors during the interviews:

Definitely they **do not see the connection**, they see them as a separate (SI 2).

Do not even go there; they **cannot relate** the goals with their subject content. They **rarely** if ever they do, look at the objectives (SI 3).

Another supervisor thought teachers were not only unable to interpret the goals and objectives but did not understand the curriculum as a whole.

...teachers have **not yet understood** the objectives neither the revised curriculum (SI 4).

Contrasting the supervisors' views expressed above, teachers offer an explanation that suggests that they are not keen on the national goal as depicted in these quotes:

National goal! Who cares? We have **too much work load**. My interest is just going to class, deliver the content and complete the syllabus (TD).

No **question in KCPE asks about the goals**, why should I even think about them, nobody talks about them, why bother (ibid)

In addition to the workload that teachers attribute to their lack of attention of the national goals, the influence of examination on the teaching is evident as teachers refer to KCPE.

The relationship between implementation of one policy and the influence of another is evident. For instance the implementation of the FPE resulted into increased workload for teachers as they coped with increased pupil enrolment. Transition to secondary education based on the performance in KCPE as explained in 1.6.1 can be associated with teachers' concentration on teaching for examination.

### 8.2.1.3 Interpreting Subject Content

As explained in section 1.6.2 several changes were made in subjects in primary education. According to 87% of the head teachers and 83.7% of the teachers, interpreting subject content was a challenge to teachers.

This was supported by supervisors who were interviewed. According to the supervisors, teachers faced challenges in new content such as child labor, child rights, HIV/Aids, governance and democracy, gender and environmental issues. These were new areas in the curriculum that were supposed to address various concerns in the society (Republic of Kenya, 2002a).

The following quotes demonstrate what the supervisors thought were content challenges:

As far as the content is concerned they have a problem with **emerging issues**. Like the area of **child labor** and **child rights** (SI 2).

They find **new content** challenging, e.g. civil rights, child rights, HIV/Aids and child labour. They also find improvisation a problem. **new areas** that teachers are finding difficult such as cultural activities, social relations ....constitution, law, peace and reconciliation (SI 3).

Teachers have not understood the **changes** in the curriculum. This is especially in subjects that were **combined** (SI 4).

Some of the subjects that were **changed** like social studies and science are not well understood. **Emerging issues** such as HIV/Aids, child labour, child rights are not well articulated by teachers. They tend to look at these issues in isolation. It is a question of methodology not well understood, integration and infusion (SI 5).

From these responses by supervisors it is clear that the challenges were as a result of new topics and also the change in the nature of a discipline especially where subjects were combined.

Offering a different opinion, two supervisors during the interviews alleged that teachers may be facing challenges in content because they may not be living the ideals that they were teaching.

They do not give them a lot of emphasis because they are also **contravening** the child rights (SI 2).

They find **new content challenging**, e.g. civil rights, child rights, HIV/Aids and child labour. Some of them are also afraid of teaching them since **they do not observe them** (SI 3).

While the supervisors' claim could be true, the pressure the society puts on the teachers is also depicted in their comments. Teachers are expected not only to teach the stipulated content to fulfill the goals and objectives of education but also to be good role models. In a study on *Reforms and teachers practical intentions* (Kennedy, 2004) makes similar observations

We want teachers to be **role models** for moral and ethical behavior and to create positive climates for learning in their classrooms but also want them to be efficient and goal oriented (p.2).

#### **8.2.1.4 Choice and Acquisition of teaching /learning Materials**

Head teachers (77.8%) and teachers (83.9%) reported choice and acquisition of teaching learning materials as a challenge. Acquisition on the other hand was reported as a challenge by 38.9% head teachers and 56.7% teachers. In section 1.6.2, changes in primary education are discussed. Under the free primary education, the government provides funds to schools to procure books and other teaching/learning materials. New procedures for procurement were put in place in 2003. Also changed

in the same year was the vetting process for materials that went to schools. Under the new arrangement, a maximum of six textbooks are approved from which a school choosing one textbook per subject (Republic of Kenya, 2006b). These were major changes that head teachers and teachers needed to understand if they were to implement the changes.

Reasons as to why teachers were finding difficulty in interpreting the goals and objectives of education, subject content and in the choice of teaching/learning materials were sought. This was done during the group discussions with the zone supervisor, teachers, interviews with the district supervisor and supervisors in the national office. The following reasons were advanced:

1. Inadequate preparation for curriculum implementation.

Preparation of teachers for an educational change has been identified as an important component of the implementation. In a study on *Teachers' views on recent curriculum changes: tensions and challenges* in Portugal (Flores, 2005) provide evidence of the need to inform and train teachers as a result of the dilemmas and challenges they are confronted with as they implement a curriculum change.

The question of preparing teachers before implementation was very prominent in the discussions with teachers and supervisors. All the respondents were in agreement that the preparation was inadequate. During the group interview, teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the preparation they received terming it as a 'charade' that lacked enough well skilled trainers and training materials and adequate time. The same sentiments were expressed in the questionnaire when teachers commented on the inadequacy of in-service training as discussed in section 7.2. In addition teachers said the content covered during the training was too shallow.

Similar views were expressed by the supervisors as captured in these quotations which emphasize factors of time, large numbers of participants in courses, and of the superficiality of the training because.

The induction was done in a **hurry**. **Little time** was given. The worst was that the **materials** were **not available** (SD).

...these courses were **not effective**, not adequate. ... the numbers accommodated in one training centre were **too many** (500). The training days were **three**. These were **too few** for the content that was supposed to be covered (SI 3).

Areas that were **not touched** were the methods, **national goals**,... the relationship between the **national goals, primary level objectives** and **the content were not touched**, neither were the **emerging issues**. The **time was not enough**, took two days. Only **a few teachers** were selected and they were expected to go back and in-service others (SI 1).

From the responses presented, supervisors and teachers were in agreement that the preparation of teachers for curriculum implementation was not adequate. This was as a result of the reported challenges such as lack of training materials, inadequate time, and large numbers in training centers and content that did not cover and new content.

Preparation for an educational change as discussed in 2.2.3.1 is important in successful implementation. Capturing the importance of preparing teachers for implementation of change, (Kalin & Zuljan, 2007) in a study on *Teachers' perceptions of the goals of effective school reforms and their role in it* concluded that success of change was significantly related to how well informed teachers were among other factors.

In-service education and general professional development has been found to improve teaching and subsequently learning especially when it increases teachers' understanding of the content they teach, how students learn and the best method to teach the content (Ingvarson, Meiers, & Beavis, 2005; Yek & Penney, 2006). Though identified as one of the functions that supervisors should perform as well as expected by teachers; finding discussed in 7.2.1 in-service training was inadequate. This is also confirmed in the finding of the frequently performed functions (see 8.1.2). This could explain why teachers faced challenges in new aspects of the curriculum.

## 2. Pressure to Excel in National Examination.

Pressure for schools to excel in KCPE was cited as reason that hindered teachers' interpretation of goals and objectives. Showing where their concentration was, teachers said:

**No question** in KCPE asks about the goals, why should I even think about it. Nobody talks about them, **why bother** (TD).

We are a **forgotten** lot. The only time we are remembered is when the **examination results** are announced and the school does **not perform well**. What follows is **condemnations** from all and sundry (TD).

One of the senior supervisors interviewed had this to say:

There is a **lot of pressure** in passing examinations. This makes the teachers **concentrate** only on the **content**. This is unfortunate since the content is supposed to be reflected by the objectives (ID).

This quote drawn from the discussion with the zone supervisors captures and summarizes why teachers may be failing to focus on the goals and objectives of education:

**Emphasis** is on **passing** examinations, no teaching takes place. Children are taught how to pass examinations without learning. At the end of eight years in primary education, the **performance** in KCPE is what is important. Only schools and pupils who perform well or attain high mean scores are given **attention**. Teachers therefore don't take time to relate the national goals of education with what they teach in class. The end justifies the means (SD).

Other than detailing the examination pressure on the teachers, the expression by supervisors puts focus on the curriculum evaluation process. Although relationship between test scores and achievement of educational goals is beyond the limits of this study, it is an area that is worth being investigated.

In relation to examinations, a notable observation is the discrepancy between responses by the zone supervisors in the questionnaires and during the group interview. In the questionnaire, only one supervisor cited emphasis on pupils passing examination as a challenge teachers faced as shown in table 8.10. In contrast, during the group interview, there was an overwhelming agreement that it was indeed a challenge. Reason for the discrepancy was sought. A similar explanation to one quoted earlier was given.

These **problems are real** but how does one put them down in writing without **incriminating** oneself. When a school in your zone performs **poorly**, you get the **heat** from the District office. They in turn get it from the provincial and head offices. The parents are also on your case. We in turn pressurise the teachers to perform (SD).

Like the comment made earlier the advantage of using different methods of collecting data is portrayed by this comment by the zone supervisors. It also shows how implementation of policies may be distorted during the implementation and how one policy could affect the implementation of another. For instance, the focus on examination can be attributed to the limited transition chances available from primary to secondary as explained in chapter one, section 1.3.

#### **8.2.1.5 Inadequate Resources**

Supervisors and teachers cited understaffing and inadequate physical resources as a challenge teachers and schools faced. This resulted to large class sizes and heavy workload for teachers. This could be causing the low morale reported by the zone supervisors as depicted by this comment made during the teachers' group interviews.

Primary school teachers are like **beasts of burden**. Too many pupils in a class and nobody seem to **appreciate** the work they do (TD).

While the teachers felt overwhelmed by large class sizes, head teachers who also teach like all the other teachers reported equally being overburdened.

There is too much **administrative work**. Financial management is taking a lot of our time as heads (TD).

The head teachers' position is supported by a supervisor who cited lack of internal supervision in the schools as a challenge in curriculum implementation which he attributed to too much workload on the head teachers. His concerns are revealed in the following comment:

Head teachers are **over burdened** and **bogged down** by many duties are unable to supervise. They also have to teach full load like any other teacher (SI 3).

Contending with the supervisor's sentiments and showing the effect of implementing two major changes in primary schools, one head teacher made this comment:

The head teacher is **overworked**. She/he is a teacher, **manager**, **accountant** and **supervisor** all in one. With the introduction of FPE, a lot of energy is going into **record keeping**. The focus of both the QASOs and head teachers is on **FPE management** especially of funds (FN)



Emphasising the focus on FPE, another head teacher added:

The head teacher is **mixed up**. Producing good results and keeping good records. We spend so much time **keeping records** at the **expense of curriculum** implementation. Other times we argue that **if a child fails you cannot be sacked** but if your **accounts are not well kept**, you are likely to be sacked (FN).

The seriousness with which the head teachers take FPE was witnessed during the school visits. In most of the schools visited, files relating to FPE were the most visible on the head teachers' desk. It is also a requirement that a school should have a board conspicuously displayed where statements of account of the FPE money are posted. In two schools visited, the head teachers joked that on seeing the researcher they pulled out FPE files as they thought she was an 'inspector'.

Free primary education was introduced to have more children access education. As argued in the background chapter, getting more children to schools is not enough. They should get to schools to learn. From the above comment made by head teachers, it seems like the main focus is monitoring of the funds. The funds are supposed to facilitate teaching and learning. It is therefore expected that those charged with the responsibility of overseeing that teaching and learning takes place in school would focus on the process (teaching and learning). Their focus on the input should be only as far as it contributes to the teaching and learning.

Although it is argued by (Altricher & Elliot, 2000) that economic concerns influence educational policies strongly as educational policies are often meant to 'reduce cost and increase productivity of schools' (p.13), problems may occur when the main focus shifts from the process and product to the input. This is bound to defeat the very purpose for which the input was meant for as in the case of supervisors and head teachers concentrating on the control and accountability of the FPE funds rather than what the fund is supposed to be facilitating. This is situation that Bredeson & Kose (2007) blames on policy makers 'for creating mandates which require time, resources and energy [filling out documentations]' (p.19) which they say distracts supervisors from instructional leadership.

Supervisors at the national level concurred with the teachers that schools were understaffed. All supervisors interviewed cited understaffing as a challenge in public primary schools. Expressions by some of the supervisors are stated below.

There are **too many pupils** in one class. A teacher is not able to give **individual attention**. This is as a result of understaffing in some areas or lack of physical facilities in others (SI 3).

With the advent of FPE, there was rise in the number of pupils in schools. In some areas, teachers are having **classes of 50-70** while in some there are even **more than a 100 pupils** in one class (SD).

The supervisors see the large classes as a hindrance to effective implementation of the curriculum as summarized by one supervisor during the interview;

Teacher: pupil **interaction is not adequate because of the large numbers** in class. You know the teacher: pupil ratio also affects the implementation of the curriculum (SI 2).

Although there seems to be no clear agreement on the effect of class size on teaching/learning as some studies O'Sullivan (2006) show there might be no effect while others Bennet (1996), Blatchford (2003) and Krueger (2002) suggest there could be an effect while some like Hanushek (2002) suggesting in some cases there could be a positive relationship while in others no relationship can be found, the Kenya case may be different. A small class in Kenya may be a large one in a developed country. The large class sizes referred to in the study are an average of 50 pupils in one class but could go as high as 100 or more in some areas.

There was a general agreement on the shortage of teachers in school, although supervisors suggested the magnitude could be exaggerated and teachers were using it as an excuse not to do their work. The supervisors' views are shown the quotes below.

The only thing currently is the **shortage** of staff. It has become an **excuse**. Every time you go a school and you find the teacher having not covered the syllabus, they always say they have **too much work**. Although in some schools the shortage is **serious** (SI 6).

They are **lazy**. They just pick a text book and go to class (SD).

They are interested more in **other things other than teaching**. They just have a **negative attitude**. May be it can be attributed even to the **recruitment**. Usually only those **who lack other avenues** end up in TTCs (SI 1).

One of the challenges is as a **result of attitude**. Teachers are **resistant to change**. They want to do things the old way. Teachers are **not interested** in learning more; they **lack commitment** (SI 1).

I see it more of an **attitude problem**. They want everything ready made for them (SI 3).

Comments by supervisors demonstrate what they believe to be a hindrance in the teachers' ability to relate the goals and objectives of education to the content taught in class. They seem to look at teachers in the light of (McGregor, 1960) theory X that assumes that human beings have an inherent dislike for work. This corresponds with earlier comments and observations discussed in section 6.2.3.7 where supervisors see their core functions as assessing teachers to ensure that they perform as expected.

The evidence presented from the different respondents indicates that schools face shortage of teachers. Consequently, this leads to other challenges such as large classes and extra workload for teachers. These in turn affect the way teachers implement the curriculum changes.

#### **8.2.1.6 Unsupportive Parents**

Another challenge mentioned by the teachers and supervisors is unsupportive parents. Parents and community surrounding the school play an important part as they constitute the legally recognised school management committees (Republic of Kenya, 1999). The other reason for the need for cooperation between schools, parents and the communities is the shared resources. In most cases schools share resources such as water points with the communities. Good school/ community relations are therefore important for the smooth running of the school. That is why promotion of school/community relations is one of the functions that supervisors in Kenya are expected to perform and hence this is a challenge if the parents are seen to be unsupportive. Although it was reported as a challenge by a few supervisors (four) and five teachers it cannot be ignored.

In summary, looking at the challenges faced by teachers as they implement the curriculum change, it is evident that the most of the challenges emanated from lack

of preparation for the implementation. The discussion on challenges reveals a web of interrelations that influence teachers' implementation of curriculum change. As a result, the reported challenges are actually failures of the system to have a clear and comprehensive policy on implementation of an educational change that details the process and the role different players.

### **8.2.1.7 Suggestions for Addressing the Challenges**

Suggestions on how the challenges could be addressed were sought. Frequent in-service training with emphases on methodology was cited by the three groups as the major way of addressing the challenges. Agreeing with these sentiments Courtney (2007); Darling-Hammond (1997); Day & Sachs (2004) Fullan & Hargreaves (1992) see professional development under which in-service training falls in terms of improvement of teachers' classroom practices. The supervisors' and teachers' recommendation of in-service training can be seen in the light of its importance in implementation of an educational change. In this respect, making the changes clear to teachers Fullan (2001) making teachers own the changes Fullan & Hargreaves (1992); Walsh & Gamage (2003) and improvement of classroom practices (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1992; Guskey, 1986).

Other recommendations were:

- Streamlining of the procurement procedures for the teaching/learning material.
- Sensitizing parents on their role in schools
- Revising of content in subjects that have too much.
- Employing of more teachers to reduce workload.
- Training school management committees in management.

### **8.2.2 Challenges faced by supervisors**

*'Our own challenges are overwhelming, unless ours are addressed, how can we help the teachers?' (SD).*

This section discusses challenges faced by supervisors in relation to instructional supervision during implementation of change.

Challenges as reported by zone supervisors are recorded in Table 8.12.

Table 8.17: Challenges Faced by Zone Supervisors

Challenges	Count N=14	Percentage
Heavy work load/too many roles	7	50.0
Lack of support staff	6	42.9
Lack of resources	6	42.9
Teachers negative attitude towards supervision	3	21.4
Unfamiliar with the primary education curriculum	3	21.4

From the data presented in Table 8.12, the main challenges supervisors reported to be facing are heavy work load that results from too many roles they perform that was reported by 50% of the supervisors, lack of support staff (42.9) and general lack of resources (42.9). Some of the supervisors (21.4) reported they were not familiar with the primary education curriculum. These are probably those who were previously secondary school teachers before being promoted to supervisors. In addition, teachers' negative attitude to supervision was seen as a challenge by some (21.4) supervisors. Similar challenges were cited by the supervisors at the national and district offices. The challenges are addressed below.

### 8.2.2.1 Heavy workload/ too Many Roles

This was cited as a challenge by supervisors at all levels as a result of staff shortage and too many administrative duties. At the district level, the district supervisor reported the office was supposed to have 13 supervisors. Only five were 'in-post who handled everything' during this study's period (SI 6).

The national office is not spared the shortage either. A supervisor in-charge of a subject handles issues related to the subject at all levels from Early Childhood Education to middle level colleges. In addition, the officer has to liaise with other departments such as KIE that develops curriculum, KNEC that evaluates the curriculum and TSC that deals with employment and deployment of teachers as captured in the quotations below.

I am expected to attend meetings at TSC, KNEC and KIE. This is on top of my daily work which involves (SI 1).

Sometimes an officer many find they are required to attend activities in all these agencies (SI 3)

At the zone level, the supervisors reported that there were too many administrative duties to be performed. Most of which are related to FPE as shown below:

The focus seems to be on the FPE, **a lot of data** is needed and monitoring of the **use of funds** in schools (SD).

Most of our time now is taken by **report writing**; a lot of data to be collected **focusing on FPE** while the offices are not equipped for this kind of work (SD).

The supervisors felt concentration on FPE funding was being done at the expense of supervising the actual core business of a school, which is teaching and learning as depicted in the following quotation:

What we seem to forget is that FPE will be a **failure** if the **objectives** of primary education are **not achieved**. Pupils can be in schools without learning (SD).

The supervisors report on the focus on FPE is a confirmation of the head teachers and teachers assertion discussed in section 8.2.1 the main concern is use of funds rather than the implementation of the curriculum.

Supervisors also reported doing duties that are completely removed from their core duty. These extra duties affected the performance of their supervisory duties as reported by one supervisor interviewed at the national office:

Workload is too much. We perform tasks that are **not related to our core duties**. Such tasks as speech writing take a lot of our times. We cannot therefore follow our work plans effectively (SI 4).

However, a supervisor playing too many roles is not a problem just in Kenya. Similar findings are reported by Glanz and Shulman (2007:2) on the status of instructional supervision. Results from their study indicated that 'in many instances principals, given many non-instructional duties did not have the time to undertake continuous and meaningful supervision. The issue of administrative and supervisory duties are widely debated especially as concerning the role dilemmas faced when both roles are played by one person as often it is the case (Glickman et al., 2007; Harris, 1985)

Although supervisors attribute the heavy workload to shortage of supervisors, teachers thought otherwise as discussed earlier (8.2.1). The teachers' view of supervisors' load was confirmed by supervisors during the interview. Referring to teachers who may visit their offices:

When they find our **offices locked**, they **assume we do not go the office**. They do not know of the **many roles** we have to **perform** (SD).

Reasons for the shortage were sought. At the head office, the senior supervisor explained that the Directorate was:

We are trying to reduce the workforce at the head office and have more at the other level since this is where most of the work is. We are trying to create a pyramid with a wide base and a lean top (ID).

Going by the reported shortage at the district and zone levels, the envisaged wide base was far from being achieved.

At the zone level supervisors had a different theory to explain the shortage of staff as explained below:

The job is **no longer attractive**. Who wants to work in an environment that is **hostile**? Walking for miles with **little appreciation** of what they do (SD)

From the statement it seems the supervisors attribute the shortage of staff to the challenges that they face as they make reference to hostile environment. In addition there is reference to lack of appreciation for the work they do and lack of transport as they refer to walking for long distances.

The hostility they refer to is further explained when they disclosed that their offices are not safe to work in. Expressing how unsafe some of the offices are:

The offices are **always broken into**, chairs and everything else **stolen** we do not leave even rough papers in those offices; we shall find them gone (SD).

My office is next to the chief's, I only venture there when I know the chief is around, otherwise I **feel very unsafe**. This is because in the vicinity there are people who **make illicit brews** and drunkards pass my office hurling abuses. Even if I was an angel, how can I **deliver in such an environment**? (SD)

These statements by supervisor portray a picture of hostility from the community that the supervisors are supposed to serve. Also highlighted is the working environment

that seems to be neglected. According to the supervisors, 'some of the offices do not have toilet facilities' (SD page 3). As one of the supervisors concludes:

This coupled with other challenges has made many QASOs opt to go back to teach or further their educations as a way of escaping the frustrating work (SD).

### 8.2.2.2 Inadequate Resources

One of the main problems that supervisors reported facing was lack of support staff in the offices. This was a problem that was reported by supervisors at the zone level. When I first saw the response in the questionnaires, I did not understand what it had to do with supervision, not until during the group interview with the supervisors when they explained the relationship. Explaining that the local community and teachers usually think they don't work, they said:

When they find our **offices locked**, they assume we **do not go the office**. Had we clerks or secretaries, the offices would remain open (SD).

Similar views are held by (Tanner & Tanner, 1987) who contends the need for clerical support and adequate facilities to facilitate supervisors to perform their work

On further probing, supervisors explained the extent to which the lack of support staff in the office was affecting their work as contained in the quotation below.

Due to shortage of staff, I have to **sweep** my office, **arrange** and file documents. In addition I have to go to the DEO's office where I am **assigned other duties**. ... Sometimes we **use our children** to do some of our office work, like compiling data. It is **simply overwhelming**. All this **erodes our self esteem**. In many cases we have to **rely** on some schools to **provide secretarial services, postage** of letters and other supporting services since we lack even stationary. How then I am I supposed to supervise such a head teacher and school? I look **inadequate** since every time I appear in that school, I am on a **begging mission**. Even the supervisory report I write has to be **typed in the same school**. This can take so long depending on the whether it is **favourable** to the school or not. This **causes delay** in action that could be taken to rectify the situation. Honestly, sometimes I feel so **demoralized, lack confidence** and feel like I have **no moral authority** to supervise anyone. This coupled with the fact that sometimes **our grades are lower** than for those people we are supposed to supervise is in itself a deterring factor (SD).

The long statement raises different issues that supervisors feel affect their work. One is the fact that their time is taken by doing work that is not directly related to their



core function of supervision. The other is low motivation as a result of the processes they have to go through to get their work done and remuneration which is attached to a grade. Their reliance on schools for secretarial services was witnessed by the researcher in one school. This may not only put the supervisor in a compromising position as they may be manipulated by the head teachers in such a school but also delays reports.

