Supervision of Instructional Programmes for Improving Students’ Performance in Secondary Schools in Tanzania

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Abstract
This paper explores leadership practices in supervising instructional programmes for improving students’ performance in secondary schools. This study was conducted in four secondary schools with the two categories of best performing and worst performing schools in Morogoro Region, using a sample of fifty-nine respondents. The study used the qualitative approach. Data were collected through interviews, focus group discussion, documentary review and observation, and were later subjected to content analysis. The study findings revealed that the leaders of best-performing schools were able to manage instructional programmes through timely planning and monitoring students’ performance. The worst performing schools did not supervise teachers during classes nor did they have a way for holding teachers responsible for their performance. Teachers were rewarded according to the job well done, especially in how students performed in national examinations. The quality assurance office should concentrate on improving the instructional supervision of school heads and other leaders and create harmonious relationships to support schools in improving their performance. Similarly, the school leadership should be assisted in establishing and implementing a clear way for holding teachers and other staff responsible for their performance.

Key words: Accountability mechanisms, instructional leadership, school leadership, instructional supervision,

Introduction
The practice of supervising instructional programmes requires a leader to be in charge of all activities taking place in a school. The leader is supposed to monitor students’ progress and teachers’ performance, since those are the key determinants of better learning outcomes (Hallinger, 2003). Many studies on students’ performance indicate poor performance in most government secondary schools. Consequently, a number of reasons are given for why students fail, such as inadequate resources (books and equipment), the environment, teachers who are unmotivated and not committed to teaching, students’ lack of effort to learn and the like. However, even if teachers and students were to work hard at teaching and learning, it would not improve students’ performance if there were no strong leadership to supervise and manage all that is required for good performance. This paper is a result of research conducted to ascertain the extent to which heads of schools supervise instructional programmes in secondary schools. It is believed that the supervision by heads of schools of instruction or teaching and learning in schools is vital. Therefore, their role is to focus on teachers who also focus on helping students to learn (Hallinger, 2003).

Supervising instruction in school is a core activity of heads of schools. They ensure the effective use of learning time by planning academic programmes, effectively mobilising resources and providing assistance to teachers and other members of staff. Instructional leaders pay attention to instruction by setting curriculum goals and ensuring the deployment of resources to support teaching (Lashway, 2002). Quality education cannot be attained and sustained if good quality
resources and facilities are not available in sufficient quantity. Agu, Manda, & Tukai (2000) maintain that the head of school’s role is crucial for improving students’ performance because he/she has to ensure that the necessary resources, such as textbooks, paper, chalk and other teaching/learning materials, are available in the school. Moreover, teachers and personnel involved in education express the fact that textbooks provide quality education and that achievement in school subjects is linked to their availability (Neke, Mafu &Ndoloi, 2004). Thus, secondary school leaders are charged with the responsibility of supplying enough resources to their school to enable it to operate well, as well as monitoring lesson plans, managing instructional time and regularly evaluating teachers.

The management of instructional time is linked to schools' effectiveness and students’ improved learning. The amount of time students spend on tasks has been cited as an important element in their learning and classroom discipline (Zame, Hope &Repress, 2008). URT (2008) noted that in schools that perform well, teachers are properly supervised by their school heads, who are instructional leaders. These leaders ensure that everyone in the school is focused on attaining clearly prescribed objectives.