The other major challenge reported was lack of transport and other means of communication. At the head office, supervisors explained that they could not work according to their schedules as they were not sure when transport would be available. When it was available they had to move 'to move in groups [making] it difficult for one to follow their work schedule (SI 2).

Although going to schools and districts as group is a way of maximizing the use of resources; unless it is well coordinated, it could limit individual supervisors' way of performing their duties.

At the district and zone levels, the limitation was as a result of the directorate not having its own budget. The DEO in the district controls the funds which supervisors reported was a limitation.

We have **no transport**. Motor bikes were provided but most of the times they are either **broken down** without spare parts as a result of the long government procurement procedures or they do **not have fuel** (SD).

A senior supervisor interviewed at the head office confirmed the fuel shortage, he commented: Our fuel allocation has been reduced (ID).

They further explained that to work they have to:

... dig deep in our pockets to do government work. We pay for telephone calls and transport (SD).

Lack of physical facilities was reported and observed as a major challenge at all levels. Although observation was not one of the methods that were planned for data collection, some aspects could not be ignored and hence notes were taken. For instance, at the district and zone levels office space was a big problem. At the district office a small office was shared by all the five supervisors. The same office was used by the zone supervisors when they had to work in the district office. Furniture was

limited with only a table, a few chairs and one filing cabinet. A telephone line was however available. The same scenario was repeated in the zone offices, though many zone offices were actually in disused state with and had no telephone facility.

In the national office, there was an attempt to make the offices comfortable. On the state of the offices, the senior supervisor interviewed said:

Look at my office; does it have furniture that befits my status? We lack office equipment, computers to facilitate in production of reports (ID).

This statement could be asked by all the supervisors at all levels as the state of the offices is vividly depicted by another supervisor at the head office

Offices facilities are wanting, **poor furniture, torn seats, lack of computers** and other facilities that facilitate work in an office. Tell me, does this office look like an Assistant Director's office? When people read **the title** on the door they are taken aback when they enter. They usually think they have entered the **wrong office** (SI 3).

Statements by the two supervisors though giving a picture of the state of offices show the effect the working environment can have on the worker. The tone used also depicts what they feel about their work environment.

There is reference to low morale and lack of motivation that is shown in the quotation below.

Low morale and lack of motivation. This is mainly due to the low remuneration. Big titles are given but very little to show for it. If am called assistant director of quality assurance, are my children going to be educated by the title? (SI 3).

Looking at the supervisors' responses and comments, availability of resources as a challenge does not only affect the performance of supervision in schools but also their motivation and morale.

### **8.2.2.3 Familiarity with Primary Education Curriculum**

Overseeing curriculum implementation is the function of supervisors as portrayed in policy documents and is reported as the core function of the DQAS.

Commenting on supervisors' knowledge of primary education, teachers alluded to supervisors not being familiar with the primary education curriculum. They

attributed this to some being former secondary school teacher therefore lacking knowledge of primary education as captured in this comment:

QASOS are mainly secondary school teachers; they do **not understand** the methodology used in primary schools. How can one guide in something they do not understand? (TD).

On the other hand supervisors, who were interviewed while acknowledging that the curriculum was a challenge, attributed it to lack of induction on the new curriculum. The zone supervisors were very clear that they were '(...) inducting them [teachers] on something that we were not very sure about ourselves' (SD). Their view on lack of induction was supported by the district supervisor and some supervisors at the national office as depicted by these quotes below captured during the interviews.

There was an attempt but I can not call it an induction. We were only informed about the changes in subjects. Those that had been dropped added but it was not given enough time to get o the interpretation of the curriculum (SI 6).

Commenting on the inadequacy of the induction received, a supervisor at the head office said:

I was inducted on the same, however it was not enough to enable me guide teachers (SI 1).

This view was supported by another supervisor.

Another challenge that is also related is that we were not sensitized enough for the implementation of the curriculum (SI 4).

While the district and the zone supervisors may need to be inducted on the new curriculum since they do not directly participate in its development, what is not clear is why the supervisors at the national level expect to be inducted. They are supposed to chair the subject panels that develop curriculum at the Kenya Institute of Education (Republic of Kenya, 2006c).

While supervisors were asked what functions they were supposed to perform, all cited liaising with KIE, TSC and KNEC. These are agencies involved in the curriculum at one stage or the other. This is an indication that they were aware of the role they should play in the curriculum development process. However, commenting

on the many roles they have to perform and the heavy workload, they expressed concern that some of the tasks can be neglected. This was portrayed by a reaction from one supervisor:

Let's look at this way, there is work delegated by the Director of Quality Assurance and Standards, at the same time there is a panel meeting in KIE, which one am I likely to attend to? I will attend to the one given by the DQAS. He is my immediate boss. If fail, I might look like I am doing work for other departments and neglecting mine (SI 1).

Curriculum development was not among the priority functions reported by zone and district supervisors; however it was ranked number two among the priorities by supervisors in the head office as discussed in section in 7.1.1.1. This was not surprising as supervisors in the head office are directly involved. They chair the curriculum development panels in KIE. However, they suggested that preparation of teachers for implementation of a curriculum change should be carried out by KIE.

KIE should take the lead in preparing teachers for curriculum implementation. The best placed. Though we work together in subject panels, their main duty is curriculum development. Therefore they understand the curriculum better than anybody else (ID).

This view is also shared by other inspectors: 'the people who understand the curriculum better are the developers in KIE' (SI 3).

Another supervisor reported the need to have other departments being involved in the preparation of teachers as proposed by one supervisor during the interview:

...when we have in-service courses for teachers, it is important for KIE and KNEC to participate but more often than not they do not. ...curriculum belongs to all departments and it success can only be realized if all join hands. In principle this is what is supposed to happen (SI 2).

Also calling for the combined effort of DQAS, KIE and KNEC in the preparation of teachers as it would make it more comprehensive, given the different roles the organizations play in the curriculum process.

To effectively implement the revised curriculum, team effort is needed. To in-service teachers, a team composed of QASOs (DQAS), curriculum developers (KIE) and Evaluators (KNEC) should be used. This would make in-servicing comprehensive and include all areas that might contribute to effective implementation (SI 4).

#### 8.2.2.4 Supervisors' Suggestions for Addressing the Challenges

Supervisors were asked to suggest how the challenges can be addressed. All the supervisors, at all levels were specific that most of the challenges faced could be solved if the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards autonomous. By being autonomous, the supervisors indicated the directorate would have its own budget at all levels which would enable supervisors to make schedules they can keep. This was in reference to the current situation where:

...QASOs are not signatories to the accounts. The DEO is the overseer of the management of resources. Since the district QASO has to rely on the DEO for funding, their programs are usually interfered with since supervision may not be the DEO's priority (SI 3).

The other advantage according to supervisors is it would be possible to follow up recommendations they make after a supervisory visit to ensure they are implemented. Under the current arrangement, whatever recommendations made are supposed to be implemented by other arms of the Ministry as shown by this comment:

Whether the recommendations are fulfilled, we never get to know, all these issues affect the implementation of the curriculum but we have little control (SI).

A comment from the senior supervisor however clarifies that:

An autonomous DQAS should assess standards and quality, then give the feedback to KIE who should be able to take action especially subject based in servicing. Every subject in the curriculum has an officer based at KIE (ID).

In order for this proposal to work, they suggested 'KIE should be strengthened and expanded to take up teacher preparation for curriculum implementation' (ID). In addition,

... to execute its duties effectively, DQAS needs to be autonomous. It should be able to check the standards of other departments. It also needs to network with other departments. These are KIE, TSC, KNEC and KESI. We lost it when each one of us started pulling to our own corners. We all need each other. Though doing different things, our goal is the same (ID).

Supervisors also proposed formation of panels comprising of personnel drawn from DQAS (supervisors), KIE (curriculum developers) KNEC (curriculum evaluators) and Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) who are involved in training personnel working in the Ministry of Education. 'The curriculum belongs to all departments and its success can only be realised if all join hands' (SI2).

To strengthen the working of the combined team from the various departments in the Ministry, supervisors proposed synchronizing programs of these departments. This hopefully would solve the problem reported by the supervisors at the national level that they may be required in different departments at the same time.

#### **8.2.4 Summary**

The challenges reported by teachers and supervisors can be seen from a wider context. Looking at the various issues addressed in this study, such as the nature and form of instructional supervision, the challenges of implementing an educational change and the policies on instructional supervision; it is possible to see their linkage and the challenges that are reported. Though it may not be possible to establish a direct causal relationship, the linkage is evident. For instance the lack of policy direction on implementation of change, the double roles of supervisors as evaluators and advisors could be linked to the lack of preparation of teachers for the implementation of the revised curriculum. Consequently they are facing challenges in interpreting the curriculum objectives and content in various subjects.

Another aspect reflected in the reported challenges is the interrelationship between policies. The revised primary education curriculum was implemented at the same time with free primary education whose challenges to schools are discussed in 1.6.2. The policy where the number of teachers in a school is determined by the number of classes and the head teachers being seen as fulltime teachers despite the administrative duties they carry out is another policy that is related to the reported challenges. The administrative structures of the Ministry especially at the district level where the supervisors are accountable to the administrative arm of the Ministry seem to be a hurdle to the performance of the supervisors.

Looking at the challenges, what one sees is a spiral effect where implementation, lack of or failure to implement one policy results into challenges in other related policies and especially if the implementation is simultaneous.

This suggests need for focus on all policies being implemented in education to establish their relationships and effects on each other with a view of consolidating and revising them for smooth implementation. This study's contribution is at an opportune time when the laws governing education in Kenya are being examined for revision.

## **SECTION FIVE**

### **CHAPTER NINE**

#### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

*'The beginning of a rope can be the end, and the end can be the beginning.'*  
A Kikuyu saying.

##### **9.0 Introduction**

This study examined the instructional supervisory practices in primary education in Kenya in a background of implementing an educational change. The main focus was on the existing policy expectations, the actual performance by the supervisors, and head teachers and teachers' expectation from the supervisors. In addition, supervisors', head teachers' and teachers' perceptions of importance and frequency of performance of the functions and the challenges they faced were examined. The chapter presents a summary of the main findings, conclusions and recommendations drawn from data presented and discussed in chapters six, seven and eight. In addition, gaps have been identified where further research is needed to improve instructional supervision. Towards the end, the supervisory model currently in use in Kenya, a proposed model and its feedback process are presented. The two models summarise the study findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

Understanding of the way supervisors perceive their work, what the teachers expect from the supervisors and the challenges faced by supervisors and teachers in the process of implementing an educational change has implications for theory, policy and practice of instructional supervision. Consequently, the findings of this study make a contribution to the body of knowledge in the area, and to ways in which instructional supervision can be improved.

##### **9.1 Summary of Main Findings**

The findings are summarised according to the themes derived from the research questions.



### 9.1.1 Existing Policies

- There are several policy documents on supervision in Kenya. All the documents specify the purpose of supervision/inspection as for improvement of quality of education, but they differ in foci. The *Education act* is about legal authority, the Handbook is procedural while KESSP is about investment. The schedules outline the duties of the supervisors while the circulars give occasional directions on issues as they emerge.

- There is a lack of explicit direction on supervision in the implementation of change. In all the documents, none referred to implementation of educational change.

- The recruitment criteria and the skills necessary for supervisors to have are stipulated in policy. The basic requirement that supervisors be teachers does not provide the skills that are necessary for effective supervision. The policy is however silent on the training of the promoted teachers to transit them into supervisors. This is reflected in the reported lack of or inadequate induction that supervisors received sometimes years after they joined the directorate.

- Supervisors are expected to perform multiple roles according to the existing policy on supervision. For instance, they are expected to perform curriculum related functions such as participate in curriculum development, monitor its implementation in schools by advising and supporting teachers, assess teachers for promotion and participate in development and choice of teaching learning materials. They are also expected to assess the standards of education, advise the government on the standards as well as carry out general administrative tasks. The multiple roles call for different competencies. Data show all the supervisors were teachers before being recruited as supervisors with no formal training for the supervisory role; accordingly they lacked skills that were crucial in effective supervision.

- The skills and knowledge identified by supervisors as essential for effective supervision are consistent with the skills spelt out in the policy and literature except for computer skills.

- The policy expects supervisors to be experts in curriculum matters and education in general. The majority of the head teachers and teachers were in agreement that supervisors should have content knowledge of subjects they observe with 79.6% of the head teachers strongly agreeing and 18.5% agreeing and only one disagreeing. Among the teachers 66% strongly agreed, 21.2% agreed with only 2.6% disagreeing. Similarly majority (92%) of the supervisors rated being knowledgeable in subjects they observed teachers teach as very important. However data revealed that supervisors lacked in-depth knowledge of the revised curriculum.

- The main changes in curriculum were in national goals, primary objectives, subject content and text book policy. Of the four areas, all zone supervisors were aware of number of subjects taught but not the content or discipline changes. Only one zone supervisor mentioned in general the changes in subject. Only over half (57%) were familiar with primary education objectives and even fewer (42.9%) indicated familiarity with the national goals of education. The supervisors' knowledge of these areas could not be ascertained as they could not spell out the changes even in areas they claimed to have knowledge of.

- Head teachers and teachers were in agreement on the supervisors being facilitators but differ in their description of supervisors being inspectors where more teachers (38.3%) than head teachers (13%) view supervisors as inspectors. In the open question, teachers' descriptions of the supervisor were negative. Out of six words used, five had a negative connotation. Supervisors thought they had changed to become friendlier, positive with an aim of helping teachers improve their teaching which contradicts the teachers' views.

### **9.1.2 Policy and Actual Performance**

- The actual functions performed by supervisors differed with the policy expectations. More than half (69.2%) of the zone supervisors indicated there was a difference between the policy expectations and the actual functions they performed. All seven supervisors interviewed at the national and at district offices confirmed there was a difference in what they did and what the policy expected of them.

- Quality assessment is a top priority for all supervisors as it was ranked first in their list of priority functions.

- In preparation for implementation of change, data reveals head teachers and teachers indicated low performance of functions that could prepare teachers implement the revised curriculum. For instance, 40.7% of the head teachers and 53.3% of the teachers indicated they were inducted on suitable teaching methods. On interpretation of the curriculum goals and objectives, 53.7% of the head teachers and 53.9% of the teachers reported they did not receive help. With respect to selection of teaching/learning materials 66.7% head teachers and 60.3% teachers reported not receiving help. Regarding professional growth, 64.2% head teachers and 45.1% of the teachers reported not getting support. On support for in-service training 54.9% head teachers and 39.5% teachers indicated received support. This left a large number of head teachers (45.1%) and teachers (61.1%) without support.

Regarding adequacy of in-service/induction, those who indicated they were in-serviced, 85.2% of the head teachers reported it was useful while only (26.2%) of the teachers reported it was adequate. The main reason for inadequacy was the short time allocated for the training and lack of training materials.

- Head teachers and teachers have similar expectations of the supervisor as revealed by the functions they expected supervisors to perform in preparation or support for change implementation. Among the top expectation are in-service training, induction on curriculum, syllabuses interpretation and choice of textbooks and frequent supervisory visits.

- Data show a discrepancy between head teachers and teachers' expectations and the actual performance by supervisors. Out of the 13 functions head teachers and teachers listed as their expectations from the supervisor, only two in the head teachers' list and three in the teachers' list were in the list supervisors reported performing.

- Majority of the supervisors indicated their approach to supervision/inspection has become friendlier a position that was not shared by majority of the teachers.

### 9.1.3 Perceptions of Importance and Frequency of Performance

- Supervisors, head teachers and teachers perceived all selected supervisory functions as important with supervisors rating 19 functions out of 23 as very important, head teachers 20 and teachers six as very important and 15 as important.

- There was no statistical significant difference in the ratings of performance of importance and performance by teachers teaching different subjects except in conducting research and orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods where ( $p= 0.010$ ) and ( $p=0.030$ ).

- Supervisory functions rated as important by supervisors, teachers and head teachers were those that are seen to be supportive of the teaching /learning process such as professional growth, in-service training and providing feedback to teacher as colleagues.

- Class observation was perceived as very important by supervisors only. It is the only function where significant differences were found among the three groups. Between teachers and head teachers  $p=.000$ , teachers and supervisors  $p=.000$  and between head teachers and supervisors  $p=.011$ , which indicates high significant differences suggesting supervisors, head teachers and teachers had different perceptions of importance of class observation. Regarding frequency of performance, the high significance differences were found between teachers and supervisors where  $p=.000$ , and head teachers and supervisors where  $p=.000$ . This suggests head teachers and teachers had similar perceptions of performance of class observation function.

- Significant statistical differences between groups were found in supervisory functions that can be classified as evaluative and those that are supportive/advisory. Differences were mainly between head teachers and teachers (11 functions) and teachers and supervisors (nine). Only two functions showed significant differences between supervisors and head teachers perceptions of importance. Significant differences in class observation were evident between the three groups.

- Supervisors, head teachers and teachers perceived frequency of performance of supervisory functions differently. Teachers and head teachers did not perceive any functions as very frequently performed while supervisors rated 11 (47.8%) of the functions as very frequently, 9 (39.1%) as frequently performed and 3 (13.4%) as rarely performed. Teachers rated 11 (50%) of the functions as frequently performed,

9 (40.9%) as rarely performed and 2 (9.1%) as never performed. Teachers' perceptions of frequency of performance of supervisory functions compared well with head teachers who rated 13 (56.5%) as frequently performed and 10 (43.5%) as rarely performed. The difference in perception of performance of supervisory functions was confirmed by between group ANOVA which revealed statistical significant differences in ratings of frequency of performance of all supervisory functions except in facilitating appointment of subject panels ( $p=.212$ ) and organising in-service training ( $p=.077$ ). Differences were mainly between teachers and supervisors, and head teachers and supervisors further confirming that head teachers and teachers held similar perceptions of performance of supervisory functions.

- Supervisors and teachers face challenges in the implementation of the revised primary education curriculum. In this regard, interpretation of curriculum objects, subject content, and making appropriate choice of curriculum materials, inadequacy of human, physical and material resources were the main challenges.

## **9.2 Conclusions**

The conclusions made in this study are embedded in the whole study. I see it as a whole process interlinked in the various chapters. In the background chapter, the importance of primary education in Kenya is established. In addition, there is analysis of important part that instructional supervision would play to ensure the goals and objectives of this important sector of education are fulfilled.

The literature analysed establishes the theories and models on which supervision is embedded and the multifaceted nature of supervision resulting in role conflict and dilemmas supervisors face. The literature on change and in particular Fullan's model of education change places instructional supervision within the context of implementing an educational change.

The historical perspective draws the link between the African traditional education and the modern education. This brings to light some aspects of supervision that could be affected by the cultural concept of education. The possible influence of the change from traditional to modern education on supervision has been spelt out. In addition,

the post-independent analysis traces the steps and views on supervision over the years.

This background formed a basis, on which this study was conducted, and as such the conclusions presented in this section are based on the findings of the study as discussed in relation to the aforementioned issues raised in the background and literature analysed. Based on the limits and findings of this study, the following conclusions are drawn:

I. Policy on supervision is scattered in different policy documents. Though meant to give guidance on the performance of supervisors, there are differences in emphases and foci of supervision in different document blurring the role of the supervisor making it lacking in clarity. The roles as prescribed in the policy documents are multiple and often conflicting. Supervisors concentrate on evaluation/assessment making it synonymous to supervision.

II. Supervisors are aware of what the policy expects of them in supervision of instruction; however the policy and practice differ. This is mainly in the actual functions that they perform and the procedure of operation. Practice is influenced by the environment and the conditions the supervisors work under.

III. Zone supervisors performed more administrative functions than supportive or advisory ones. Their familiarity with the revised primary curriculum was confined to the administrative aspects such as the new textbook policy.

IV. Policy on supervision lacks direction on implementation of change. As long as there are no policy guidelines on the how educational changes should be implemented, there is a possibility of critical areas being neglected such as preparation of the implementers.

V. Overseeing curriculum implementation is not a priority supervisory function for supervisors although it is spelt out in the policy as one of their core functions.

VI. The head teachers' and teachers' expectation of the supervisors are consistent

with the policy expectations of the supervisors.

VII. The actual performance by supervisors does not meet the teachers and head teachers' expectations. Supervisors perform more evaluative/assessment functions than supportive/advisory functions.

VIII. All the selected supervisory functions are perceived as important by supervisors, head teachers and teachers. Head teachers and teachers perceive and rank functions that are supportive of teaching/learning process highly and also very important. While supervisors perceive evaluative/assessment functions as very important.

IX. Perceptions of supervisors, head teachers and teachers on frequency of performance of supervisory functions differed with supervisors perceiving almost all functions as frequently performed and head teachers and teachers perceiving functions that are supportive to improvement of teaching and learning as rarely performed. Teachers and head teachers had similar perceptions of frequency of performance of the selected supervisory functions.

X. Head teachers' and teachers' perception of the supervisors' role differed from the supervisors' perception of their role. Teachers are more negative in their perception of the supervisors' role as compared to head teachers. This is based on head teachers' and teachers' descriptions of the supervisors.

XI. Head teachers and teachers did not receive adequate preparation for the implementation of the curriculum change.

XII. Teachers faced challenges in the implementation of the revised curriculum as a result of lack of or inadequate preparation for its implementation.

XIII. A gap exists between the policy expectations and the actual practice as well as head teachers' and teachers' expectations and actual performance by the supervisors.

### **9.3 Recommendations for Policy and Practice**

Stemming from the findings of this study the following recommendations are made:

1. The government should revise laws governing education in Kenya with a view of consolidating them to create coherence to avoid different policies interfering or infringing on implementation of others.

2. There is a need to revise the policies on instructional supervision to reflect the changes taking place in the field. For instances, while the inspectorate changed to directorate of quality assurances and standard, the current policies and guides do not reflect the change.

3. The Ministry should pay particular attention to supervision during implementation of change by including it in the policy documents. Guidelines on how and who should do what during implementation of an educational change would help make the process smoother.

4. Based on the recommendations from the respondents and findings in this study, there is urgent need for the Ministry of Education to review the current role of DQAS with a view to separating the evaluative and advisory roles that are currently under the department. This can be done by creating an autonomous body that has the responsibility of ensuring standards of education while the advisory role is handled by another department such as KIE which is the national curriculum development centre hence best placed to advise teachers on curriculum matters. This separation would remove the role conflict that supervisors have to deal with when they perform advisory as well as evaluative functions.

5. The Ministry should reassess the roles of the three departments involved in curriculum matters, KIE, (the developers), DQAS, (the supervisors) and KNEC, (the evaluators). The assessment should take into consideration the developments and changes that have taken place over the years.

6. As a short term measure, supervisory teams composed of supervisors (DQAS), curriculum developers (KIE) and curriculum evaluators (KNEC) could be formed as they are all departments of the Ministry of Education.

7. KIE's role should be expanded to go beyond development of the curriculum and monitoring its implementation. The expanded role should include teachers'



professional development. To this, the Institute should establish field outreach programmes that would get to the teachers at school level. The teacher advisory centres (TACs) could be used as they are established in the country and be detached from DQAS.

8. Schools, head teachers and teachers should be made aware of the supervisory process. DQAS should make it clear what is expected of the schools during supervisory visits and what the schools expect of the supervisors. Toward this end, the directorate should revise the current handbook to reflect the new approach that includes the teachers' needs. The handbook should be made available to schools so that head teachers and teachers are clear on what to expect. This would enhance transparency in the supervisory process and hopefully remove the suspicion and the negative attitude currently held by the teachers. Class observation is one area that needs to be demystified. Data showed it was perceived important by supervisors only. The purpose of class observation as a function to improve teaching and for professional development should be paid attention to in the revised policy guidelines.

9. The Teachers' Service Commission should revise the staffing norms for primary schools in Kenya. The current requirement that the number of teachers in a school is equal to the number of classes does not take into consideration the supervisory and administrative roles of the head teachers.

10. The Ministry through Kenya Education Staff Institute should enhance the supervisory skills of the primary school head teachers, deputy head teachers and senior teachers. This would strengthen internal supervision in schools. School based supervision could be improved by strengthening the subject panels and key resource teachers with skills and knowledge to enable teachers become part of the process. More informal supervision, for instance class observations should be encouraged in schools. This would make supervision a shared, collaborative activity for the teachers rather than an activity for the head teacher or external supervisors. This is only possible if the current thinking of supervision as evaluation is changed. To do this, DQAS needs to develop outreach programmes to communicate to teachers and head teachers about their role. More communication channels between the directorate and schools need to be created.

11. There is a need for government in conjunction with local universities to develop a training package for supervisors that will enhance their skills and knowledge in supervision thus preparing them for their role as they transit from

teachers to supervisors. As the formal training provides the theoretical basis of supervision, it should be strengthened by informal training which supervisors reported provided more practical skills.

12. The Ministry should enhance the capacity of KESI with a view to using it for continuous professional development of supervisors so that they can keep up to date with developments in the field of supervision.

#### **9.4 Suggestions for Further Research**

In this study, the elusive nature of supervision has been revealed. The dilemmas and conflicts that occur have been demonstrated. Arising from the very nature of supervision and its practice, various gaps that need to be explored further are presented in this section. The recommendations given for further research are cognisant of the fact that most of the studies and theories of supervision are based and set in developed countries whose setting and resources are different from those in developing country like Kenya.

This study aimed at laying a background for further research especially in developing countries with a view to generating a knowledge base that is consistent with the values, beliefs and resources in developing countries.

- This study could be replicated in other districts in order to allow for wider generalisation of the results.
- An in-depth study using different methodology could be carried out to establish the actual performance of the supervisors during school visits and the teachers' reactions to the procedures.
- A qualitative school based study is needed to establish teachers' experiences in the implementation of educational change. This could offer useful insights that can be included in policy on implementation of change.
- This study can be replicated in secondary schools since a revised curriculum was also introduced at that level and the same supervisors are responsible for supervision even in secondary schools.
- Supervisors and teachers in this study implied that their work is influenced by pressure to excel in examinations. This was out of the scope of this study but it is an

area that needs to be investigated further.

## **9.5 Current and Proposed Instructional Supervisory Models**

### **9.5.1 Current Model**

The findings in this study have revealed the instructional supervisory model that is currently in use in Kenya. The policy as mentioned earlier expects supervisors to perform multiple roles and the actual practice by the supervisors differs from the policy and teachers' expectations leading to negative outcomes. The main factors contributing to this discrepancy have been identified. It is also apparent that the current model does not address the changes taking place in the society. For instance the changing role and responsibilities of supervisors, teachers, parents, community involvement, and the general expansion of the democratic space where different views are accommodated. The relationship between the policy, practice, teachers' expectations and outcomes are shown in figure 9.1 below.

What we see in Figure 9.1 are direct influences that are marked by solid lines while the dotted lines show what is supposed to happen but it is not happening in the current dispensation.

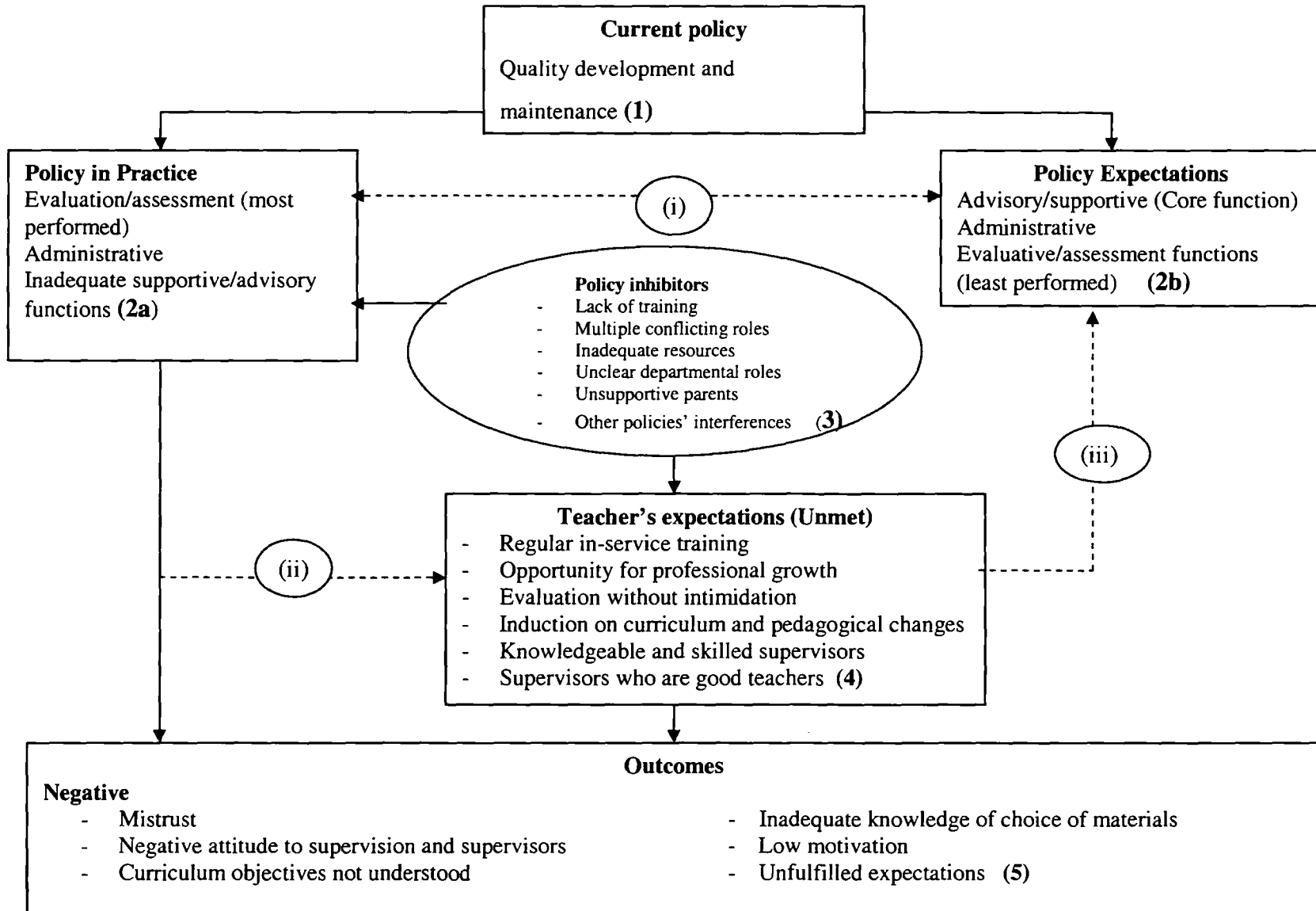
Reading Figure 9.1 from the top, we see from this that the current policy (1) has two aspects, policy in practice (2a) and policy expectations (2b). Policy expectations are summarised from analysis of policy documents while policy in practice is a summary of evidence from the field. In both cases the summary of the functions is listed according to priority in practice and in expectation. In reality the relationship between the policy expectations and policy in practice should be strong but in the current model it is at best indirect and not strong as depicted by the dotted line (i) between 2a and 2b and earlier discussed in 7.1.1.2. This is as a result of the policy inhibitors derived from the findings and shown in oval (3).

At the next level head teachers' and teachers' expectations of the supervisors as discussed earlier in 7.3 are shown in box (4). Teachers' expectations are in line with the policy expectations, however as a result of the expectations not being adequately met; the relationship is weak as shown by dotted line (iii) connecting

(4) and (2b). Similarly, the policy-in-practice does not adequately meet the teachers' expectations as illustrated by dotted line (ii) from (2a) to (4). This also discussed in details in 7.4.

At the bottom is box (5) showing the negative outcomes which are directly influenced by the practice (2a) and the teachers' unmet needs (4). It is on the basis of the short coming of the current model that an alternative model and its feedback process is presented and discussed in the next section.

Figure 9.1. The Current Instructional Supervisory Model in Kenya



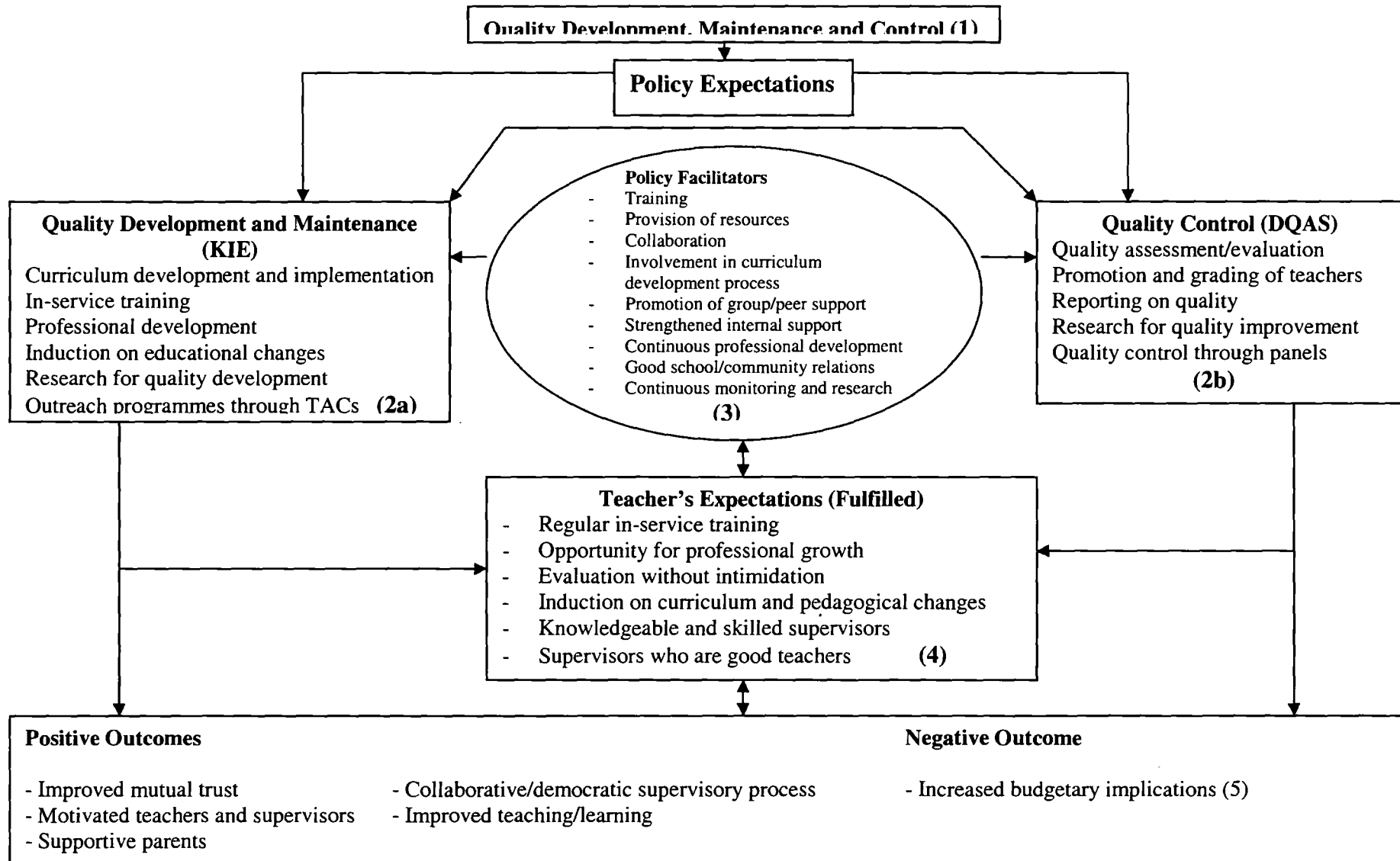
### **9.5.2 Proposed Instructional Supervisory Model**

To construct an adequate instructional supervisory model for the Kenyan situation, there are various dynamics that one needs to understand. These aspects are discussed in various chapters in this thesis. Chapter one lays a foundation by showing the importance attached to primary education, the historical perspective in chapter three gives the cultural perspective of education and its implication on supervision while chapters six and seven reveal the power dynamics between the teachers and supervisors. It could be argued that the negative outcomes and the unmet teachers' needs are due to power differentials as it exists in the current supervision model and to certain extent inadequacy of resources. A model would therefore need to be designed where by supervisees are empowered taking into consideration the resources available and the social cultural dynamics that are inherent in the society. Examining the different models of supervision in use, Tracy (1998:103) summarises the criteria that should be taken into consideration in the choice of suitable supervisory model. These are:

- The supervisory model must meet the educational goals, management style, concept of teaching, and community values of the school district.
- Commitment to resources needed
- Decision on the aim (s) of supervision and matching purpose (s) with process
- Show of utility of the supervisory process in order to sustain resources commitment and political credibility.
- Teacher involvement and responsibility improve the quality of supervision.

I find the criteria raised by Tracy important as they combine factors that play important role in the supervisory process. The proposed model (Figure 9.2) is based on the findings of this study and elements drawn from the literature. Most important is the focus on collaboration and provision of feedback by and to all those involved. This is also an attempt to incorporate the current thinking of democratising education policy making by having practitioners and consumers give feedback on the product (Oakes, Renée, Rogers and Lipton, 2008).

Figure 9.2. Proposed Instructional Supervisory Model



Reading Figure 9.2 from the top we see that the policy statement has three aspects, quality development, maintenance and control (box 1). Separation of the roles is proposed with KIE handling quality development and maintenance - left side of the model (2a) and DQAS controlling the quality - right side of the model (2b). A strong relationship between KIE and DQAS is proposed as shown by solid line joining 2a and 2b. Facilitating factors derived from the finding of the study and literature presented in the oval (3). These factors should enhance the performance of the KIE and DQAS. As a result, the teachers expectations (4) will be fulfilled leading to outcomes shown in (5). The feedback process for the proposed model is illustrated in Figure 9.3 below.

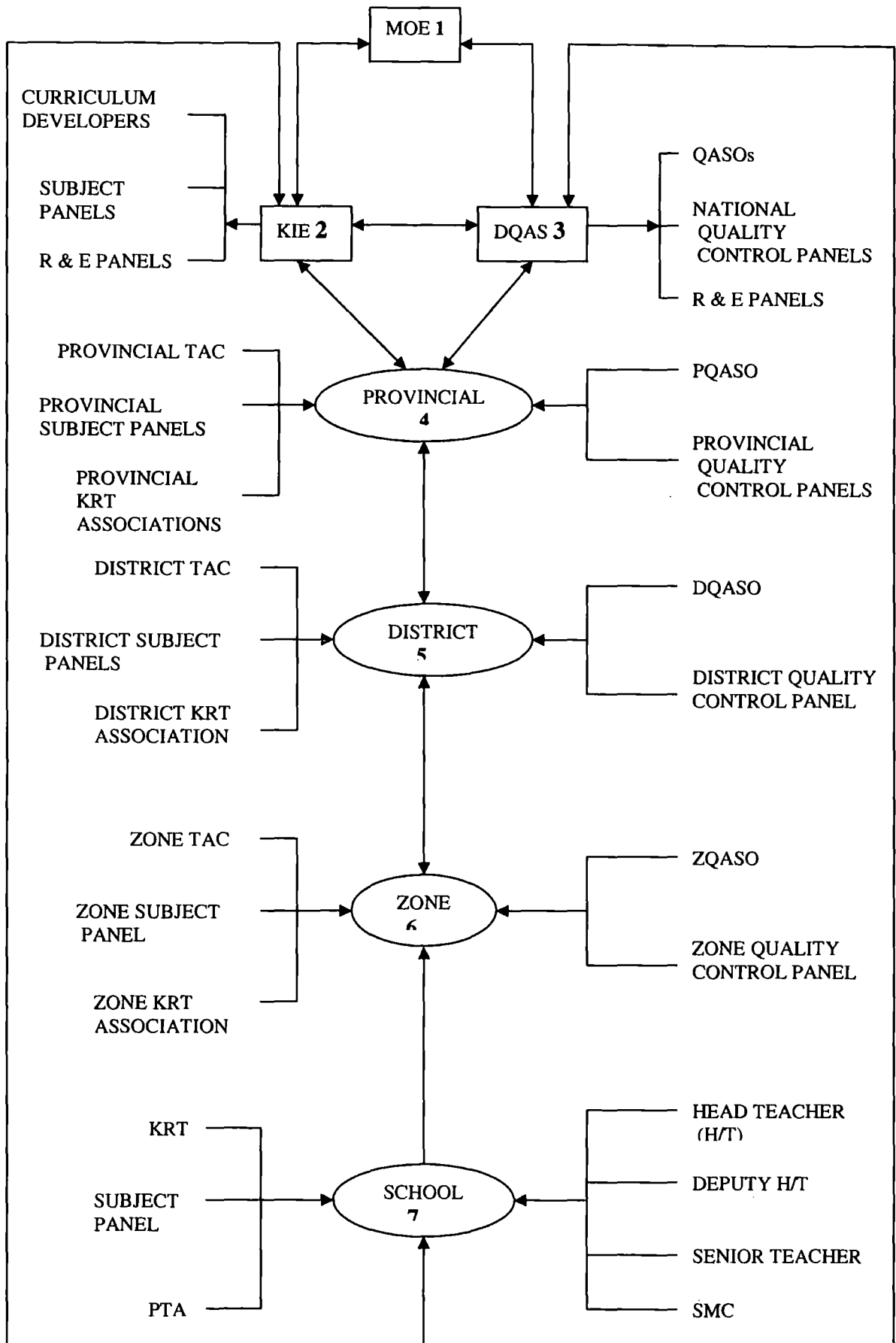
Group approach to quality development, maintenance and control is the main theme of the model. The approach and a feedback processes that can start from the top, bottom or even horizontal are proposed as shown in Figure 9.3). The left side represents the quality development and maintenance functions (KIE 2) while on the right side is the quality control function (DQAS 3).

There are six levels in the structure. At the top we have MOE (1), KIE (2) and DQAS (3), Province (4), District (5), Zone (6) and school (7). However, as the arrows show the process can start from the bottom or from the top. The clear linkage between quality development, maintenance and control are also shown as they are housed in the oval but different people playing different role. Starting from the school level (7), we have the key resource teachers (KRTs), subject panels and parents-teachers association (PTA) playing the development and maintenance role while the head teacher, deputy head teacher(s), senior teachers, and school management committees (SMC) concentrating on quality control. The participatory approach and division of roles is shown in all the other levels.

The suggested approach is in appreciation of the communal nature of life in most African communities. When members of the community work together, there is ownership of whatever they are working towards.



Figure 9.3: Feedback Process for Proposed Instructional Supervisory Model



Literature reviewed also brought out the need for teachers and supervisors to work towards a common goal. In addition to teachers and supervisors, this model incorporates the community and parents as they play significant roles in the management of primary schools in Kenya. These are factors identified in literature as the important for effective supervision (Glatthorn, 1998; Pajak, 1990a; Wanzare & Ward, 2000; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). In a review of literature on improving schools in difficulty circumstances, Muijs, Harris, Chapman, Stoll and Russ (2004) summarised characteristics that were found to contribute to school improvement. Although improvement of schools in socioeconomically disadvantaged areas, these factors such as leadership (p.156), making schools learning communities (p.160), continuous professional development (p.162), involvement of parents (p.163) and external support (165) are applicable in any school improvement, hence their consideration in the proposed model that aims at improving instructional supervision in Kenyan primary schools.

Most of the proposed structures already exist in Kenya but have not been used in the way I am proposing. Also according to the supervisors and teachers in this study, some structures such as subject panels and key resource teachers are dormant.

At the school level there could be one or more key resources teachers depending on the size of the school. The subject panels are composed of teachers teaching same subjects. The PTAs are committees in school that comprise of teachers and parents. They have executive committees that are responsible for different issues in the school. Some of the issues they look into are teaching/learning resources and curriculum implementation among other things.

On the other hand, the head teacher is the executive in the school and the internal supervisor assisted by deputy head teachers and senior teachers. The SMCs are responsible for general management of the school. Both PTA and SMC are organisations that have legal recognition while KRTs and senior teachers are professionally recognised. This model proposes formation of associations of KRTs and senior teachers at the zone (6), district (5) and provincial (4) levels. Involving all these groups at the school level not only promotes good school community relations but also builds a strong point from which feedback on quality, maintenance can be launched.

Teacher advisory centres (TAC) are outlets that are at district and zone levels where teachers can access resources they need for their subject areas. The centres are managed by tutors. They are expected to guide and assist teachers in development of teaching aids and other materials to improve teaching. However, in the course of this study, I did observe and was reported that most of the TAC tutors were actually working in the district office carrying out administrative and inspection duties, a fact that was confirmed by supervisors when they indicated that they used TAC tutors to inspect schools. Since TAC tutors are supposed to be former teachers who were promoted as a result of being good in their work, the current model proposes that the TAC centres be taken over by KIE and be used as outreach centres. This would mean that quality development and maintenance activities can be spread out through all the levels and what is finally produced at the national level is a product generated from the school level upwards. This would take care of the teachers' complain that they are not involved in curriculum development.

Currently KIE uses a panel system to develop curriculum. The subject panels are composed of teachers who are selected as a result of their distinguished performance as teachers. The teachers are recruited from all parts of the country to ensure regional representation. Other members of the panels are teacher educators also drawn from teacher training colleges across the countries, representatives of teachers' union and religious organisations. This model proposes strengthening of the KIE subject panel and linking them with subject panels at other levels - province (4), district (5), zone (6) and School (7). These panels can be used to induct teachers on educational changes and their implementation. This spreads out this responsibility instead of having it at the national level only as is the case currently.

For quality control, creation of assessment panels at the different levels School (7), Zone (6), district (5), province (4) and national level (3 in Fig. 9.3) is necessary as proposed. The panels can be composed of supervisors, head teachers selected by the primary schools head teachers association and representatives from Kenya national union of teachers (KNUT) to represent the teachers.

Research and evaluation panels to continuously monitor, evaluate and carry out research for quality development and improvements are proposed (Fig. 9.2 see 2a &

2b). Currently, these exist in KIE but their activities have been limited to monitoring. It is proposed that DQAS also has research and evaluation panels.

Communication and sharing of information is greatly encouraged in this model as all the departments are working towards a common goal. The proposed division of duties is meant to remove the role conflict but encourages consultation as depicted by the continuous oval shapes and arrows at the different levels and the linkage between KIE and DQAS (Fig 9.3). With this kind of approach, what finally reaches MOE for policy formulation is a product of all those involved in primary education. Similarly, the structure makes dissemination of information smoother. The other foreseen strength is the continuity of the process due to representation at all the levels.

One foreseen negative outcome in the model is the increased budgetary allocation (See Fig 9.2 box 5). The model takes cognisance of the limited resources, hence the deliberate use of systems that are already in place. However, training of those involved at the initial stage would impact on budgetary allocations for primary education but only for the period that the model is being established. Secondly, the benefits of achieving primary objectives would outweigh the cost.