The role of supervising instruction is to assess and evaluate students’ progress. Evaluation is the means by which predetermined goals or objectives of an organisation are given a value judgment, while assessment is the process of gathering and discussing information from diverse sources to gain a deep understanding of what students will be able do with their knowledge as a result of their education. The results of this assessment are then used to improve students’ subsequent learning (Huba & Freed 2000). Discussion between leaders and their colleagues about evaluation and assessment data has a vital role in improving the quality of teaching and learning. Mosha (2006: 214) asserts that “monitoring and evaluation are done to assess whether organisational improvements are occurring and to oversee compliance with directives.” Therefore, educational leaders act as educational auditors, whose function is to verify teaching and learning outcomes in order to provide a corrective mechanism. For quality control, Hoy and Miskel (2008) argue that the number of tests given, evaluation of teaching and the use of instructional technologies are some of quality control procedures needed to improve performance. Similarly, Agu, Manda and Tukai (2000) explain that the quality of education can be improved through conducting a curriculum audit. They further argue that issues that would improve students’ performance should be evaluated, such as having a curriculum that relates what needs to be taught and learnt, teachers’ planning, the quality of learning materials and teachers’ professional development. Assessments/evaluations are ascribed an active role in which they are consciously used in educational process to change teachers’ behaviour and classroom instruction, which, in turn, are expected to raise students’ learning standards (Kellaghan & Greaney, 2001).

Furthermore, instructional supervision is viewed as an “action that enables teachers to improve the quality of the instruction given to students” (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001, p.10). In Tanzania and in most other developing countries, school quality assurance is perceived to be vital for monitoring the delivery of quality education, adhering to the stipulated curricula, setting standards and for ensuring efficiency and quality education. Unfortunately, having this perception does not guarantee the quality of teaching and teachers’ improved performance.

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5Curriculum audit is a process of evaluating management policies and procedures used to support the curriculum; such an evaluation can become a quality control mechanism.

6Instructional supervision is similarly defined by Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002:6) as “helping increase the opportunity and capacity of teachers and the school to contribute more effectively to students’ academic success.”
Studies on schools' effectiveness indicate that variables, which affect students’ achievements, can be controlled by the leadership and staff, but not by quality assurers. Thus, the quality assurance office needs to find more positive ways of ensuring control using the coaching and monitoring approach, not as it used to be.

In his study in Botswana, Moswela (2010) observed that the environment in which teaching and learning supervision was conducted in schools was rather hostile and intimidating to teachers, and so it failed to produce any meaningful improvement in teaching standards. He further observed that for instructional supervision to fully benefit schools, it needs restructuring so that teachers and school leaders play a more meaningful and effective role. Therefore, it is imperative for the Quality Assurance Department in Tanzania to concentrate on improving the teaching and instructional supervision skills of teachers and school leaders to enable them to facilitate the process in their respective schools. Other developing countries have made greater use of the clinical supervision model (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2001), which offers teachers the opportunity to be partners of experienced teachers when they conduct their lessons. The goal of clinical supervision is to engage teachers in a process that will assist them in further developing and strengthening their instructional skills. Unfortunately, in Tanzania, controlling the quality of teaching, especially by observing colleagues’ work in the classroom, is seen as a challenge to professional norms and confidentiality. Heads of schools are responsible for overseeing curriculum implementation, which requires them to conduct instructional supervision in their school.

Instructional leadership can come from a variety of sources, including heads of schools and their administrators, teachers, parents and the students themselves (Harris, 2005; Hoy & Miskel, 2008). Instructional leaders challenge staff members to examine the traditional assumptions of teaching to help provide opportunities for them to share information and work together to plan curriculum instruction. However, the way for holding people responsible must be facilitated. Mosha (2006), talking about responsibility insists that accountability and responsibility make sense when every stakeholder is given unrestricted access to information about the performance of a given educational institution. This means that when members are aware of the set standards, it is easy for a leader to hold them accountable for failing to meet them. Wong and Nicotera (2007) maintain that educational leaders are critical for facilitating accountability, and that they must know about the standards to be met in order to meet them. Similarly, being aware of set standards can help stakeholders do a good job for which they should be recognised as a way of motivating them.