## **9.6 The Epilogue**

At the beginning of writing this thesis, I indicated my motivation to research in the area of instructional supervision. What I did not know is that at the end, I will have raised more questions than answers. One thing I must admit and had foreseen was the difficulty of trying to make the study focus on three different areas yet very related. Instructional supervision, curriculum implementation and educational change are distinct areas, yet it was important for me to examine all the three in order to lay a foundation for further research in an area that has not been exploited in Kenya. It was my intention to produce a document that can be used for reference in Kenya and hence the inclusion of the historical perspective. This is all the more important given the nature of policy making and influences on policy implementation which are more often political rather than educational. The other reason for spreading out is the fact

that instructional supervision policy and practice as it relates to implementation of change has not been adequately researched in Kenya.

Some of the findings of this study go against some common beliefs and assumptions. For instance, in my 10 years working at the KIE and interacting with supervisors, it is a common view that teachers' expectations and demands are unfounded and often unreasonable. It is for this reason that I consider the finding that the teachers' and head teachers' expectations are in line with the functions that policy expects the supervisors to perform as very important and a surprise. The other is that teachers do not mind being evaluated; it is how it is done and for what purpose that it is done that they are concerned about.

The process of conducting this study has been a learning experience that has not only changed my perceptions to towards supervisors but also my view of research. For instance as a teacher I thought then the inspectors were lazy and unjust, as a researcher and curriculum developer I often wondered why supervisors were not playing their role in supporting teachers in curriculum implementation as expected. This is evident in the many curriculum implementation reports I participated in writing at the Kenya Institute of Education (2003, 2004, and 2005). My experience in conducting this study has revealed the role conflicts and dilemmas supervisors face as a result of policy expectations. I will share the findings of this study with senior persons in the Ministry of Education, with a view to lobbying for separation of the evaluative and advisory roles by assigning them to different departments as shown in the Figure 9.2.

My greatest change however was in the research process. The effect of studying in a developed country where the research culture is well rooted and carrying out research in a different cultural environment was a challenge. A few authors from the north such as Crossley (1997), Harber & Davies (1997), Vulliamy, Lewin & Stephens (1990) have written about conducting research in developing countries; however there are some challenges and concerns that can only be understood in the cultural and environmental context. For instance there is the requirement for respondents to sign consent forms. While it is a good basis to show that the research was ethical, it may be a deterrent factor as appending a signature is seen as

committing oneself while letting the respondents know they can withdraw from the study if they wish could be concluded as lack of seriousness or the study not being important.

Another methodological aspect is getting information from the respondents. In many African cultures it is expected that it is the visitor who should deliver information or 'comes' with 'news'. In my language, there is a saying that 'muki okaga na uhoro' meaning, 'he who comes brings information'. Convincing the respondents that they have the information I needed goes against the cultural expectations. In my case, a question I was often asked was why I had to come all the way from the UK to ask questions to a teacher in a village school. There is also the belief that you don't reveal everything to strangers 'kamuchii ti chomo' loosely translated to mean one should not expose information about their home or environment to strangers. This was evident in the offices; although being from KIE which is a department of the Ministry helped; sometimes I felt like a stranger at home when my colleagues were not forthcoming with information. The other challenge was their perception that I had answers to the questions I was asking or coming from a different department I was trying to find out their shortcomings.

Another challenge that may not be obvious and also touching on research methods is the infrastructure. When I indicated I would visit the schools to deliver questionnaires, one of my supervisors asked why I couldn't just post them. Had I done that, the question would not have been about the return rates but if the questionnaires got to schools in the first place due to the poor postal infrastructure. The time to collect data is also influenced by the seasons. In the rainy season, many schools would be difficult to reach. Such challenges may not be meaningful unless one understands the environment.

One challenge however turned positive, changing my view of research and which I consider a strength in the study. When I set out to collect data, I had not considered holding group interviews with teachers and supervisors. This changed in the process when I noticed after filling the questionnaire, they had a lot to say, which I discovered sometimes was more than what they had written. The multi-method approach is strength in this study as the qualitative data clarified, supported and at

times disputed the quantitative data. Collecting and using qualitative data and the fact that methods of collecting data can be changed when the study is in progress is to me one of the learning experiences.

The findings and conclusions of this study are made based on what supervisors, head teachers and teachers reported. Was I to do it again, I would request for attachment to the district office of DQAS in order to experience, observe and live the life of an instructional supervisor. This way I would be able to get real insight and document firsthand information.

This study has greatly improved my research skills, knowledge and understanding of the instructional supervisory process and in particular the relation between the intended and the practice. As I complete this phase of my life, two things have happened. First, as a result of my experience, I have embarked on writing a research guide for students *Studying in the North and researching in the South: a student's guide*. It is meant to guide students from developing countries studying in developed countries but carrying out research in their countries. To widen the scope, several researchers from the South who have studied in the North have been approached to make contributions based on their experiences.

Secondly, I will be taking a new position in a research, monitoring and evaluation department where I will be involved in formulating research policies for the country. The challenges, knowledge and skills gained have hopefully prepared me for this new role.

When I started, I was seeking an answer, as I close this chapter what I have are more questions than what I had at the beginning. Like the rope in the saying at the beginning of this chapter, the end could be the beginning and the beginning could be the end. In my view the end of this thesis is the beginning. This forms a ground for my next chapter in life, that of researching and contributing to knowledge.

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## **APPENDICES**

### **APPENDIX 1: INSPECTOR'S SCHEDULE OF DUTIES.**

- Maintain standards in the teaching of the subject they are in charge of in schools and colleges.
- Carry out subject inspection as an individual or as a member of a panel
- Liaise with KIE on matters related to curriculum development and research in their subjects.
- Chair subject panels relevant subject panels at Kenya Institute of Education.
- Liaise with Kenya National Examination Council on matters relating to examination in their subject.
- Liaise with Teachers' Service Commission on matters concerning staffing in the subject.
- Process inspection reports.
- Organize in - service courses for teachers in schools and colleges.
- Keep up to date information on developments in the subject.
- Prepare annual reports on activities and developments on the department.
- Coordinate the progress and professional work of provincial subject inspection.
- Undertake any other duties assigned by the Assistant Chief Inspector of Schools, Deputy Chief Inspector of Schools and Chief Inspector Schools

**APPENDIX 2: RESPONDENT’S CONSENT FORM**

**Title of the project: Instructional Supervision in an Era of Implementing Change: Policy and Practice in Primary Education in Kenya.**

Please complete the whole sheet. Delete whichever is not applicable

- 1. Have you read the letter of the introduction to the study? Yes/ No
- 2. Have you had an opportunity to ask questions and to discuss the study? Yes/No
- 3. Have you received satisfactory answers to all your questions? Yes/No
- 4. Have you received enough information about the study? Yes/No
- 5. Have you received information about tape recordings of the interview sessions and the intended use? Yes/No
- 6. Who have you spoken to? Mr/Mrs/Ms.....
- 7. Do you consent to tape recordings for the desired purpose of the study? Yes/No
- 8. Do you consent to participate in the study? Yes/NO
- 9. Do you understand that you are free to either accept or refuse to participate in the study? Yes/NO

Signed.....Date.....

NAME IN BLOCK LETTERS.....

**\* Approved by Durham University’s Ethics Advisory Committee**

# APPENDIX 3A: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION: MOE

## MINISTRY OF SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

Telegrams: "SCIENCE TEC", Nairobi

Fax No.

Telephone No: 318581

When replying please quote

*MOS&T 13/001/36C 555/2*



REPUBLIC OF KENYA

JOGOO HOUSE "B"  
HARAMBEE AVENUE  
P.O. Box 60209-00200  
NAIROBI  
KENYA

*6<sup>th</sup> September 2006*

Catherine M. Kamindo

Durham University

UNITED KINGDOM

For Permanent Secretary  
Ministry of  
Science and Technology

Dear Madam

### RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Please refer to your application for authority to carry out research on *'Improving Instructional Supervision for Effective Curriculum Implementation in Primary Schools in Kenya'*

I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to carry out research in Thika District for a period ending 31<sup>st</sup> December 2006.

You are advised to report to the District Commissioner and the District Education Officer Thika District before commencing your research project.

On completion of your research, you are expected to submit two copies of your research report to this office.

Yours faithfully

**B. O. ADEWA**

**FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY**

Copy to:

The District Commissioner  
Thika District

The District Education Officer  
Thika District



## APPENDIX 3B: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION: DISTRICT

### MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

Telephone (067) 31398 / 31272 (D.L)  
FAX: (067) 31272  
When Replying please quote



DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICE

THIKA DISTRICT  
P.O. BOX 262  
THIKA.

**THK/ADM/19/TPY.I/94**

**12<sup>th</sup> September 2006**

**Catherine M. Kamindo  
Durham University  
UNITED KINGDOM**

### **RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION**

Further to the Permanent Secretary's letter **Ref. MOS&T 13/001/36C 555/2** of **6<sup>th</sup> September, 2006**, you have been granted authority to carry out research on **"Improving Instructional Supervision for Effective Curriculum Implementation in primary schools in Kenya"**.

The authority is for the period ending **31<sup>st</sup> December, 2006**. Kindly oblige this office with a copy of your research findings for study and necessary action.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'S.N. Kariithi'.

**S.N. KARIITHI  
FOR: DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER  
THIKA**

### **Copy to:**

**The Permanent Secretary  
Ministry of Education  
NAIROBI**

**The District Commissioner  
THIKA**



## APPENDIX 4B : QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ZONE QUALITY ASSURANCE OFFICERS

Tick in the box or write your answers in the space provided, whichever is applicable in each question.

### 1. Policy Guidelines

i) What policy documents guide your work as QASO/inspector?

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---

ii) Are the policies guidelines clear on the functions you should carry out as a QASO / inspector? Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes to ii above, what functions are you expected to carry out?

---

---

iii) If the policies are not clear, where do you draw the interpretations of what you do from?

---

---

iv) In your schedule of duty, what functions/activities do you carry out?

---

---

v) Of all the activities you have mentioned above, which ones are your top priority?

---

---

vi) Are there differences in what you do, and what the policy expects you to do?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, what are the reasons for these differences?

---

---

### 2) Curriculum Development and Implementation

i) Did you take part in the development of the Revised Primary Curriculum?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

ii) If not, were you inducted on the revised curriculum? Yes [ ] No [ ]

If you were not inducted, how has this influenced your supervision of the implementation revised curriculum?

---

---

iii) Are you familiar with the changes that were effected in the;

**i) National goals of Education.** Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, indicate any change you are familiar with

---

---

**ii) Primary level objectives.** Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, indicate any change you are familiar with

---

**iii) Subjects in primary education.** Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, please indicate any changes you are familiar with

---

**iv) Text book policy** Yes [ ] No [ ]

iv) Were the teachers in your zone inducted/in serviced for the implementation of the Revised Primary Education curriculum? Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, how were they prepared?

---

v) In your opinion, was the induction/in service adequate to enable teachers implement the curriculum effectively? Yes [ ] No [ ]

vi) What support do you provide to teachers to enable them implement the curriculum?

---

vii) What challenges are teachers experiencing in the implementation of the revised primary education curriculum?

---

### 3. Instructional Supervisory Functions

In a scale of 1-4, rate the importance QASOs/Inspectors performing the functions shown below. Insert in the box the number that best represents your rating.

**1. Very important 2. Important. 3. Slightly important 4. Not important.**

- i) QASOs/ inspectors participating in curriculum development. [ ]
- ii) Informing teachers of changes in the curriculum [ ]
- iii) Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives. [ ]
- iv) Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods. [ ]
- v) Inducting teachers on the choice of curriculum support material. [ ]
- vi) Facilitating appointment of subject panels in schools. [ ]
- vii) Appointing and supporting key resource teachers in schools [ ]
- viii) Promoting teachers professional growth [ ]
- ix) Organising in- service courses for head teachers and teachers. [ ]
- x) Evaluating the teaching / learning process [ ]
- xi) Ensuring adequate staffing in schools [ ]
- xii) Promoting school/ community relations. [ ]
- xiii) Conducting research [ ]

### 4). Supervisory Visits

- i) Making supervisory visits to schools [ ]
- ii) Observing teachers in the class [ ]
- iii) Meeting with teachers before observing them in class [ ]

- iv) Checking the following records
  - a) Schemes of work [ ]
  - b) Lesson plans [ ]
  - c) Records of work [ ]
  - d) Pupils progress records [ ]
- v) Discussing the observed lesson with a teacher as colleagues. [ ]
- vi) Discussing the findings during a supervisory visit with head teacher [ ]
- vii) Giving schools written supervision reports [ ]
- viii) Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports [ ]

**5).How frequently do you perform the following functions? Indicate by using the ratings below:**

**1. Very frequently. 2. Frequently. 3. Rarely. 4. Never**

- i) QASOs participating in curriculum development. [ ]
- ii) Informing teachers of changes in the curriculum [ ]
- iii) Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives [ ]
- iv) Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods. [ ]
- v) Inducting teachers on the choice of curriculum support material. [ ]
- vi) Facilitating appointment of subject panels in schools. [ ]
- vii) Appointing and supporting key resource teachers in schools [ ]
- viii) Promoting teachers' professional growth [ ]
- ix) Organising in- service courses for head teachers and teachers. [ ]
- x) Evaluating teaching / learning process [ ]
- xi) Ensuring adequate staffing in schools [ ]
- xii) Promoting school community relations. [ ]
- xiii) Conducting research [ ]

**6). Supervisory Visits**

- i) Making frequent supervisory visits to schools [ ]
- ii) Observing teachers in the class [ ]
- iii) Meeting with teachers before observing them in class. [ ]
- iv) Checking the following records
  - Schemes of work [ ]
  - Lesson plans [ ]
  - Records of work [ ]
  - Pupils progress records [ ]
- v) Discussing the observed lesson with a teacher as colleagues. [ ]
- vi) Discussing the findings during supervisory visits with head teachers [ ]
- vii) Giving schools written supervision reports [ ]
- viii) Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports [ ]

**7). How is the information collected during supervisory visits used?**

---

**8). Supervisory Skills**

- i) In your opinion, what skills are necessary to make a QASO /inspector effective in supervising curriculum implementation?

---

ii) In your own assessment, are there skills lack and would like to be trained on ?

---

---

iii) How important is it for a QASO/inspector to have content knowledge of subjects they observe? **Tick in the appropriate box**

Very important [ ] Important [ ] Slightly important [ ] Not important [ ]

iv) How frequently do you get opportunities for professional growth?

Very frequently [ ] frequently [ ] Rarely [ ] Never [ ]

v) MoEST changed your title from inspector to QASO, what else could have changed with the title?

---

vi) What challenges do you face as a QASO/inspector in supervising curriculum implementation in primary schools in your zone?

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vii) Suggest how these challenges can be addressed?

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### 9). Background Information about Yourself

i) How long have you been a QASO/ Inspector? Indicate number of years. [ ]

ii) How many years did you teach before being appointed a QASO? [ ]

iii) At what level did you teach? TTC [ ] Secondary [ ] Primary [ ]

iv) On your appointment as an Inspector, were you trained on your role?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, what kind of training did you receive?

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v) How has the training influenced your role in the implementation of the primary education curriculum?

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vii) Highest academic Qualification. **Tick one.**

B.ED [ ] Diploma [ ] A- Level [ ] O- Level [ ]

Any other, specify \_\_\_\_\_

10. What recommendations would you make to MoE for preparation of teachers for curriculum implementation?

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11. Any further comments

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***Thank you for taking time to respond to this Questionnaire***

## APPENDIX 4C: HEAD TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

### 1. Revised Curriculum

Tick in the box or write your answers in the space provided, whichever is applicable in each question.

i) Were you in serviced / inducted for the implementation of the Revised Primary Education Curriculum?

Yes [ ]      No [ ]

ii) If you are in serviced/ inducted, has it helped you to oversee the implementation of the curriculum in your school?

Yes [ ]      No [ ]

If No, give reasons?

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iii) Were the teachers in your school in- serviced / inducted for the implementation of the Revised Primary Education Curriculum?

Yes [ ]      No [ ]

iv) What kind of preparation or support do you **expect** from the inspector/QASO in the implementation of **the revised curriculum**?

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List which of your expectation

a) **Have been met**

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b) **Have not been met**

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### 2. Supervisory Functions

In a scale of 1-4, rate the **importance** of QASOs/Inspectors performing the functions shown below. Insert in the box, the number that best represents your rating.

**1. Very important   2. Important.   3. Slightly important   4. Not important.**

i) Informing teachers of changes in the curriculum [ ]

ii) Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives [ ]

iii) Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods [ ]

iv) Inducting teachers on the choice of curriculum support material [ ]

v) Evaluating the teaching / learning processes [ ]

vi) Promoting teachers' professional growth [ ]

vii) Organising in- service courses for head teachers and teachers [ ]

viii) Facilitating appointment subject panels in schools [ ]

ix) Appointing and supporting key resource teachers in schools [ ]

x) Ensuring adequate staffing in schools [ ]

xi) Promoting school /community relations [ ]

xii) Conducting research [ ]

### 3. Supervisory Visits

- i) Making supervisory visits to schools [ ]
- ii) Observing teachers in the classroom [ ]
- iii) Meeting with a teacher before observing them teach [ ]
- iv) Checking the following records
  - a) Schemes of work [ ]
  - b) Lesson plans [ ]
  - c) Records of work [ ]
  - d) Pupils progress records [ ]
- v) Discussing the observed lesson with a teacher as colleagues [ ]
- vi) Discussing the findings during a supervisory visit with head teacher [ ]
- vii) Giving schools written supervision reports [ ]
- viii) Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports [ ]

4. How frequently are the following functions performed by the QASO/inspector in your zone? Indicate by inserting in the box number that best represents your rating.

1. Very frequently. 2. Frequently. 3. Rarely. 4. Never

- i) Informing teachers of changes in the curriculum [ ]
- ii) Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives [ ]
- iii) Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods [ ]
- iv) Inducting teachers on the choice of curriculum support material [ ]
- v) Evaluating teaching / learning processes [ ]
- vi) Promoting teachers' professional growth [ ]
- vii) Organising in- service courses for head teachers and teachers [ ]
- viii) Facilitating appointment of subject panels in schools [ ]
- ix) Appointing and supporting key resource teachers in schools [ ]
- x) Ensuring adequate staffing in schools [ ]
- xi) Promoting school community relations. [ ]
- xii) Conducting research [ ]

### 5. Supervisory Visits

- i) Making supervisory visits to schools [ ]
- ii) Observing teachers in the classroom [ ]
- iii) Meeting with teachers before observing them in class [ ]
- iv) Meeting and discussing the observed lesson with a teacher [ ]
- v) Discussing the findings during a supervisory visit with the head teacher [ ]
- vi) Checking the following records
  - a) Schemes of work [ ]
  - b) Lesson plans [ ]
  - c) Records of work [ ]
  - d) Pupils progress records [ ]
- vii) Giving schools written supervision reports [ ]
- viii) Making following up of recommendations of supervision reports [ ]

6. How should the information gathered during supervisory visits be used? Rank according to importance of use, 1 to represent the most important use and 5 the least.



- Evaluating teachers for promotion [ ]
  - Grading schools [ ]
  - Disciplining teachers [ ]
  - Identifying teachers' weaknesses [ ]
  - Establishing teachers needs for in-service purposes [ ]
- Any other use, specify \_\_\_\_\_

### 7. Supervisory Skills

Using the rating below, indicate by inserting in the box the number that best represents your opinion.

**1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree**

Inspectors/QASO should:

- i) Participate in curriculum development [ ]
- ii) Have content knowledge in the subjects they observe [ ]
- ii) Have strong interpersonal skills [ ]

Any other skills you would like to see in a QASO/ Inspector? Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

8. Indicate by ticking whether you get the following support from zone QASO/ inspector in the implementation of the revised primary curriculum.

- Induction on suitable teaching methods [ ]
- Interpretation of the curriculum objectives [ ]
- Selection of the teaching/ learning materials [ ]
- Opportunity for professional growth [ ]
- In service education [ ]

Any other, specify \_\_\_\_\_

9. In your opinion, are teachers in your school experiencing any challenges in the implementation of the revised primary education curriculum?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, what challenges are they facing?

- Interpreting the national goals of education [ ]
- Interpreting primary level objective [ ]
- Interpreting general subject objectives [ ]
- Understanding subject content [ ]
- Choosing text books [ ]
- Acquiring teaching/learning materials [ ]
- Any other,

specify \_\_\_\_\_

ii) Suggest how these challenges can be addressed \_\_\_\_\_

10. If you are to describe the Inspector/ QASO in your zone, how would you describe him/her? (Tick one)

Colleague [ ] Facilitator [ ] Helper [ ] Evaluator [ ] Inspector [ ]

Any other description,

specify \_\_\_\_\_

## 11. Background Information

- i). Years of experience as a head teacher [ ]
- ii). Since being appointed head teacher, have you been inducted on your role in curriculum implementation?  
Yes [ ] No [ ]
- iii) If yes, has the induction helped you in the implementation of the curriculum in your school? Yes [ ] No [ ]
- iv). Highest academic qualification  
B.Ed [ ] Diploma [ ] A-level [ ] O-level [ ]  
Any other, specify \_\_\_\_\_
- v). Highest professional Qualifications  
Graduate teacher [ ] ATS [ ] P1 [ ] P2 [ ] P3 [ ]  
Any other, specify \_\_\_\_\_
- v). Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

12. What recommendations would you make to MoE for preparation of teachers for curriculum implementation?

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Any further comments

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*Thank you for taking time to respond to this Questionnaire.*

## APPENDIX 4D: TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

### 1. Background Information

Tick in the box or write your answers in the space provided, whichever is applicable in each question.

i) What level are you teaching in? (Tick one)

Lower (1-3) [ ]

Upper (4-8) [ ]

ii) If teaching in upper primary, what is your main teaching subject? (Tick one)  
Mathematics [ ] Science [ ] English [ ] Kiswahili [ ] Social studies [ ]

### 2. Revised Curriculum

i) Were you in-serviced/inducted for the implementation of the revised primary education curriculum?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

ii) If you were in serviced/ inducted, was it adequate to enable you implement the curriculum effectively?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

If no give reasons for the inadequacy of the in-service / induction

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iii) What kind of preparation or support would you **expect** from QASO/ inspector in the implementation of the revised curriculum?

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List which of your expectation

a) **Have been** met

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b) **Have not been** met

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### 3. Supervisory Functions

In a scale of 1-4, rate the importance of QASO/Inspector performing the functions shown below. Insert in the box the number that best represents your rating of the following functions.

**1. Very important 2. Important. 3. Slightly important 4. Not important.**

i) Informing teachers of changes in the curriculum [ ]

ii) Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives [ ]

iii) Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods [ ]

iv) Inducting teachers on choice of textbooks and other learning materials [ ]

v) Evaluating teaching / learning processes [ ]

vi) Promoting teachers' professional growth [ ]

vii) Organising in- service courses for head teachers and teachers [ ]

viii) Facilitating appointment of subject panels in schools [ ]

ix) Appointing and supporting key resource teachers in schools [ ]

- x) Promoting school/ community relations [ ]
- xi) Conducting research [ ]

#### 4. Supervisory Visits

- i) Making supervisory visits to schools [ ]
- ii) Observing teachers in class [ ]
- iii) Meeting with teachers before observing them in class. [ ]
- iv) Checking the following records
  - a) Schemes of work [ ]
  - b) Lesson plans [ ]
  - c) Records of work [ ]
  - d) Pupils progress records [ ]
- v) Meeting and discussing the observed lesson with a teacher as colleagues. [ ]
- vi) Discussing the findings during a supervisory visit with the head teacher [ ]
- vii) Giving schools written supervision reports [ ]
- viii) Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports [ ]

**5.** How frequently are the following functions performed by the QASO/inspector in your zone? Indicate by inserting in box the number that best represents your rating.

**1. Very frequently. 2. Frequently. 3. Rarely. 4. Never**

- i) Informing teachers of changes in the curriculum [ ]
- ii) Assisting teachers interpret curriculum objectives [ ]
- iii) Orientating teachers to suitable teaching methods [ ]
- iv) Inducting teachers on choice of textbooks and other learning materials [ ]
- v) Evaluating teaching / learning processes [ ]
- vi) Promoting teachers' professional growth [ ]
- vii) Organising in- service courses for head teachers and teachers [ ]
- viii) Facilitating appointment of subject panels in schools [ ]
- ix) Appointing and supporting key resource teachers in schools [ ]
- x) Promoting school community relations [ ]
- xi) Conducting research [ ]

#### 6. Supervisory Visits

- i) Making supervisory visits to schools [ ]
- ii) Observing teachers in the class [ ]
- iii) Meeting with a teacher before observing them in class. [ ]
- iv) Checking the following records
  - a) Schemes of work [ ]
  - b) Lesson plans [ ]
  - c) Records of work [ ]
  - d) Pupils progress records [ ]
- v) Meeting and discussing the observed lesson with a teacher [ ]
- vi) Discussing the findings during a supervisory visit with head teacher [ ]
- vii) Giving schools written supervision reports [ ]
- viii) Making follow up of recommendations of supervision reports [ ]

7. How **should** the information gathered during supervisory visits be used? Rank according to importance of use, **1** to represent the most important use and **5** the least.

- Evaluating teachers for promotion [ ]
- Grading schools [ ]
- Disciplining teachers [ ]
- Identifying teachers' weaknesses [ ]
- Establishing teachers needs for in-service purposes [ ]

Any other use, specify \_\_\_\_\_

### 8. Supervisory Skills

Using the ratings below, indicate by inserting in the box the number that best represents your opinion.

**1. Strongly agree 2. Agree 3. Disagree 4. Strongly Disagree**

Inspectors/QASO should:

- i) Participate in curriculum development [ ]
- ii) Have content knowledge in the subjects they observe. [ ]
- iii) Have strong interpersonal skills. [ ]

Any other skills you would like to see in a QASO/inspector? Please specify \_\_\_\_\_

9. Indicate by ticking whether you get the following support from zone QASO/inspector in the implementation of the curriculum.

- Induction on suitable teaching methods [ ]
- Interpretation of the curriculum objectives [ ]
- Selection of the teaching/ learning materials [ ]
- In service education [ ]
- Opportunity for professional growth [ ]

Any other, specify \_\_\_\_\_

10. In your opinion, are you experiencing any challenges in the implementation of the revised primary education curriculum?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

If yes, **put a tick to indicate the** challenges you are facing?

- Interpreting the national goals of education [ ]
- Interpreting primary level objective [ ]
- Interpreting general subject objectives [ ]
- Understanding subject content [ ]
- Choosing text books and other teaching/learning materials [ ]
- Getting teaching/learning materials [ ]

Any other specify \_\_\_\_\_

ii) Suggest how these challenges can be addressed

11. If you are told to describe the QASO/ inspector in your zone, how would you describe him/her? (**Tick one**)

Colleague [ ] Facilitator [ ] Helper [ ] Evaluator [ ] Inspector [ ]  
Any other description,  
specify\_\_\_\_\_

**12. Information about Yourself**

i). How many years have you taught [ ]

ii). Highest academic qualification

B.Ed [ ] Diploma [ ] A-level [ ] O-level [ ]

Any other,

specify\_\_\_\_\_

iv). Highest professional Qualifications

Graduate teacher [ ] ATS [ ] P1 [ ] P2 [ ] P3 [ ]

Any other,

specify\_\_\_\_\_

v). Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]

**13. What recommendations would you make to MoE for preparation of teachers for curriculum implementation?**

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**14. Any further comments**

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***Thank you for taking time to respond to this Questionnaire.***

## **APPENDIX 5A: INTERVIEW THEMES FOR INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS**

1. Policies that guide the functions of the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards. Probe for:
  - the policies in place
  - policy interpretation by the supervisors
  - the expected functions as per policy
  - actual functions carried out by the supervisors
  - any differences in the actual and expected and reasons for the differences
  - Supervisors' perceptions of their role, skills they possess, ideal skills according to the supervisors, training for the role.
  - Priority areas in supervision
2. Implementation of the revised primary education curriculum. Probe for:
  - Supervisors' role in curriculum development
  - Preparation and support of the teachers
  - Influence of the supervisors' performance of instructional supervisory functions on teachers' implementation of the curriculum.
  - Challenges faced by the supervisors and teachers in curriculum implementation.
3. Structure of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. Probe for:
  - The relationship between the supervisory directorate and other directorates. ( influence on their role in supervising curriculum implementation)
  - Change from Inspectorate to Quality Assurance and Standards. (What could have changed with the name?)
4. Comments and suggestions on supervision of curriculum implementation in primary education.

## APPENDIX 5B: QUALITY ASSURANCE AND STANDARDS OFFICERS' PROFILE

Subject in charge of in primary education \_\_\_\_\_

1. How long have you been a QASO? (Number of years) \_\_\_\_\_
2. How many years did you teach before being appointed a QASO/inspector?
  - Less than 5 years [ ]
  - 6 – 10 years [ ]
  - More than 11 years [ ]
3. At what level did you teach?
  - Primary TTC [ ]
  - Secondary school [ ]
  - Primary School [ ]
  - Diploma TTC
  - Any other, specify-----
3. On your appointment as an Inspector, were you trained/ inducted for the role?
  - Yes [ ]
  - No [ ]



## **APPENDIX 6A: GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR SUPERVISORS**

1. The role of the quality assurance and standards officer. Probe for their interpretation of their role, the functions they carry out, any differences between what they are expected to do and what they actual do, reasons for the differences, the supervisory process
2. The change of title from inspector to QASO. Probe for the any changes in their role and relationship with teachers.
3. Challenges in instructional supervision and how they can be addressed
4. Any other comment on policy and the practice of instructional supervision.

## **APPENDIX 6B: GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE FOR TEACHERS**

1. Supervisory visits: Probe for frequency of visits, the process, how useful and the overall experience of the teacher during such visits.
2. Description of a QASO: Probe for teachers' needs and expectations, whether they are fulfilled, relationship with the QASO.
3. Implementation of the revised curriculum: Probe for preparation for implementation, challenges and how they can be solved

## **APPENDIX 7: DISCUSSION WITH ZONE SUPERVISORS**

### **Schedule of Activities**

The duty for the QASO is assessing and advising. To have standards, one has to carry out assessment; to ensure those standards are kept assessment is needed. What do you call that if not assessment all the way?

What we should do is clear in the schedule of duty. Due to shortage of staff, we have to sweep our offices, arrange and file documents. In addition have to go to the DEO's office where I am assigned other duties. Sometimes we use our children to do some of our office work, like compiling data. It is simply overwhelming. All this erodes our self esteem. In many cases we have to rely on some schools to provide secretarial services, postage of letters and other supporting services since we lack even stationary. How then I am I supposed to supervise such a head teacher and school? I look inadequate since every time I appear in that school, I am on a begging mission. Even the supervisory report I write has to be typed in the same school. This can take so long depending on the whether it is favourable to the school or not. This causes delay in action that could be taken to rectify the situation. Honestly, sometimes I feel so demoralized, lack confidence and feel like I have no moral authority to supervise anyone. This coupled with the fact that sometimes our grades are lower than for those people we are supposed to supervise is in itself a deterring factor.

### **Recommendation:**

There should be direct funding of the directorate, instead of funds being channelled through DEOs. As schools are receiving funding for FPE, the zone offices support the implementation of FPE. They should therefore be funded through this kitty. Employment support staff in offices. MoE to build offices in areas that are safe, stop relying on other departments' offices. Motivate QASOs through promotions.

### **Difference between the expected and Actual**

What we are expected to do is clear. This is not what always happens. The practice is different. We have the handbook and other documents but *having documents is one thing and what we do is another*. The documents are good but our schedule is so unpredictable that the documents become of little purpose. This is as a result of staff shortage. The officer is expected to do play too many role some of which are outside their core business. While newly recruited the job description was very clear but over the years it has been eroded. People seem to be pulling to different directions though the goal is the same.

The focus seems to be on the FPE, a lot of data is needed and monitoring of the use of funds in schools. What we seem to forget is that FPE will be a failure if the objectives of primary education are not achieved. Pupils can be in schools without learning.

## **What is the actual practice?**

Initially we used to visit schools, discuss the syllabuses with teachers and even make teaching aids and also follow up in case of a problem. These days teachers don't follow the syllabuses. They use textbooks to scheme, meaning they have no idea what objectives they should be covering. We have practically little time to rectify this. How then do we expect the objectives to be achieved if even the syllabus is not consulted? They cannot even interpret the syllabus or relate what is in the syllabus with the content they teach. Most of our time now is taken by report writing; a lot of data to be collected focusing on FPE while the offices are not equipped for this kind of work. All this is as a result of shortage of QASOs.

## **Q. Why the shortage?**

The job is no longer attractive. Who wants to work in an environment that is hostile? Walking for miles with little appreciation of what they do? Some of the offices do not have toilet facilities. The members of the community always think we do not work. When they find our offices locked, they assume we do not go to the office. They do not know of the many roles we have to perform. Had we clerks or secretaries, the offices would remain open.

Some of the offices are also very unsafe. The offices are always broken into, chairs and everything else stolen 'we do not keep even rough papers in those offices, we shall find them gone'. 'My office is next to the chief's office, I only venture there when I know the chief is around, otherwise I feel very unsafe. This is because in the vicinity there are people who brew illicit brews and drunkards pass my office hauling abuses. Even if I was an angel, how can I deliver in such an environment? I therefore do most of my work over the phone. However I am not facilitated in terms buying credit for my phone. This coupled with other challenges has made many QASOs opt to back to teach or further their education as a way of escaping the frustrating work.

Let us talk about your change from Inspector to QASO. What did it entail?

There is nothing in a name. What matters is the attitude an individual has.

However, the change was welcome. The title 'inspector was colonial and denoted policing. We now want to improve our relationships with the teachers. We want to be friendly, however it is a process.

## **Major Challenges**

At the beginning of implementation of the curriculum, we inducted the teachers on the new curriculum but note we were inducting them on something that we were not very sure about ourselves. The induction was done in a hurry. Little time was given. The worst was that training materials were not available. The induction should have started with induction of the field officers who are expected to support the teachers during implementation. The officers should have taken through the new curriculum. When most of us taught, the issue of multi-grade and multi-shift was not there, now it is the buzz word as a result of FPE. There were no emerging issues, now they are there. How can I assess a teacher using these approaches when I have no idea what they are? Major features in the curriculum including changes and new areas should have been emphasized. A one day workshop could not have done this.

All training materials, handouts that the QASOs could use when inducting teachers should have been availed and the syllabuses.

1. Lack of materials in schools. Every new class had a problem since the books were never in schools in time. At the beginning even the syllabuses were not in schools. Teachers started with blindly not knowing what to teach and how.

2. Liberalization of text books market. Since schools have a choice of six text books to choose from, different schools use different course books causing confusion. They also lack knowledge on how to choose the text books.

3. Teachers do not use the syllabuses but instead use text books to scheme and plan. Emphasis on passing examinations results, not teaching place. Children are taught how to pass examinations without learning. At the end of eight years in primary education, the performance in KCPE is what is important. Only schools and pupils who perform well or attain high mean scores are given attention. Little effort is put in finding out exactly what the pupils had achieved in the eight years. The question then is, why concentrate on objectives that no one focuses. Teachers therefore don't take time to relate the national goals of education with what they teach in class. The end justifies the means.

**Recommendation:** as a country we need to develop a criterion of establishing what the pupils have achieved without relying on examination results. Since the examination is just one measure, it cannot give a comprehensive analysis of achievement of objectives.

4. Lack of enough teachers and QASOs is a big challenge facing the implementation of the revised curriculum. With the advent of FPE, there was rise in the number of pupils in schools. In some areas, teachers are having classes of 50-70 while in some there are even more than a 100 pupils in one class. These pupils were from different backgrounds. Some were from the streets having dropped out of school. Others had not gone to school at all. Their ages were also varied, not conforming to the school entry age of six years. The case in the point is the oldest pupil in the world who entered class one at the age of 87. Some of the pupils had gone through ECD while others had not. The teacher was expected to handle this pupil in the same class of six year olds with no special training.

5. DQAS at the district has no budget of its own. What we do depends on the DEO. We wish for a time when the Directorate will operate independently. The district QASO should have a separate budget from the DEO's. It is only then that we can run our programmes without interference. The documents will then be of significance. We also do a lot of things that are not in our schedule of duty.

6. We have no transport. Motor bikes were provided but most of the times they are either broken down without spare parts as a result of the long government procurement procedures or they do not have fuel

## **Subject panels**

These are selected at the school level. The Head teacher is the coordinator of the panels in their schools. All teachers are supposed to be members of a panel. The panels used to be active when we had the time to visit schools regularly.

Guidelines for subject panels are clear.

The role of a subject panel is to:

- Study the syllabus and interpret it.
- Suggest suitable teaching methods
- Prepare teaching aids
- Assessment and evaluation –analysis of strength and weakness.

## **Final comments**

- Primary schools without proper supervision will go down
- The quality of the pupil determines the quality of the student
- The red card is useless if facilitation lacks (referring to the red identification card for supervisors)

## **Other Comments**

Teachers have a problem preparing for their lessons. *They* are lazy. They just pick a text book and go to class.

Due to shortage of staff, most Zones are manned by TACs.

## **Recommendations**

A policy on the role of TACs in curriculum implementation should be formulated.

Q. Do we need both QASOs and TACs?

Most TACs/QASOs are acting AEOS. Most of the time is taken by administrative duties.

While the schedule of duties is very clear, we end up doing just comes our way due to shortage of staff? You schedule to visit a school but fuel is not available. We dig deep in our pickets to do government work. We pay for telephone calls and transport.

Supervisory Panels composed of QASOs, Curriculum developers (KIE), Evaluators (KNEC) and KESI be formed. All these bodies are involved in curriculum implementation at one stage or the other. They would make a wholesome supervision team that would make supervision meaningful.

There is need to restructure the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards. There is for specialization so that we have people who are interested only on curriculum issues, auditors to look at finances and a team specializing in physical infrastructure. This way no area of the school will be neglected in the supervision process. The current structure makes a QASO a jack of all trades while what they can do best is curriculum supervision.

Since all these areas are bound to affect curriculum, then supervision teams should be composed of these entire professional so that a supervision report is comprehensive.

Q. I have one last question. Our discussion has been very fruitful but I am just wondering why you didn't write all these things in the questionnaire.

Madam, at the point of filling the questionnaire, if we put all these challenges, it is like we are admitting we have failed to do our job. When we talk, you now understand our position and can understand why teachers may be facing these problems. Our own challenges are overwhelming, unless ours are addressed, how can we help the teachers?

These problems are real but how does one put them down in writing without incriminating oneself. When a school in your zone performs poorly, you get the heat from the District office. They in turn get it from the provincial and head offices. The parents are also on your case. We in turn pressurize the teachers to perform.

Thank you very much for the information, I greatly appreciate.

## **APPENDIX 8: FROM TEACHERS' AND HEAD TEACHERS' MOUTHS.**

The following were used as prompts for the discussion with teachers. However the discussion was not limited but open.

1. Their interaction with zone supervisors. (Frequency of visits, the process or what happens during such visits, functions that are carried out).
2. Preparation for the implementation of the revised primary education curriculum (The form of preparation, adequacy and usefulness, support during implementation).
3. Supervisory skills that zone supervisor should have.
4. Description of the zone supervisor.

The proceedings recorded are verbatim as captured during the discussion. Note taking was used to record as respondents did not consent to being tape recorded.

### **1. Frequency of visits**

What? It does not exist. They do not visit schools in the remote areas. Here teachers have to grope in the dark on their own as they try to make sense of the curriculum.

There is a shortage of QASOs, so they tell us, we never see them

Does any one care about some of these schools that are in the remote areas?

Since the start of the new curriculum, we have not seen an inspector who comes for purposes of the curriculum. The few times are all about FPE funds.

The head teachers maintain the schools. They no longer visit schools. We really don't know what they do the whole day in the offices. Their work should be in the field not in the office. The last time we were inspected was 2003 by a provincial panel. The excuse of being few holds no water. A zone has 30 schools or less, a QASO should be able to visit each of these schools at least ones a year. Is this too much to ask for? Supervisory visits no longer mean much to teachers.

### **2. Support**

Q. What kind of support do you get from the QASO in the implementation of the curriculum?

Does one visit in three year amount to support?

So far we have received no support, only threats and dire consequences for registering a drop in KCPE performance.

### **3. Professional Records.**

QASOs seem to over rely on schemes of work, lesson plans and notes to judge our work. This makes me spend a lot of time preparing perfect documents at the expense of going to class. After all when they come, they will rarely visit me in class. Instead they ask for those records that are always clean up to date. Did anybody ever ask how many lessons I have missed? Instead the question will always be, where are your schemes your of work? Why are your lessons notes not dated? I keep them clean to please the QASO?" "I can have perfect records but my delivery is Zero.

**Recommendations:** Stop over relying on records. Assessment should be all round. Let somebody observe me in class, give comments, schemes or no schemes. The question should always be, have I delivered even though my schemes are not up to date? I am not by any means underscoring the importance of the professional records, but they are not everything in teaching.

Q. After supervisory visits, do schools supervisory reports? Sometimes verbal and the head teacher gets the written report, but not always.

#### **4. Preparation for curriculum implementation**

No way, the charade we went through in the name of in- servicing cannot be called preparation.

Q. Why was it a charade?

- Cascade was the wrong method. Most of the teachers who were supposedly in-serviced had no confidence of passing the knowledge to their colleagues. In the first place they had no reference materials. Even to our pupils we give notes.

- Induction was hurriedly done. At the end of the day we were so tired to concentrate.

- In-service was only one day. More time was needed.

- There should be follow up of the in servicing to ensure proper implementation.

Q. If the ZQASOs did not prepare you for the implementation, was there support from else where?

Most of the awareness on the curriculum was done by publishers as they marketed their books. Of course their information is biased to favour their books. Some publishers have even provided schemes of work in the teachers guide.

Not all classroom teachers were in serviced. Those who were in serviced were supposed to induct others, it never happened.

Q. Has this impacted on your as you implement the curriculum?

- Lack of preparation of teachers before implementation commenced caused confusion, delay in provision of teaching/learning materials meant delay in starting the implementation.

- Due to lack of in-service, we lacked direction.

#### **Resources**

- Selection of textbooks should not be restricted to the orange book.

- Enough copies of syllabuses to schools. Two copies are not enough even for the smallest school.

- Books and other curriculum support materials should be made available on the onset of the curriculum implementation.

Q. Comment on subject panels in schools

Subject panels exist in schools but they are not active due to lack of follow up



## 5. QASOs Knowledge and Skills

- QASOs are mainly secondary school teachers; they do not understand the methodology used in primary schools. How can one guide in something they do not understand.
- Unlike QASOs, TAC tutors are former primary school teachers, that is why they do a better job of guiding the teacher as compared to the QASOs
- Head teachers are doing most of what the QASOs are supposed to be doing.
- Quality of the QASOs is wanting. Not all deserve those positions.
- Some of the QASOs are incompetent. They do not understand the subject matter they purport to supervise and advise. We are sick and tired of being inspected by people whose only experience of primary schools is when they were pupils. How can one guide in something they do not understand?  
We taught some QASOs, they were no performers. How do they get to be promoted to guide teachers?

## 6. Description of ZQASOs

Q. The inspectorate changed its name to quality assurance and standards. Comment on the change. (Probe for their description of a ZQASO)

Inspectors are just inspectors, whatever name you give them. Their approach to work has not changed.

- A rose will always have thorns, no matter how beautiful
- A sheep will not become a goat just because you call it so. I have no description for these fellows.
- Does a snake stop being one just because you have removed the fangs?
- Cannot describe, I have not met him/her in 10 years of teaching
- Should be a colleague to teachers

## 7. Attitude

- We expect to get positive comments about work, not negative all the time. Surely there must be something that I do right.
- Teachers are not always the cause of failure in a school
- Teachers prefer dealing with TACs who are friendlier
- Recognise teachers' active role in effective curriculum implementation.
- Please tell the inspectors to work with teachers not against for the benefit of the pupils
- ZQASO is very unfriendly

## 8. Conducting Research

Q. ZQASOs visit for purposes of research.

Research! If they are not collecting data from us in schools, where else do we expect educational research to be conducted if not in school? Their research should be school based. They should get information from head teachers, teachers, pupils and even parents.

## **9. Recommendations**

- Experienced primary school teachers should be promoted to supervisors of primary education. These are the people best understand primary education. TTCs tutors should be recruited as QASOs. It is only natural that those who supervisor should be academically better than the supervised.
- Each QASO should teach a few lessons in the school nearest to their office. This way they can demonstrate to teachers' lesson delivery and other issues pertaining to teaching. They should lead by example, which is by being good teachers. That way we can take their advice seriously and respect their judgements.
- QASOs should lead by example. Provide a sample scheme of work, lesson plans and records of work to the teachers so that they can emulate. You think they can make one. They are good at theorizing.
- KIE should regularly monitor curriculum implementation, they understand it better.
- There should be a clear policy of promoting teachers.
- In-servicing should be frequent, subject and school based.

## **10. Any other Comment**

- Primary school teachers are like beasts of burden. Too many pupils in a class and nobody seem to appreciate the work they do.
- Employ more teachers to reduce teachers' workload.
- Curriculum changes are often done from the top, can we try to involve teachers who are the implementer?
- Curriculum developers should in-service teachers, they understand the curriculum.

## **11. Comments from head teachers**

- There is too much administrative work.
- Financial management is taking a lot of our time as heads.
- Government should rethink policy on ECD since it affects implementation of lower primary curriculum. Since EDC is not free. Most parents take their children straight to class one. It is not also a compulsory requirement before to joining class one.

## **12. Memorable Quotes**

'The approach they use in schools is scaring. They come into school like there is a state of war. They jump from the vehicles even before they stop, go straight to class. That in itself is enough to put the teacher off.'

'Their presence in class scares the pupils. They cannot even answer the simplest question'.

'Every time they visit a school, teachers are left so demoralized that for two weeks no meaningful teaching takes place as teachers absorb the shock and humiliation by people who are supposed be colleagues'

'We are qualified professional, why can't they respect that and treat us like professional, our colleagues?'

'Lets face it, they all started as teachers. Why can they not treat us like colleagues?'

'Where a teacher is not doing right, it is ok to be corrected but it should be done in friendly way'

'National goals! Who cares? I have too much work load. My interest is just going to class, deliver the content and complete the syllabuses. After all that is what is checked. Are national goals examined? Where can we read about them?'

No question in KCPE asks about the goals, why should I even think about them, nobody talks about them, why bother

'We are a forgotten lot. The only time we are remembered is when the examination results are announced and the school does not perform well. What follows is condemnations from all and sundry'.

'Who is a teacher? It seems like we are only important when children pass exams'.

'Why should somebody who is supposed to guide, facilitate, advice and help behave like a police inspector? We do not need policing, we need professional support'

## **APPENDIX 9: INTERVIEW WITH SUPERVISOR 1 (SI 1)**

### **Profile**

Number of years as a QASO: 11

Teaching experience: 9

Level of teaching: Secondary school

Whether trained on appointment as a QASO: YES

*(This interview was recorded using note taking method. The officer declined to be tape recorded.)*

### **1. Policy**

What guides your role as a QASO?

I have a schedule of duties that I was assigned on appointment. (Note: The schedule has not been revised since the changes in the directorate took place. It is just the way it has been for many years and may not reflect the changes with time – My insertion after getting the schedule).

The other guide is the Inspectors' Handbook.

### **2. Policy and Practice**

Q. Who is a QASO in your opinion? I am facilitator.

What functions do you carry out? The main functions that I carry out are the

- Maintenance of quality of teaching in the country.
- Improving pedagogical skills
- Assessing achievements
- In-servicing teachers

Q. What is your priority function?

Assessing teaching in my subject area in Kenya. Curriculum development is part and parcel of our duties since we are required to chair subject panels in KIE. However many are the times that we are not able to do this.

Q. Why is this?

Let's look at this way, there is work delegated by the director of quality assurance and Standards, at the same time there is a panel meeting in KIE, which one am I likely to attend to? I will attend to the one given by the DQAS. He is my immediate boss. I fail, I might look like I am doing work for other departments and neglecting mine. Also with the performance contracts that expect all departments to show what they have achieved, the likely hold of people retreating to their corner is very likely. This way we loose connection though working towards the same goal.

Q. Comment on what you are expected to do and what you usually do.

While there is what we are expected to do, the practice may slightly differ largely due to the many tasks one officer is expected to carry out. Sometimes I am expected to attend meetings at TSC, KNEC and KIE. This is on top of my daily work which involves.

Q. How can the expected and the actual functions you carry out be reconciled?  
One way of doing this is by having enough staff. The other is by all the departments concerned with curriculum implementation work on a common work plan that can be reconciled when need be. I should not be required to chair a panel in KIE and at the same time attend evaluation meetings in KNEC or conduct teacher interviews at the TSC.

### **3. Curriculum Development**

Q. Involvement in curriculum development.

I did not take part directly but have been involved in its dissemination as a district QASO in North-eastern province. I was inducted on the same, however it was not enough to enable me guide teachers. However due to my interest in the subject I have studied the curriculum well and I am in a position to guide the teachers. My participation in evaluating books for the curriculum has also helped me understand it better.

### **4. Teachers' Preparation**

Q. Comment on teachers prepared for the implementation of the curriculum

Yes teachers were prepared per department, all subjects were covered. However it is important to note that the preparation mainly focused on the changes that had taken place in the curriculum. The changes in the curriculum were justified. Areas that were not touched were the methods, national goals, let me say the relationship between the national goals, primary level objectives and the content were not touched, neither were the emerging issues. The time was not enough, took two days. Only a few teachers were selected and they were expected to go back and in service others.

Q. In view of what you have just said, are teachers then able to relate the national goals and what they teach?

Definitely they do not see the connection between the content they teach and the national goals or even primary level objectives. They see them as a separate. Let me say this, teachers are interested not interested/comfortable in their work. They are interested more in other things other than teaching.

Q. Why do you think this is so?

They just have a negative attitude. May be it can be attributed even to the recruitment. Usually only those who lack other avenues end up in teacher training colleges (TTCs). The morale is also low given the challenges that teachers face especially with introduction of FPE.

### **5. Teachers' Challenges**

Q. In your opinion are teachers facing any challenges in the implementation of the curriculum?

- One of the challenges is as a result of attitude. Teachers are resistant to change. They want to do things the old way.
- Teachers are not interested in learning more, they lack commitment

Q. why do you think they have this negative attitude?

I guess it is as a result of too many changes being introduced without adequate preparation.

## **6. Supervisors' Challenges**

Q. Any challenges in your work?

The main hindering factor is the bureaucracy that one has to go through. I can plan but to execute the plans, the chain of command is too long.

Others are:

- Shortage of staff. One officer at the head office overseeing the implementation of their subject areas at all level. That is pre-school, primary, secondary, tertiary institutions except the university. This creates a lot of confusion; the officer cannot effectively fulfil all their obligations.
- Linkage between the head office and other levels, the Province, District and the zones is missing or is not strong.

## **7. Recommendations**

Q. How can these challenges be addressed?

- One way of addressing these challenges is by having frequent in service training on methodology. All teachers should be trained since the cascade system is not likely to work. The training should be done at the zone and school levels.
- The other is by making DQAS autonomous. For the directorate to effectively ensure quality, it should be made autonomous. Be detached from other departments.

Q. how will this help?

- When we write reports and make recommendations, we do not oversee the implementation of those recommendations. The recommendations are followed by other departments. If a school or a teacher has a problem, let's say with schemes of work, we give the report to the TAC tutor. Whether the recommendations are fulfilled, we never get to know. Others are forwarded to the directorate of basic education. If it is an issue of staffing, it is handled by the TSC. Discipline cases are handled by the DEOs. All these issues affect the implementation of the curriculum but we have very little control over.

## **8. Change fro Inspectorate to DQAS**

Q. Before 2003 you are an inspector, now you are QASO, what else changed? Attitude has changed. We have become friendlier. We are no longer fault finders. Even the teachers have realized the change.

Q. Was any training done for changed role? Workshops were conducted. In 2004 and 2005, one week workshops were conducted. The aim was to help QASOs change their attitude towards inspection. (Note the use the word inspection).

## **9. Supervisory Skills**

Q. In your opinion what skills does a QASO need for effectively supervision?

One needs to have solid pedagogical skills in their area. B.Ed course covers major areas.

Other skills that are necessary are report writing and computer skills.

## **10. Other Comments**

All in all the work of an inspector is a challenge given the many duties he has to perform.

## **APPENDIX 10: INTERVIEW WITH SUPERVISOR 2 (SI 2)**

( The supervisor consented to tape recording)

### **Profile**

Number of years as a QASO: 8

Teaching experience: 10

Level of teaching: Secondary school

Whether trained on appointment as a QASO: NO

### **1. Training**

Q. You are a teacher before being a QASO, were you inducted/ trained on your role as a QASO?

When I joined the inspectorate which is now Quality Assurance and Standards, I was not trained, I learned on the job.

Q. Since then, has there been any training? We have had workshops especially when need be. We usually have annual workshops, conducted every year.

Q. What is usually the focus of these workshops? Usually focuses on quality Assessment and report writing which is an important part of our work as QASOs. We also go through how to carry out quality assessment in schools since we no longer call them inspections.

### **2. Policy**

Q. What guides your role as a QASO? There is the Inspectors' Handbooks that details all activities. It guides you when you are doing inspection on what you are supposed to check in every area.

Q. Other than the Handbook, are there any other guidelines? The other guideline is the schedule of duties.

Q. What does the schedule of duties entail? The schedule spells out what you are expected to do as an officer in charge of a subject. Every officer is given a copy when they join the QAS. The others are like previous inspection reports.

### **3. Policy Expectations and Practice**

Q. When you look at the schedule of duties or the inspectors' handbook and the functions you are expected to perform, and what you actually do, is there any difference?

Yes and no. The handbook details all what one is supposed to do, the areas you are supposed to assess and the benchmarks. The handbook has the best of intentions but when you go out the situation dictates what you do. Everything being equal, one can follow the Handbook to the letter but sometimes you may go out and you find a school in very bad shape that you are hardly able to follow the stipulations of the handbook. The schedule of duties requires an officer to collaborate with other bodies such as KIE in curriculum development, KNEC for assessment and TSC for staffing. These are not detailed in the Handbook but due to shortage of staff one is not able to attend to all.

For example I might be expected to share a curriculum development panel for my subject in KIE, at the same time there is a meeting in KNEC and TSC could be evaluating teachers for promotion, I am expected to participate in all these activities, I am just one, how do I meet all the demands?. Other issues that prevent us from performing the functions as stipulated in the Handbook and schedule of duties are the challenges that we face.

#### **4. Curriculum development**

Q. Did you take part in the development of the revise primary curriculum that was implemented in 2003? Yes I participated in the development of the curriculum and was involved in the whole process from the needs assessment, but i participated in the development of Secondary curriculum.

Q. Has this influenced your supervision of the primary science curriculum? I have not had a problem in understanding the science curriculum since it has a lot of biological information.

Q. What is your role in curriculum implementation? As the QASO, my main role is to see to it that the teacher is teaching the curriculum the way it is supposed to be to be taught. Q. Which is? First is to make sure they have the right syllabus and they prepare all the necessary professional records. Q. Which are these professional records? These are schemes of work, lesson plans, record of work and teaching notes. These records are supposed to show that the teacher is doing the right thing.

Q. Wouldn't a teacher have records but not translate the same in class? Yes it is possible but a teacher who is organized enough to have all the records in place is usually well prepared and is likely to translate the same in class.

Q. Is there anything else you are expected to do other than ensuring they have the right syllabus and have kept the professional records?  
The other area in the implementation of the curriculum we carry out with the other stake holders. For example, ensuring they have textbooks with the correct information, curriculum materials are there, like the radio script I am participating in making such things. Q. Who are the other stakeholders? KIE, KNEC.

Q. Do you see curriculum development as part and parcel of your role? Yes it is, you know developing the curriculum helps you to understand it better.

#### **5. Teacher Preparation**

Q. Is there any on going teacher preparation/in servicing? Answer: Yes it has been there, we have been organizing workshops foe teachers and I have been participating. Q When you hold these workshops, what is usually the focus? It is mainly the methodology because we have noted that the main problem with our teachers is teacher preparation.



Q. At what level of preparation? Answer: I don't mean preparation at the college level, it is preparation for teaching. They do not prepare when going to teach. They usually take a textbook and off they go to class.

Q. When the revised primary curriculum was implemented, in your opinion, were the teachers prepared for its implementation? Answer: they were not adequately prepared.

Q. Why do you say they were not prepared, what lacked in the preparation? What lacked was proper sensitization of the curriculum. You know when implementing a new curriculum, teachers need to be properly sensitized, and again take them through the syllabus so that they can understand what they are supposed to understand what they are supposed to do in every area to teach.

Q. So you are not able to do this adequately? No.

Q. Was it done to a certain level? Answer: What I am saying is an attempt was made but it was not adequate. Regional workshops were held where education officials were sensitized on the curriculum, a cascade system was supposed to be used to go down up to the school level but this did not happen and this as influenced the way teachers are implementing the curriculum.

Q. How? You know even the teaching materials were late reaching the schools. The teachers did not have the curriculum support materials for some time.

Q. If you were not able to take the teachers through the syllabus adequately, we have the national goals of education that are supposed to be connected with the content taught in class, if you look at the science curriculum, are the teachers able to connect what they are teaching in class with the national goals? Definitely they do not see the connection, they teach the content as a separate thing.

## **7. Supervisory Visits**

Q. How often do you make supervisory visits to schools? That one i may not be able to answer very well. You know we are at the national level, we have other officers in the zones. According to how we have organized a zone has about 22 schools. It is expected that a zonal inspector will visit each school at least ones a term.

Q. At the national level, do you have a schedule that says for example you visit the district ho w many times a year? We have a work plan.

Q. In the work plan, are you able to visit the districts may in one year.

No we are not able at the national level but at the district we expect them to make frequent visits to schools since most of our labor force is at the district. The National level is very thin, even the provincial level, in fact we only have one officer at the provincial level.

Q. At the district level, is there anybody in charge of just primary education?

At the district there is one officer in charge of both primary and secondary, then there two deputies, one in charge of primary education and the other secondary education.

Q. when you visit a school, ones you are there. What happens? Answer: Ones you are there the procedure is, you are supposed to report to the head teacher first, introduce yourself, sign the visitors book and state the reason of your visit.

Q. After that, what activities do you carry out? After that, you know we usually go as a panel, you are never supposed to go to a school when you are alone; you are supposed to be at least two. One can organise related subjects such as mathematics and you go as a team. It is even more cost effective.

Q. Now you are there as a team, what are the major activities that you carry out in the school? Answer: the major activities? A normal inspection or assessment

Q. Where normal means?

Ordinary or routine, you know it can even be audit or an inspection as a result of a problem. A routine/ normal/advisory, you know that one there might be somebody looking at the administrative issues. The others will go to specific areas, such as subject areas. Interact with subject teachers; others are in charge physical facilities.

Q. Lets look at the curriculum area, do you go to class, observe the teachers or what exactly happens?

We are supposed to do that, and it happens, we have class observation schedules in the handbook.

Q. Before you visit a school, is the school informed? Answer: we can go with or without notice.

Q. that what the handbook says, but what is practice? Answer: Mostly they are not informed.

Q. Now you have gone to a school and you want to observe a teacher, what is the procedure?

The procedure is a mixture of many things. If there is time you can ask for the schemes, lesson notes then follow the teacher to class but you can also start the other way round because if you go when the lesson is almost starting, you go in, you listen then you ask for the records to see if what the teacher was teaching is in line with what is schemed.

Q. Assuming there is time for you to look at the records and talk to the teacher before class observation, do you agree on what is to be observed. You said you have an observation schedule, does the teacher know what you are going to observe? Answer: They do know, the first thing to start with is the scheme of work followed by the lesson plan. Was the lesson plan being followed? Were the pupils being given adequate time and activities, such like things?

Q. You have gone to class, observed the teacher teach, what happens after that?

Answer: You know we are supposed to sit down with the teacher, now you start advising like in this area if you had included teaching aid it could have been better.

Q. You have used the word supposed to sit down with the teacher, in practice does it happen? Answer: You know what happens, I mostly do that but you cannot miss cases where QASOs do not. Mostly you are supposed to sit with the teacher because you are guiding and advising you are supposed to sit and discuss with the teacher. Actually, that is what I do.

Q. Do you give the teacher any written report? No.

Q. If you have discussed with the teacher and given your feedback, does it end there? No, it does not end there, but these are two different issues. Like asking if I give a report? You know if I am carrying out a national assessment where we are a team, we write a combined report on all the aspects that were assessed. We then give the report to the school and the DEO for implementation, but you know down there at the district and zone levels they are supposed to assess teachers and given them written reports. These things we call MIR (Monthly Inspection Reports). These reports are given to the district and a copy is sent to the HQ but you know it is what the inspector has done in each month. Let's say he/she has assessed 30 teachers, the individual teachers will have been given their reports.

Q. When they are given these reports, is there any follow up that is done to see if the suggestions have been incorporated or improved in the areas they were weak in?  
Answer: The follow up is not as strong as it is supposed to be.

Q. What do you attribute to the lack of follow up? Answer: One is the shortage of staff.

Q. You have talked about in service and class observation, in your own opinion, is this the best way of helping teachers in the implementation of the curriculum? May be for the teachers to work better, they need more close supervision, close contact with the supervisors. You know as we are discussing assessment, there are other people we call TAC tutors (Teacher Advisory Centre tutors) in the zones. They are supposed to be people who have excelled in their teaching so the way I see it they need closer supervision in order to deliver.

Q. So do you rely more on the TACs to guide the teachers more than the QASOs? We rely more on the QASOs but we know we have now have a problem because most of the TACs are now doubling up as QASOs; the adviser becomes also the assessor. This has caused role confusion.

Q. when you make supervisory visits to schools, you collect data, what is the main use of this data? Mostly the data we collect is used to get the needy areas, where teachers need help. We also get strengths and weaknesses so that we can improve. After inspecting and weaknesses are detected, that forms a basis for our servicing.

Q. If you find a teacher who really wanting I performance, can this data be used to penalise them? When we find a teacher who is wanting, we write a report and give it to the DEO for action; we can also give it to the director who in turn is supposed to follow it with the TSC secretary.

Q. Does this mean the QASO does not act on the report? The policy says ours is to report and somebody else acts.

Q. Do you find this a problem? It is a problem because even we found very bad practices, we cannot go beyond that and we find that a limitation.

Q. How do you relate with INSET that is in Directorate of basic education? The relation between the two, there is a gap.

Q. The INSET in Basic is it just a project? Answer: It is a project. They do there in servicing at the project level; there is no coordination or use of data collected by QASOs. There is no connection. And you know some of these donor funded projects; the donors dictate very much that sometimes the project lacks credibility.

## 8. Change from Inspectorate to DQAS

Q. Until 2004, your title was inspector, now you are a QASO, what changed with the title?

You know the change, is not just the title, it is also the approach to issues, the way we approach inspection, we no longer do inspection but quality assessment, and you know when you are doing quality work, assessment you know the approach to the work should also be different. The relation with teachers, that is why we are saying these days we are able to tell them we are coming to your school, we give them notice. And when you go there after assessing, you also sit down with them and we tell them, that is something we have developed. We discuss and the teachers now respond. It is no longer a one way. I cannot tell exactly when this approach was introduced but during the title of the inspector it was not there. You could go to a school, carry out inspection, get into the vehicles and drive off.

Q. From what you have said the QASOs look like they have changed in approach and attitude, but have the teachers warmed up? They have. May be not totally but they are in the process. You can also through the interaction with the teachers learn a lot.

Q. Were you trained for this change? Answer: Training? We have been going for in service training. You know for example now with the inspectors handbook you are supposed to assess these areas, then after the inspection you are supposed to discuss with them the strengths, challenges and the weaknesses, then from there you when you sit with a teacher either in class or the office, you know you also discuss this scheme could have been better if you had put these teaching aids, may be they are not available. You see you also start seeing issues from the teachers' point of view.

Q. Have the inductions been going on? Answer: Yes they have been going on.

Q. I has alluded to this question earlier when we talked about the change from a teacher to a QASO, but are there skills that you feel are very necessary for a QASO to be effective?

For a QASO to be effective you need observation and communication skills. One must also be diligent in their work, and also knowledgeable in your subject area. Further more you must be current, current issues in your area.

Q. In your opinion do you think there are skills that are missing or that need to be beefed up? Actually, we have been having workshops, the ones I was telling you about. Report writing workshops are very necessary. You know you can go to the field, correct a lot of data, but ends up being useless if the data is not analysed in order to give meaning. This is an area that QASOs need to be trained in. IT skills are also necessary, communication skills also need to be beefed up.

Q. Does a QASO need subject knowledge to observe a teachers? In fact what is happening is, to be a QASO you must be a graduate; the idea is if you are a graduate you must have passed in all those subjects and since you know the teaching methodology, you can be able to assess all subjects. With the syllabus you can be able to interpret it and assess.

Q. Do we still have QASOs who are not graduates? Yes we still have them. They are being phased out, we found that we that kind of academic background they might not be helpful to the teachers.

## **9. Teachers' Challenges**

Q. In your opinion what challenges are teachers facing in the implementation of the curriculum? Mostly in science, it is lack of teaching aid. They also do not have time.

Q. May be you can elaborate on that. Teacher: pupil interaction is not adequate because of the large numbers in class. You know the teacher pupil ratio also affects the implementation of the curriculum.

Q. Any other challenges? As far as the content is concerned they have a problem with the emerging issues. Like the area of child labor and child rights. In that area they do not seem to be able to integrate the issues in their teaching.

Q. What do you attribute to this lack of emphasis? They do give emerging issues a lot of emphasis because they are also contravening the child rights. The other is the emphasis on the passing of the examinations at the expense of inculcating values. In a wider picture, the teachers are not teaching the internally examined subjects which are also supposed to contribute to the achievement of the national goals of education. The teachers either use the lessons for these subjects to teach other subjects like mathematics or just or leave the children to play on their own.

Q. How can these challenges be addressed?

Mostly what we do, in the in servicing, you know stress on methodology, we try to let them see the importance of preparation, you know when you prepare, you teach better. We also show them how to improvise.

## **10. Supervisors' Challenges**

Q. What are your major challenges in supervision of the implementation of the science curriculum? As the person in charge, you are one at the national level but we have others at the district and the Zonal levels. Those issues are related, we don't have enough inspectors. I can assess a few schools but the rest are supposed to be assessed by QASOs in other levels. Another challenge that is also related is that we were not sensitized enough for the implementation of the curriculum. And in the preparation and practical teaching they do not in corporate very much.

Q. Why? It is because they are not able to interpret the curriculum and lack of resources and they do not improvise. We can say it is both, Most of the materials are available locally but the teachers are not willing to improvise.

The other challenge that we may be facing are, transport, finances and our offices lack the essential facilities necessary to effectively work. Lack of finances creates another problem since we have to move as a panel. Not every member can be available at the same time. It becomes difficult to schedule supervisory visits that suit everybody.

Q. Since you mentioned that a supervisor is not supposed to visit a school alone and hence the use of panels, at the same time you have said the panels are a hurdle, how can this be improved? To start with, that is not a policy since it is not recorded

anywhere, it is just the practice. We avoid going to school alone to avoid the issue of being told you harassed, extorted and such like things. The panel acts as a checks and balance.

Q. Is there any other comment you would like to make regarding curriculum implementation that we have not discussed? The DQAS is working well with the stakeholders like KIE but there is room for improvements. This curriculum must be interpreted to the teachers in a language they understand. Like when we have in-service courses for teachers, it is important for KIE and KNEC to participate but more often than not they do not. This could be attributed to shortage of staff and also people coiling into their own corners. It is important to release that the curriculum belongs to all departments and its success can only be realized if all join hands. In principle this is what is supposed to happen.

## **APPENDIX 11: INTERVIEW WITH SUPERVISOR 3 (SI 3)**

### **Profile**

Years of experience as a QASO: 11 years  
Years of experience as a teacher: 17 years  
Level at which taught: Secondary  
Training on appointment as a QASO: yes

*(This interview was recorded using note taking, the officer declined to be recorded on tape).*

### **1. Policy**

Q. What policies guides guide you as a QASO? The Inspectors' Handbook vision, mission and the performance contract of the directorate. The Mission is "to establish, maintain and improve educational and training Standards"

The **Vision** is "To provide Quality Assurance and Standards Assessment Feedback to all stake holders on all educational and training institutions" The quality is ensured through supervision.

Q. How would you define a QASO? An assessor.

### **2. Training**

Q. Were you trained for your role? Induction was done though it was theoretical. Most of the times we learn on the job. Sometimes official courses are organized whenever need arises. Like when there are new officers, induction for senior management is carried out. A QASO is an organizer, planner, facilitator, mentor and helper.

### **3. Policy expectations and Practice**

Q. What Functions that QASO is expected to carry out?

- In- servicing teachers in their subject area in pedagogical skills (teacher proficiency course TPC which is a new development. Has been carried out in 1998, 2005, 2006
- Participate in material development and evaluation
- Assessment of the curriculum activities in KNEC
- Assessment of standards of the teaching (implementation of the curriculum) inspection.

Q. Of the functions you have mentioned, which ones do you consider core? I consider all functions as core. You cannot assess standards if you don't set them. One must be involved in the whole process, all functions to complete. Analysis of activities is important in order to draw conclusions. Even the co-curricula activities like music, games and drama are all important. They contribute to effective implementation of the curriculum.

Q. How would you compare the functions you are expected to carry out and what you actually do? Our duties are well stipulated however there are many interfering

factors. At the end of our schedule, there is a statement that says and 'any other duty that may be assigned by your director' this statement is too open. It sees us writing speeches for our seniors, accompanying politicians in rallies in the name of explaining government policies. We are multi-purpose. Sometimes this statement of any other duty becomes core function.

#### **4. Curriculum Development**

Q. Did you participate in curriculum development? I did participate in the whole process of developing the revised curriculum in my subject. Q. Has this involvement been beneficial to you in supervising implementation? It makes a lot of difference. When one has participated in the development, you understand the curriculum better. One also understands the challenges that the implementers (teachers) are likely to face. It also helps one to understand issues.

Most QASOs get involved in curriculum development. They chair the subject panels. It is one of our core functions. However we have officers at other levels, Provincial, District and zones who need to understand the curriculum since they are the ones who are in constant touch with the teachers.

#### **5. Teacher Preparation**

Q. In your opinion, were teachers prepared for the implementation of the curriculum? Just before the implementation in 2002, induction courses were conducted on the revised curriculum. However these courses were not effective, not adequate. This is because the numbers accommodated in one training centre were too many (500). The training days were three. These were too few for the content that was supposed to be covered. It was more of an overview of the curriculum, sensitization rather than induction. It was not subject based. As a result of this, teachers are still negative about the curriculum. They still think it is overloaded.

#### **6. Supervisory Visits**

Q. Let's now talk about supervisory visits. How often do you make these visits? There is no definite time. Sometimes we go routine checks. Other times we go to schools when there is a problem. The visits are usually advisory, monitoring and supervisory. What exactly happens when you visit a school? Many things happen. Main concern is how curriculum is being implemented, but you know many things affect the implementation. We look at student work, exercises, lesson observation, physical facilities, general school environment, value added on performance, safety measures e.g. dormitories, discipline, rights of the children and books. When you go for class observation, what exactly happens? Usually we accompany the teacher to class. Sit in as the teacher teaches. After the class observation, we meet with the teacher and discuss the lesson with the teacher. The data we correct, we analyze and end it to the PDE, DEO, TSC and all the directorates.

It is expected that these stakeholders are going to take action and follow up. QAS has no mandate to effect the recommendations they make after supervisory visits. Many are the times that no action is taken.



## **7. Change from Inspectorate to DQAS**

Q. Let's talk about your change of title from Inspector to QASO. Yes we changed the title. We were in serviced to help as change our altitude. The language we used to use, e.g why didn't use complete the syllabus? This was an accusing kind of language, as QASO we know longer use. We see ourselves as quality assessors than inspectors. The aim of supervision is to help teachers become better in order to improve quality and hence achievement of objectives of education. What about the teachers? Teachers and head teachers have changed their attitude towards us. We discuss we them the as colleagues. We look at the strength and weaknesses and advice and give guidance on how to deal with the weaknesses.

Q. Comment on the recent restructuring of the ministry and how your section relates to others. DQAS cuts across all directorates. We are involved in ensuring quality in both basic and higher education. We receive education data from all institutions. We process reports and advice the necessary directorate or agency on what needs to be done.

## **8. Supervisory Skills**

Q. In your opinion, what skills are necessary to make a QASO effective in supervising curriculum implementation? Good public relations, good role model, a good teacher, be knowledgeable in you subject area, must be widely read and aware of any developments in their area. Must also be gender responsive, pro active honest transparent and accountable, fair, just and confidence? We also need strong report writing skills which are lacking.

## **9. Teachers' Challenges**

Q. In your opinion are teachers facing challenges in the implementation of the revised curriculum?

They also find new content that they find challenging, e.g. civil rights, child rights, HIV/Aids and child labour. Some of then are afraid of teaching them since thy do not observe them. They also find improvisation a problem. I see it more of an attitude problem. They want everything ready made for them. In social studies thee are new areas that teachers are finding difficult such as cultural activities, social relations. Teachers are not conversant with these cultural things though the resource books are detailed. Topics such as constitution, law, peace and reconciliation are not well discussed in some books. The solution is to have continuous in servicing of teachers.

Q. What about the national goals and primary level objectives? Do not even go there; they cannot relate the goals with their subject content. They rarely if ever the do look at the objectives. Other challenges teachers are facing are:

- Inadequate coverage of the syllabus due to many interfering activities. Co-curricular activities such as drama, music and games that were not factored in the syllabus but take a substantial amount of teaching time.
- Promotion of discipline among learners.
- Inadequate physical facilities.

- Inadequate internal supervision in the schools. Head teachers are overburdened and bogged down by many duties are unable to supervise. They also have to teach full load like any other teacher.
- Since introduction of FPE, parental involvement in schools has been minimal. FPE has been mistaken. Parents think it is total surrender of their responsibilities to the school. This has resulted it indiscipline in schools.
- There are too many pupils in one class. Teacher is not able to give individual attention. This is as a result of understaffing in some areas or lack of physical facilities in others.

## 10. Supervisors' Challenges

Q. What would you say are the major challenges you face in overseeing the implementation of the curriculum?

- We are understaffed at all levels. There used to be QASOs even at the Division level but today they are not there.
- Facilities such as transport to the field are not easily available. Sometimes we are forced to use public transport. Ones we reach the district we use the district vehicles that might not even have fuel to use.
- Our job is risky but the government does not have an insurance cover for the QASOs. We need a comprehensive cove that can take care of the risks we take.
- All agencies involved in curriculum such as KIE, KNEC, QAS and TSC should network. We need a synchronizing of policies and activities. In servicing of teachers should be done with contribution from all theses agencies. The people who understand the curriculum better are the developers (KIE), KNEC evaluates and therefore understands the weaknesses, and QAS supervises and therefore understands all other issues that are likely to affect implementation while TSC provides the Manpower. Sometimes an officer many find they are required to attend activities in all these agencies and hence the need for synchronizing their activities.
- Low morale and lack of motivation. This is mainly due to the low remuneration. Big tiles are given but very little to show for it. 'If am called assistant directed of Quality Assurance, are my children going to be educated by the title?'
- Offices facilities are wanting, poor furniture, torn seats, lack of computers ant other facilities that facilities work in an office. 'Tell me, does this office look like an Assistant Directors office? When people read the title on the door they are taken aback when they enter. They usually think they have entered the wrong office'.
- In the field, QASOs are not signatories to the accounts. The DEO is the overseer of the management of recourses. Since the district QASO has to rely on the DEO for funding, their programs are usually interfered with since supervision may not be the DEO's priority.
- Most QASOs are not trained in Primary education methodology. It is important that a QASO is conversant with methods used in the level they are supervising.

## **11. Any other comment**

- To effectively implement the revised curriculum, team effort is needed. To in service teachers, a team composed of QASOs (DQAS), curriculum developers (KIE) and Evaluators (KNEC) should be used. This would make In Servicing comprehensive and include all areas that might contribute to effective implementation.
- There is need to synchronize programmes of all stake holders in curriculum implementation, DQAS, KIE. KNEC and TSC.
- A comprehensive insurance cover for all officers in DQAS. They are involved in frequent travelling sometimes to dangerous areas in the country. They are exposed to health hazards and all.

## **APPENDIX 12: INTERVIEW WITH SUPERVISOR 4 (SI 4)**

### **Profile**

Years of experience as a QASO: 9  
Years of experience as a teacher: 10 years  
Level at which taught: Secondary  
Training on appointment as a QASO: yes

*(This interview was recorded using note taking, the officer declined to be recorded on tape).*

### **1. Policy**

Q. What policies guides guide you as a QASO? The Inspectors' Handbook and personal experience. Our tools of trade are circulars. Formats are drawn for each specific duty. A schedule is produced to cater for the current issues. Induction was done on the job.

Q. How would you define a QASO? An advisor.

### **2. Training**

Q. Were you trained for your role? After 8 years I attended a formal induction course. Most of the times when you are assigned a subject, it is assumed you know what to do.

### **3. Policy Expectations and Practice**

Q. What does the policy expect you to carry out? Oversee the implementation of the curriculum in schools.

- Chair subject panels
- Monitor implementation and advice accordingly. I play an advisory role.
- Attend meeting in KNEC for evaluation, TSC to advice on curriculum based staffing and KIE to chair subject panels.

Q. Of the functions you have mentioned, which ones do you consider core? Inspection and assessment.

Q. How would you compare the functions you are expected to carry out and what you actually do? There is difference in what I am expected to do and what I do. To start with the handbook that is supposed to be our bible is not practical. It is dated and can not be used in the current times. A schedule is drawn to cater for a specific purpose. Retention, wastage and other issues are specified in the assessment documents at particular times. To reconcile the expected and the actual is difficult. We act according to situation.

### **4. Curriculum Development**

Q. Did you participate in curriculum development? I did not take part in the curriculum development process. I had joined QASO then. Q. Has this affected you in way? This does not limit me in any way. However curriculum development is part and parcel of the duties that we are supposed to perform.

## **5. Teacher Preparation**

Q. In your opinion, were teachers prepared for the implementation of the curriculum? There was an attempt but we would not say it was adequate. They were not fully involved. In my opinion, teachers have not yet understood the revised curriculum, they have not yet understood the objectives neither the revised curriculum. In servicing was done only for a few teachers. They were supposed to in service other teachers. This cascade system did not work. During the training the syllabuses and textbooks were not out. Training materials were also lacking. Circulars have been sent to schools to address issues as they arise. Not much follow up has been done.

## **6. Supervisory Visits**

Q. Let's now talk about supervisory visits. How often do you make these visits? There is no definite time. Sometimes we go routine checks. Other times we go to schools when there is a problem. The visits are usually advisory, monitoring and supervisory.

Q. How often do you make supervisory visits to schools? At the national level, we usually visit ones per term. For about two weeks, we cover a number of districts. In February this year, (2006) we covered 35 districts that were last in KCPE in 2005. These visits are usually at the beginning of the year. Districts and provinces have their schedule of supervision. Q. Are the visits at the various levels synchronized? There not. However feed back is sent from zone level, district, province and national level. From the top, feedback in form of circulars is sent.

Q. What exactly happens when you visit a school? We report to the head teacher, state the purpose of our visit. We go straight to class for observation.

Q. When you for class observation, what exactly happens? You can go to any class, sit and observe a lesson. We also look at professional documents such as schemes of work, lesson plans and notes. After the observation we are supposed to discuss with the teacher. Q. You are saying you are supposed to, does it happen? Well it may it may not depending on the circumstances. You discuss with the teacher the strengths and weaknesses of the observed lesson. You then prepare an executive summary that you present to the teachers in a staff meeting. Usually it is discuss where the teachers also give a feed back. When finally the report is processed, a copy is supposed to go to the school, DEO and TAC. The follow up is supposed to be by the head teacher and the TAC. A QASO just writes the report but other people are supposed to follow the recommendations. We have no mandate to implement the recommendations that we give. We only go back to find out if they were implemented. Q. If not? We can only again recommend the action do be taken.

## **7. Change from Inspectorate to DQAS**

Q. Let's talk about your change of title from Inspector to QASO  
The name changed but the duties are the same. However the approach to work has changed. You know the public used to associate us with police inspectors. The attitude teachers had of the inspector was that of somebody who comes to terrorize. This has now changed. We dialogue with the teachers as colleagues. We are

friendlier, although some officers have not changed. The feedback we are getting from the teachers is that the approach we are using now is helpful. The know it all attitude that the inspectors had “just used to discourage teachers.” Let’s face it, not all of us were good teachers. Therefore it is important to get feed back from teachers.

Q. Were you inducted for this change? No, we were not, but it is always addressed whenever we have meetings.

Q. Comment on the recent restructuring of the ministry and how your section relates to others. DQAS cuts across all directorates. We are involved in ensuring quality in both basic and higher education. We receive education data from all institutions. We process reports and advice the necessary directorate or agency on what needs to be done.

## **8. Supervisory Skills**

Q. In your opinion, what skills are necessary to make a QASO effective in supervising curriculum implementation?

- We need to be updated in modern supervisory skills to keep up with rest of the world.
- Technological challenges should be addressed through training.
- Enhancement on emerging issues.
- Report writing skills
- Have a harmonized report writing format.

Q. Let’s talk about skills that you may require to make your work better. We need to keep updated on new developments in our field. Issues are emerging that may affect the way we perform our work.

- Report writing skills are very necessary.
- We need to communicate through the reports we write.
- Communication and public relation skills. The ultimate aim of what we do is making teaching and learning effective. This can be enhanced if we can communicate effectively.
- Computer skills and use of the internet. Though we don’t currently have the computers and internet, the DQAS of the future will.

## **9. Teachers’ Challenges**

Q. In your opinion are teachers facing challenges in the implementation of the revised curriculum?

- Teachers have not yet understood the changes in the curriculum. This is especially in subjects that were combined.

- The revised curriculum was implemented on a phase in phase out basis.

Production of books and other curriculum materials has never been done on time. They are out late. Teachers therefore start teaching without curriculum support materials.

- Teachers do not use the syllabuses. They use text books instead. This affects syllabus coverage. However this can be attributed to lack of induction.

- Book policy is not well understood in schools.

- Teachers have not understood the changes in the curriculum. This is especially in subjects that were combined. Subjects such as Science and Social Studies are a problem to teachers.

- Emerging issues such as HIV/Aids, environmental education, gender issues and human rights that teachers are expected to integrate or infuse in their subject areas are posing a challenge.
- Teacher: pupil ratio as a result of FPE. Teachers have to deal with large class sizes.
- Non- externally examined subjects are not being taught.

Q. How can these challenges be addressed? In – servicing should be carried out at the zone and district levels. It should be organized from the head office to the zone level. TAC tutors should be left to perform their duties. They are supposed to perform advisory duties but have now been turned into administrators and QASOs. TAC tutors cannot write supervisory reports. They are not allowed by law. However to address this, they write and any QASO signs to make it authentic. This in itself is a problem. One signs something they did not witness.

On national goals, the teachers do not usually see the connection. Majority of the teachers do not even look at the syllabus. Those who do will not bother with the pages where the national goals, primary level objectives and general subjects are written. The subject content is what matters to them. That is why they use the text books to scheme. The only consolation is that the text books follow the syllabus.

## **10. Supervisors' Challenges**

Q. What would you say are the major challenges you face in overseeing the implementation of the curriculum?

- Workload is too much.
- We perform tasks that are not related to our core duties. Such tasks as speech writing take a lot of our times. We cannot therefore follow our work plans effectively.
- Understaffing. Sometimes one is wanted in more than one place at the same time. Activities in KNEC, TSC and KIE may be calling for my attention at the same time.
- Most of us lack report writing skills.
- We also lack appropriate office equipment and offices.

## **11. Any other comment:**

- To effectively implement the revised curriculum, team effort is needed. To in service teachers, a team composed of QASOs (DQAS), curriculum developers (KIE) and Evaluators (KNEC) should be used. This would make in-servicing training comprehensive and include all areas that might contribute to effective implementation.
- There is need to synchronize programmes of all stake holders in curriculum implementation, DQAS, KIE. KNEC and TSC.
- A comprehensive insurance cover for all officers in DQAS. They are involved in frequent travelling sometimes to dangerous areas in the country. They are exposed to health hazards and all.

## **APPENDIX 13: INTERVIEW WITH SUPERVISOR 5 (SI 5)**

### **Profile**

Years of experience as a QASO: 11 years

Years of experience as a teacher: 5 years

Level at which taught: Secondary

Training on appointment as a QASO: No

### **1. Policy**

Q. What policies guides guide you as a QASO? We follow the Inspectors' Handbook and circulars in addition to schedule of duties.

Q. How would you define your role? I am an assessor, coordinator and facilitator

### **2. Training**

Q. Were you trained for your role? An induction course was conducted after I had worked for a number of years.

### **3. Policy Expectations and Practice**

Q. 3: Functions that QASO is expected to carry:

- Oversee the implementation of the curriculum in schools.
- Chair subject panels
- Monitor implementation and advice accordingly. I play an advisory role.
- Attend meeting in KNEC for evaluation, TSC to advice on curriculum based staffing and KIE to chair subject panels.

Q. Of the functions you have mentioned, which ones do you consider core? - Inspection and assessment.

Q. How would you compare the functions you are expected to carry out and what you actually do? There is difference in what I am expected to do and what I do. To start with the handbook that is supposed to be our bible is not practical. It is dated and can not be used in the current times. We also tent to deviate from the script to meet the demands of the time. A schedule is drawn to cater foe a specific purpose. Retention, wastage and other issues are specified in the assessment documents at particular times.

### **4. Curriculum Development**

Q. Did you participate in curriculum development?

Not fully. Has this affected you in supervising implementation? Lack of participation does not in any way limit me. Q. Do you feel curriculum is a core duty? Yes curriculum development is part and parcel of what I do. It is specified in the schedule of duties that am supposed to carry out. Q. How can the expected and the actual be reconciled? It may be difficulty to reconcile the two since we act according to the demand of the situation at the time. We may need to revise all policy documents to reflect the current times.



## **5. Teacher Preparation**

Q. In your opinion, were teachers prepared for the implementation of the curriculum? .

In servicing was only done for some teachers. Cascade system was supposed to be did not work. When the in servicing was done, the syllabuses were not out, time was too short and curriculum support materials were not ready. Teachers were not even given handouts for reference and they were expected to go and train outer teachers, how? Nobody seemed to think about it.

Teacher proficiency courses (TPC). These courses started in 1998 but were discontinued till 2005 and 2006. Teacher fill forms at the zone level after teaching for three years, merits lists per zone are sent to the head office. The panel decides hoe many teachers per zone will be admitted for the course. Some teachers are unable to meet the cost of the course. They pay 4000 for accommodation, setting and marking of exams. QASOs are the facilitators in these courses. The course takes one week, sun- Thursday. Friday they take the exams. This time is very short.

## **6. Supervisory Visits**

Q. Let's now talk about supervisory visits. How often do you make these visits? At the national level, we make supervisory visits at the beginning of the year. Like this year we went out for two weeks, covered 35 districts that were last in KCPE in the previous year. District QASOs make their own visits. Q. Are these visits synchronized at the different levels? They are not, however feedback is received at all levels. It is usually bottom up.

## **7. Change from Inspectorate to DQAS**

Q. Let's talk about your change of title from Inspector to QASO.

Yes the name change but the duties remain the same. The members of the public used to associate us with police inspectors. Change of altitude mainly depends on individual officers.

Q. In your opinion, what skills are necessary to make a QASO effective in supervising curriculum implementation? Computer skills and report writing skills

Q. Comment on the recent restructuring of the ministry and how your section relates to others. DQAS cut across all directorates. Reports are written and send to all relevant to departments. However, they are not involved in the quality assessment.

## **8. Teachers' Challenges**

Q. In your opinion are teachers facing challenges in the implementation of the revised curriculum?

- When the curriculum was put in place, there were no books and other materials.
- Teacher resist change
- The choice of books and the entire book policy is not well understood by the teachers. While a subject may have six books approved for use, teachers may not have the expertise to make the best choice.

- Teacher pupil ratio is low due to freezing of employment of teachers and the influx of children who were out of school before FPE.
- Some of the subjects that were changed like social studies, science are not well understood.
- Some of the subjects that were changed like social studies and science are not well understood. Emerging issues such as HIV/Aids. Child labour, child rights are not well articulated by teachers. They tend to look at these issues in isolation. It is a question of methodology not well understood (integration and infusion).

Q. How can these challenges be addressed?

- Comprehensive in service courses should be mounted at the school, zone and detract levels. They should be organized from the head office and in conjunction with TAC tutors.
- Use of TAC tutors as QASOs should be stopped. TACs have been converted to QASOs; this moves them from their advisory role to the assessors and administrators. They are not mandated to supervise, they cannot write reports but due to shortage of QASOs they carry out those duties, write reports and the QASO signs. This is not procedural but we have no choice. Only QASOs have the red card allowing them to enter and supervise any institution for purposes of supervision (Inspection).

## **9. Supervisors' Challenges**

Q. Which would you say are the major challenges you face in overseeing the implementation of the curriculum?

- Work load is too much due to understaffing; sometimes we are expected to be in TSC, KIE and KNEC.
- Usually tasks unrelated to our core tasks take up a lot of time for example speech writing. We are unable to follow our work plan.
- We lack office equipment and facilities.
- Lack of harmonized report writing format.

## **11. Other comment?**

I have said it all.

## **APPENDIX 14: INTERVIEW WITH SUPERVISOR 6 (SI 6)**

### **Profile**

Number of years as a QASO: 12

Teaching experience: 17

Level of teaching: primary school

Whether trained on appointment as a QASO: YES

### **1. Policy**

Q. In your work as a QASO, what guides you? The guiding tools are the Inspectors Handbook for Inspecting Education Institutions, Q. Any other? That is the major. We also have a schedule of duties but the greatest problem is shortage of staff. For example I am in charge of primary programmes and any other duty assigned by the DEO. Sometimes the any other duty becomes the major at the expense of the core functions. When it comes to primary programmes, they are so many. Even early education, special need education, I have to attend to all this but the shortage so staff has made it a bit hard for me. The numbers of officers I have in the field are very few. The TAC tutors are also doubling as QASOS. I would like to have seminars for teachers at the zone level but it becomes impossible due to this shortage, how ever I must make sure the schools have been assessed.

Q. Let me ask about this term assessment because it keeps coming up in or discussion? When you talk of Assessment, what exactly do you mean?

Ok, previously there was the word inspection used since the colonial times. Just like the police inspector, when you inspect you are not very friendly, the word was changed to create a friendly atmosphere. You see when you assess; you also share and learn from the teachers in a friendly. I don't know if you ever met the inspectors during those days. They could enter a school and the teachers run away.

### **2. Supervisory Visits**

Q. How often do you make supervisory visits?

When you make a supervisory to visit a school, what exactly happens? According to the policy, you can give or not give a notice. There are times when it is necessary to give a notice and not to give. The reason for this is why the visit is being made. You may want to find out how whether teachers get late, the issue of absenteeism, how they change over from one lesson to the other, do they waste time. If that was the purpose of the visit, giving a notice will not yield anything. Whatever you observe may be stage managed. Laughter.....everything has its advantages and disadvantages. When you give a notice the teachers prepare and hence the pupils get the best.

Q. When you visit the school with or without notice, what exactly happens when you get to these schools, what activities you carry out?

First we report to the head teacher but as we report the inspection has already started. There are certain things that I expect even as I go the head teachers office, like how is the arrival of the teachers, the discipline. You know that one you observe as you enter the school. After going to the head teacher, you check the teaching document,

teaching methodology, records; we also assess the head teacher, his/her office. We also check the managerial skills for the head teacher. The school committees' meetings minutes, record keeping, the relationship between the head teacher and the teachers, the school community relations, we talk to the community members, the physical facilities in the schools. Are they conducive for learning, gender balance, enrolment and the staffing?

Q. Let me go back to the teaching documents, what exactly do you look for? Answer: For the teaching documents, teacher preparation, the lesson notes, schemes of work CATs records, pupils books, are they given adequate work? We also look at the canters of interest especially in lower primary such as science corners.

Q. Are there times that you visit the school for purposes of supervising curriculum implementation only?

Sometimes we do, especially when we notice a weakness in a particular subject. The officer in charge of a zone may tell us to visit the school to certain what exactly the problem is. Although that one we may focus on the head teacher. The supervision of the curriculum implementation at the school level is very important; some teachers may not be delivering due to lack of supervision.

Q. During such a visit, do you do class observation? Yes we do.

Q. Before the class observation, do you discuss with the teacher what you are going to observe?

No, we simply walk to class, sit at the back or front or the corner. Observe the lesson and make notes. Since you had not gone purely for fault finding you note where the teacher has done well and where mistakes are done. After the lesson we sit down with the teacher, go through what was observed, and discuss it and ways of improving.

Q. What happens there after? Do you write reports, and if you do where do these reports go? One of the reports is left in the school for the teacher to read. After the teacher reads, they give it to the head teacher files it in the inspection file. When we visit a school that is the first file we ask for. Why? To see whether what was pointed out in the previous inspections has been addressed. The other copy of the report goes to the district and zone office. None goes to the head office? No, for primary we don't. What we usually have for the headquarter, after all the assessments have been done in a zone, we write what we call a composite report, detailing all the schools that we have inspected within that term in zone and division, then we talk about observations and recommendations.

Q. Ones you give recommendations, who follows them up to see whether they have been adhered to?

The recommendations are supposed to be taken over by the DEO or the zone office. Like when we talk of lack of lesson preparation, you see it is the zone officer to advice the teachers and supervise the implementation of the same. The others are by the school committee and they are all indicated in the report, who is to take action and by whom.

### **3. Change from Inspectorate to DQAS**

Q. Before 2003 you are an inspector, now you are QASO, when this changed, was there any training done?

Even before the word inspector was done away with, the issue of approach was of concern. How to approach the schools in a friendly way. This was done through meetings, seminars at various levels.

Q. Have you noticed any change in the teachers' attitude towards QASOs? Answer:

Yes there is a change but also depends on individuals officers, whether they are ready to change. The question each Quality assurance officer is supposed to ask themselves is when they visit a school, do they leave it better or worse. If you need to leave it better, may be what you proposed, may be in preparation you expect the teachers to discuss it and improve. If you are going to leave it worse, you are better off not going at all. When I was a zone inspector, I had one zone that was always last. I used the friendly approach; used teachers to come up with solutions to the problem, by the time I left the zone had started to improve.

### **4. Supervisory Skills**

Q. What skills in your opinion are necessary to make a QASO effective in supervision of instruction?

The QASOs need more exposure, exchange programmes in and outside the country. This will help them pick best practices that they can use in their districts. The other is report writing. The world is changing. The way reports are written has changed. QASOs need to keep the pace with the changing trends.

The schools have also changed and therefore the approach must be different. The assessment criteria have changed. For example due to the emphasis on safety measures in schools, the way buildings are built has changed, like doors opening from outside, it was not like that some years back. Security and safety measures, although they were there, the emphasis was not as it is today. The skill that is very necessary is to induct the supervisors and teacher advisors such as TAC tutors to effectively interpret the curriculum. Since not everybody can take part in the development. It is important to induct all involved in its implementation.

### **5. Curriculum Development**

Q. When the revised primary education curriculum was introduced, were you inducted on it?

No I was not. There was an attempt but I can not call it an induction. We were only informed about the changes in subjects. Those that had been dropped added but it was not given enough time to get on the interpretation of the curriculum.

Q. When the curriculum was introduced in schools, what were you expected to do as a QASO? Answer: One of the things after the introduction of the curriculum, several seminars were held at the zone level to induct the teachers on the curriculum. All teachers were targeted.

## **6. Teacher Preparation**

Q. In your opinion, was this induction adequate to enable teachers implement the curriculum effectively?

Yes but we still need to reinforce it. After each assessment, the TAC tutor is supposed to go through those reports, establish where the weaknesses are, TAC is then supposed to go to that school and advice what is expected.

Q. So the TAC acts on your reports? Sometimes is the other way round. A TAC might go to a school; notice there is a problem, report to the ZQASO so that the school can be assessed. You see the role of the TAC tutor is only advisory. When the ZQASO comes in, since they do also administrative work, their report has more weight since it has even the legal backing of the education Act.

Q. Do you feel this arrangement works? If it was not for the shortage of the staff and it is all over the country, as I said earlier, it could work, but now when one person wears two hats, that of an assessor and advisor, then there is a problem. A TAC goes to a school to inspect but their work has no legal backing.

## **7. Teachers' Challenges**

Q. In your opinion, are teachers' experiencing any challenges in the implementation of the curriculum? The only thing currently is the shortage of staff. It has become an excuse. Every time you go a school and you find the teacher having not covered the syllabus, they always say they have too much work. Although in some schools the shortage is serious.

Currently, the syllabuses are not adequate and it seems that extra copies cannot be attained; one copy in a school is not enough. That is why you find teachers scheming using textbooks instead of the syllabus. We also have different course books in different schools especially where the teacher are using textbooks to scheme. Some teachers have never consulted the syllabus but have schemes.

### **1. Other comments**

1. There was no formal training on supervision of instruction. Although i attended several induction seminars at KESI. The seminars prepared me for the role but the exposure was not enough. Several issues that can be improved.
  - a) Improvement of the supervisory tools
  - b) Exchange program with countries that have done well in supervision of curriculum implementation.
  - c) Other skills that need to be improved are :report writing, keeping up to date with the changing trends in education e.g., changing face of the schools, how top deal with security measures, increased democracy
2. Supervisors should be taken through the curriculum through before it is implemented. This will enable them assist teachers in its implementation. In this curriculum they were never inducted on the same. The TAC tutors too should be taken through the curriculum since they play an important role in the guiding teachers in the implementation.

## **APPENDIX 15: INTERVIEW 7 (ID)**

### **1. Policy**

Q. What guides the directorate? The directorate is guided t by the Education Act. This is where the directorate gets its powers from. All other documents are based on the Act. The handbook the main tool that QASOs use is guided by the education Act.

### **2. Policy, Practice and Skills**

Q. Comment on the policy and what happens in practice. Policies are there, but sometimes it is not possible to implement them. We face challenges that sometimes put handles in the implementation.

**Directorate's Motto:** 'The race against Quality has no finishing line'

**Vision:** "To Provide Quality Assurance and Standards Assessment Feedback to all Stake holders on all Educational and Training Institutions'

**Mission:** 'To Establish, Maintain and Improve Educational Training and Standards''.

Q. What skills does one need to become QASO? They should have a B.Ed and have taught for five years. The other qualifications pick from the handbook.

Q. Any training for their role?

Induction: To make the officers compliance with the current thinking, the officers are inducted at the national, provincial and district levels. New officers are inducted. Courses are mounted as need arises. It usually takes the form of workshop for one week.

Q. What are the main functions of the directorate? Quality assessment.

Q. What are the priorities of the directorate? Quality assessment is our priority. However, in my own opinion, I feel KIE should take the lead in preparing teachers for curriculum implementation. They are the best placed. Though we work together in subject panels, their main duty is curriculum development. They therefore understand the curriculum better than anybody else. Who should therefore prepare and support teachers in curriculum implementation?

### **3. Teacher Preparation**

Q. Let's now talk about preparation of teachers for implementation of the revised curriculum. What are your comments on this? This was not well done. What was done was not enough to enable teachers implement the curriculum effectively. Time was too short and numbers that were being trained were too many. Programmes were developed so that those teachers who were trained could train others but this did not work. It was well meant but not well executed. The national training that was done was not enough to induct teachers on the new curriculum. The cascade system did not work as planned. Teachers are implementing a curriculum they last understand. The attitude of teachers is negative; passing exams is their number on priority. Teachers are demoralized; they do not take their jobs seriously.

Q. Are the teachers able to connect the national goals of education with what they teach in class? Teachers are more interested in the content. When you go out to schools, find out how many teachers use the syllabus to plan their work. They do not even know that these goals are there. Some will not even look at the subject objectives. There is a lot of pressure in passing examinations. This makes the teachers concentrate only on the content. This is unfortunate since the content is supposed to be reflected by the objectives.

#### **4. Change from Inspectorate to DQAS**

Q. Comment on the change of name from inspectors to Quality Assurance and Standards officers. Initially we were seen as fault finders. We needed to change this. There was need to change the officers' attitude and our stakeholders too. We have moved to sharing more with teachers. Q. Were the officers trained for this change? They are being inducted on the job.

We have home grown professional development programmes. KESI handles the in servicing of the officers as need arises. There is an on going management course. There is disconnection between IN-SET and DQAS. This also notable even in other departments. DQAS basically reports action is taken by other people. This is a limiting factor. We do not go back to check if the recommendations are followed. In order to execute its duties effectively, DQAS needs to be autonomous. It should be able to check the standards of other departments. It also needs to network with other departments. These are KIE, TSC, KNEC and KESI. We lost it when each one of us started pulling to our own corners. We all need each other. Though doing different things, our goal is the same.

##### **1. Supervisors' Challenges**

Look at my office; does it have furniture that befits a deputy director? We lack office equipment, computers to facilitate in production of reports. Our fuel allocation has been reduced. These challenges can be addressed if the directorate becomes autonomous. Directorate of Personnel Management is working towards autonomy.

##### **2. Recommendation**

DQAS should become autonomous; KIE should be strengthened to and expanded to take up teacher preparation for curriculum implementation. An autonomous DQAS should assess standards and quality, then give the feedback to KIE who should be able to take action especially subject based in servicing. Every subject in the curriculum has an officer based at KIE. These officers can mobilize QASOs play too many roles. Subject officers at the Ministry's head office handle the subject at all levels while KIE officers specialize on one level. There are 43 officers in the head office. We are trying to reduce the workforce at the head office and have more at the other level since this is where most of the work is. We are trying to create a pyramid with a wide base and a lean top



## **APPENDIX 16: Notes on the Third Phase of the Data Collection: Circulars and Reports (FN)**

After going through the questionnaires for teachers, head teachers and Zone Quality Assurance Officers, I felt there was need to do some checking in schools and the district education office.

The QASOs indicated they visited schools for supervisory visits, observed teachers and issued supervisory reports or what they prefer to call '*inspection reports*'. They also indicated that they relied on circulars that guided in the implementation of the curriculum. The questions I needed to answer were:

1. Were there inspection reports in schools?
2. Was there evidence in the schools of these supervisory visits?
3. If the reports were available, what information was contained in these reports?
4. How useful was the information to the teachers?
5. What circulars were available in the district office and in schools?

In order to answer these questions, I visited the district office and schools to get information from the relevant documents. In the district office I peruse the communication files and inspection files. In schools I went through the inspection files, visitors' books and any other documents relevant documents.

I chose five schools, a school in each division. The schools were purposefully selected. As I went to schools distributing questionnaires there are those schools that seemed to be organized. Those that had a signs of order in all parts of the school, the head teachers' office, deputy head teachers', senior teacher offices and staffrooms. These schools also happened to be the ones where the head teachers and teachers were very cooperative. These were the school where I was likely to be allowed to peruse files and other documents. These are the schools I chose to visit for the third phase of data collection. I was not disappointed. In all the schools, all the documents I needed were put at my disposal.

### **School 'A'**

I visited the school on the morning of 14<sup>th</sup> Nov 2006. I explained to the head teacher that I need to see the files that contained circulars and inspection reports.

#### **Circulars**

She first produced a file that contained circulars from the ministry. On the perusing the file, the only circulars were from Teachers Service Commission (TSC). The circulars about teachers' promotions and other issues related to their employment. The only circular that was related to curriculum implementation was a time table for schools broadcast from Kenya Institute of Education (KIE). This circular was issued in 2004. It was therefore dated. No current timetable was available.

#### **Inspection Reports**

The head teacher was three years old in the school. During the handover she never got any file that had any inspection reports. For the three years she has been in the

school, there has been only one supervisory visit in the school. No report was left in the school. On asking her what activities were carried out during that visit, she indicated that the teachers were asked to hand in their schemes of work, lesson plans, lesson notes and pupils progress records. The officers sat in the head teacher's office. After perusing through the documents, each teacher was called in the office to get a feedback.

**Question: was any report left in the school?** The officer indicated that they were not supposed to leave any report in the school. **Why? To use his words, the teachers may not be happy about it.** The report usually made teachers demoralized and may not be able to teach for sometime after the visit. There was no evidence of any other report in the file. The head teacher indicated that the officers preferred to give verbal reports.

The head teacher indicated she would prefer a situation where a written report is given. It would help me follow up the recommendations of the officers.

While the head teacher is expected to follow up the recommendations of the officers though not written, it is not usually possible. The head teacher is overworked. She/he is a teacher, manager, accountant and supervisor all in one. With the introduction of FPE, a lot of energy is going into record keeping. The focus of both the QASOs and head teachers is on FPE management especially of funds.

The head teacher is mixed up. Producing good results and keeping good records. We spend so much time keeping records at the expense of curriculum implementation. Don't forget I teach like every other teacher in the school. My school has eight classes and eight teachers, me included. This means that anytime I am in the office either attending to the visitor or keeping accounts, there is a class that has no teacher. Sometimes we have to carry work home. Other times we argue that if a child fails you cannot be sacked but if your accounts are not well kept, you are likely to be sacked. If you were a head teacher, where would you put your energy? Of course, in protecting one's job. This done at the expense of classroom work which should be the core function of the school"

## **School 'B'**

**Question: How often do you get supervisory visits?** Let me say when a school is seen to be doing well, it is assumed that all is well. A school like ours has been on upward improvement trend. We therefore do not get supervised often; it takes a lot of time before a ZQASO comes by for purposes of supervision. When eventually we get supervised, follow up is not effectively done. Visits are too far apart. However the school managers, that is the head teacher, deputy head teacher and senior teacher work towards improving on the weak areas that are pointed out in the report.

**Question: Do teachers get to see the report?** No. after the '*inspection*' the inspector meets with the teacher individually. They discuss the lesson that has been observed. After this, they meet the teachers in a panel. Their observations are discussed and teachers can respond and give a feedback. A report is supposed to be left in school so that the school management can act on it.

**Question: How do you rate the importance of their visit?** ‘Their coming is very important to the school. They are likely notice things that insiders (Managers have not noticed)

On perusing the ‘*Inspection File*’, there was a report of a supervisory visit on 8<sup>th</sup> June 2004, 18<sup>th</sup> July 2005, 21<sup>st</sup> September 2006, there was none in 2003 when the curriculum was put in place. The last one before then was on 19<sup>th</sup> June 2002.

The main areas that the reports focus on are:

- General school environment. This includes the cleanliness, motto and vision, state and adequacy of the physical facilities.
- Administrative records
- Professional records, schemes of work, lesson plans and notes, pupils progress records teaching/learning aids and class registers. How these records are kept and whether they are checked by the head teacher, if teachers have marked pupils’ books are verified.
- Availability of legal and policy documents. These are TSC Code of Regulations, code of Ethics etc.
- School time table. Whether following the recommended format and time.
- Presence and activity of subject panels in the school.

Some of the comments I found in the three reports that I perused were;

1. ‘Teachers are not following the correct format’. Question: What is the correct format? It is difficult to tell, however some publishers have provided schemes in their books (teachers guide). ‘They should include all the columns’ the question I asked is what are the recommended columns but did not get a definite answer.

The head teacher explained that teachers are expected of them. However, frequent in-service is needed. He also suggested ‘the ministry should provide common schemes of work in each subject’ How will this help? ‘It will keep teachers on their feet. It will also ensure standard implementation. In this case assessment of teachers’ coverage of the syllabus will be standard. The alternative that we practice in this school is teachers teaching the same subject in a school get together and make a common scheme of work’.

2. ‘Teaching/learning aids were lacking or inadequate.’

3. ‘Subject panels are not active.’ Head teachers comment: ‘Panels are very helpful.

We used to meet three times a week to sort out issues that may be affecting the performance in a subject. However we don’t have any guidelines on how to establish and run the subject panels.

Some of the comments that were made by the supervisors were;

- Master time table available
- Professional records available in some classes
- Checking of professional done by the head teacher.
- Progress records for pupils available in lower but not upper primary.
- Pupils work checked though not in all classes
- Syllabus coverage good
- Examination trend good

Others-:

- Classrooms
- Toilets

- Compound
- Water
- FPE, though in our school we are focusing on curriculum than the administration of FPE. The main question we are asking is how many children are taking to secondary school, if we have a drop why? **Question: Why do you think there is a lot of focus FPE?**

Before FPE many school had problems, for example physical infrastructure and staffing. The head teachers are excited about administering money and solving the problems.

**Question: How are head teachers managing?** The head teacher has fewer lessons than other teachers but this does not happen in all schools (15 per week).

In this particular report the head teacher was advised to step up internal supervision. Internally we have tried to address all the issues that were raised in the report.

Honesty I head teachers are making a lot of deal out of nothing, if one keeps their daily records well, then I think all should be well.”

*Zone inspectors do the class supervision but no reports are given.*

## **Circulars**

Between 2003 -2006 November there was only one circular that was curriculum related. “Circulars are very rare”

Those that were filed in a school that looked like they had a good filing system were mainly on FPE. These were:

- Guidelines on implementation of FPE
- A sample time table
- Utilization of resources, physical and human
- One announcing an in service training workshop to enable them handle extra number of children and those with special needs.
- There were also materials on School empowerment program for primary school heads. Materials are in print and audio cassettes. (professional development).

## **School ‘C’**

In this school a communications file of the period between 2003 and 2006 was studied.

According to the head teacher there were two major inspections by the district team. 15<sup>th</sup> July 2005, they were visited by the district team.

## **The Report**

The report of this particular inspection contained the following information:

- History of the school in brief.
- Profile of the school management, the head teacher, deputy head. It details their qualifications and how long they have been in the school.
- School Management Committee (SMC), its performance and availability of minutes of its meetings, PTA

- Discipline file
- FPE files
- Administrative records
- Class registers
- School logbook and visitors book.
- Master timetable
- Legal and policy documents

On curriculum Organization, it contained the following:

- Teaching policy (Expectation of the teacher to teach any subject in any class)
- Testing policy (Externally and internally examined subjects)
- Text book Policy( Procurement procedure)
- Presence of subject panels. The comment was that documentation was well done.
- Availability of syllabuses, schemes of work, records of work, lesson plans, CATs and pupils progress records. The comment was, though the records were kept, it was not consistent. The teachers were not following the recommended format.

### **Lesson Observation**

The main components of the lesson observation are:

- Preparation. Comment was; schemes of work, lesson plans were in place,
- Objectives were measurable and achievable
- Teaching / learning resources- not used

### **Lesson Presentation**

Comments like;

1. Pupils were involved but not adequately
2. Class management was good
3. Teacher well behaved and dressed
4. Pupils books were marked, however coverage was not adequate (*coverage of what not defined*).
5. Pupils term progress records were well kept, there is need to record the continuous assessment tests.
6. Should add conclusions in the lesson plan.

### **Individual Teacher's Lesson Observation Record**

#### **Class 8: Mathematics**

- Time of the lesson
- Preparation: schemes of work available but does not have the recommended columns
- Lesson plan available ; keep it up
- CATs were lacking

### **Lesson presentation**

- Introduction was good.
- Objectives should be specific Good examples but not practical
- Pupils' books marked but encourage prompt corrections.
- Coverage good
- Teaching aids lacking

Recommendation: Improve on all areas.

### **Class 3: Science**

- Date and time of observation
- Preparation: schemes of work- some columns missing
- Remarks column not utilized.
- Lesson plans available but not dated.
- Objectives of the lesson not spelt out
- Teachers and pupils activities lacking
- Lesson delivery ok but does not involve pupils fully
- Lesson should be more practical.
- Teaching aids used but were not clear.
- Summary notes available though not regular. Should encourage pupils to take notes and draw good diagrams.

### **Class 7: English**

- Time of the lesson observation
- Good record keeping but progress records missing
- 

#### **Lesson presentation**

- Linkage with previous lesson
- Pupils activities spelt out
- Teacher had good knowledge of the topic
- Relationship with pupils was cordial.
- Teaching aids missing
- Book ratio 1:2

### **Class 5: Kiswahili**

#### **Comments**

- Time
- Introduction recall
- Lesson plans not available
- Teaching aids few
- CATs available, some not checked
- Work coverage below average
- Let pupils use exercise books well

## **Class 2: CRE**

- Introduction
- Schemes of work available and checked
- Blocking of lessons noted
- Lesson plans not available
- Teaching aids few but centres of interest lacking
- Pupils well involved
- Registers available
- Records of CATs available.

(Head teacher's verbal comment)

After the inspection, the inspector meets with all the teachers and a general report is shared with all the teachers. Also holds a meeting with head teacher to discuss the findings for purposes of follow up. In most cases the head teacher does most of the follow up.

## **Circulars**

2003- January and April- two circulars on guidelines on implementation of FPE. Audit guide lines of the same. 3 circulars. one on an in service training that was going to take place.

2004 – 2006

There was a circular from KIE in radio broadcast to schools.

Most of the other circulars are from Teachers' Service Commission.

(Head teacher's verbal comment)

The ministry seems to put a lot of emphasis on FPE. We have to send monthly trial balances, not forgetting we are not trained in financial management and we have to teach just like all other teachers.

## **School 'D'**

Not much was available. The head teacher was new in the school. In 2003 – 2006, the filling system was not very good. There were 4 inspections. They talk of the strengths and weaknesses, schemes of work.

Follow up is usually done by the head teacher.

## **School 'E'**

Between 2003 and 2006 there have been 3 supervisions that were curriculum based. On report on 22/10 03 had he following;

- Assessing the quality of school development.
- Management of curriculum, this had a scale of 4 – 1. 4= very good, 3= good, 2 = average, 1 = poor
- The report commented on inclusion of emerging issues, guidance and counselling, curriculum delivery, supervision of delivery by head teacher and subject panels.
- It also compared the current supervision with the previous.

The follow up is usually by head teacher but occasionally from the office.

### **Class Observation Report**

Schemes of work: available but not for all subjects.

Lesson Plans: Not available though the teacher conducted the lesson well.

Teaching/learning activities: well conducted.

Lesson presentation: good connection with previous lesson.

Pupils' written work: Not marked regularly

Pupils' Progress Records: not available.

Class Register: available

### **Circulars.**

None were available

### **District Education Office – Circulars 2003 -2006**

I referred to Ref. A/2/1A/Vol.11/47: 12<sup>th</sup> May 2004 – 30<sup>th</sup> October 2006

18<sup>th</sup> March 2005 – A School's inspection report from the district to head office. It details the mission and vision of the school. Covers curriculum organization – the revised curriculum was being implemented in 1-3 but class was on the old curriculum. This was two years after the curriculum had been put in place. *There was an anomaly that could have been rectified had the supervision been done earlier.*

Testing and text book policy and book ratio, availability of syllabuses, integration of emerging issues and teaching of non examinable subjects.

16<sup>th</sup> August 2005 - from the director acknowledging receipt of monthly reports.

These were: Composite reports per zone/ division, school infrastructure and In- Set activities.

Aimed at enhancing quality and set targets.

28<sup>th</sup> June 2004 – Inspection report

15<sup>th</sup> October – Number of bikes in the district

30<sup>th</sup> March 2005 – From Jogoo (MOE Head office), on Inspection of private schools

16<sup>th</sup> August 2005 – From District QASO to Jogoo. A Primary schools' inspection report.

2<sup>nd</sup> September 2005 - School registration. From district to head office.

7<sup>th</sup> September 2005 Inspection of secondary schools.

27<sup>th</sup> Oct. 2005 Annual report

14<sup>th</sup> Nov 2005 Urgent meeting for DQASOs. Sent from PDEs office

### **2006**

14<sup>th</sup> February 2006 Standard Assessment report (Primary) from Thika district to Jogoo.

A circular on courses and seminars for School based Teacher development (SbTD),  
Monthly inspection reports.



Comment from DQASO Thika - In primary schools we usually go for curriculum inspection.

A school report covers the following areas

- Preamble that covers the history of the school.  
- Head ship and Management, deputy head, SMC, fees, school administration, record keeping. The records are-;

- Registers – admission and attendance.
- Progress records
- Log book
- Visitors book
- Legal and policy documents
- TSC code of regulations
- Education act
- Syllabus
- KNEC regulations
- Children’s Act.

### **Discussion District Quality Assurance Officer – Issues Clarified**

Why understaffing – job no longer attractive, frequent transfers. In five years, I have worked in three provinces and 5 districts.

Subject Officers – an establishment in the district office but we have non in post.

They are supposed to be 13. I have only 5 in post who handle everything.

Red card – they used to be there. Only the old officers have them

What exactly do mean when you talk of assessment?

Assessment for curriculum delivery, advising, guiding, show the teachers how.

Follow up?

A report is left in school, shows the strengths and weaknesses and recommendations.

Guidance and counselling is done by TAC tutors. Where the case is extreme, there is a district guidance team.

Division QASO died due to shortage.