Insisting on recognition and motivation, Kemmerer (1990) refers to recognition as communication between the school leadership and employee in arousing, directing and sustaining behaviour. Recognition is also central to teachers’ perception of competence and motivation to work (Kelchtermans, Ballet, & Piot, 2009), which can be a result of monetary incentives that may include an improved salary, allowances and fringe benefits, as well as non-monetary offers like training opportunities, training materials, transfer or public recognition. Similarly, if teachers believe that they are not recognised, and there are few incentives, they will not be motivated, and they may wonder whether engaging in certain activities is relevant when no-one appears to care about them. Recognition, according to Luthans (1998), is one of the most effective incentives for improving performance. He adds that recognising self-motivated, self-managing and highly productive individuals will encourage continued development of their abilities. Recognition is a very effective motivator, and so teachers should be empowered in their area of operations, as well as being recognised and motivated by leaders at all levels for the productive results they bring to the school.
The heads of schools’ leadership is instrumental in providing an explanation for the school’s effectiveness. School leaders are meant to focus on teachers’ behaviour as they engage their students in learning activities. In line with this, Alig-Mielcarec and Hoy (2004), suggested that the instructional leadership behaviour of school heads influences the situation of the academic press, which, in turn, is directly related to students’ achievement. The study by Brytone (2017) in Newala District on the causes of students’ poor performance found out that they were due to the shortage of teaching and learning materials and physical facilities, lack of readiness of students to learn, poor entry marks in form one and three, the lack of parental involvement in the education of their children and the unclear education policy. Similarly, the study by David (2014) on reactions to students’ poor performance in Sumbawanga found that parents’ low income, the shortage of laboratories and the long walking distance to schools had a significant influence on the poor academic performance of students at p < 0.05. Other factors that were found to influence poor academic performance were lack of English language competence, inadequate teaching and learning materials, insufficient teachers and the absence of libraries. The research done on students’ performance ignored the role of leadership in improving students’ performance in school. It must be noted that the availability of the above mentioned factors alone cannot improve students’ performance if there is no strong leadership to supervise and manage all these aspects that are required for good performance. Thus this paper looks at the manner in which instructional programmes are supervised by the school leadership, and whether ways exist in schools for holding teachers and other staff accountable for their performance. The purpose of this study was to assess the manner in which instructional programmes are supervised, and to identify ways available in schools for holding teachers and other staff accountable for their performance. Specifically the study sought to answer the following questions:

Research question
1. How effective is instructional planning and the mobilization of resources for teaching and learning?
2. What kind of practices do heads of school have for supervising and assessing teachers and students?
3. What ways are available for holding teachers and other staff accountable for their performance?

Methodology
This study utilized the qualitative approach, which was chosen because it was appropriate for studying the problem and objectives and establishing the conceptual framework to guide the study. The qualitative research approach provided the researcher with the opportunity to conduct exploratory and descriptive research that used the contextual setting to gain a deeper understanding of the persons to be studied (Best & Kahn, 2006). Secondly, the qualitative research approach was chosen because it seeks to gain an understanding of the complex nature of phenomena and so it allowed the researcher to study things and issues in their natural setting in an attempt to make sense of and interpret phenomena in terms of the meaning people bring to them (Danzin & Lincoln, 1998). In this case, the study used the interpretive paradigm; interpretive research is fundamentally concerned with meaning and seeks to find out how members of society define a situation (Schwandt, 1999: 118). The researcher explored perspectives and shared meanings so as to gain insights into a specific context. The data are qualitative in nature, based on fieldwork notes and transcripts of conversations/interviews. The study used the case study design. This is “an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon and contexts that are not clearly evident” (Yin, 2003:14). This definition emphasizes a key characteristic of case study research and the importance of the
context. The study used the comparative case study strategy, which involves studying practices in their context and how school heads hinder or promote an improvement in schools and students’ performance. Keith (2006) points out that when research has been conceptualised as a case study focusing on interpreting meaning, it is clear that it will involve qualitative data. Similarly, Patton (2002) insists that the strategy helps gain an understanding of what people value and the meaning they attach to their experience from the cultural perspective as a major area for qualitative inquiry. The use of positive and negative marginal cases is necessary (Uprety, 2008). In this study, the best-performing schools and worst-performing schools were considered in investigating the supervision of instructional programmes in them by the school head.

As noted by Young (1988), case studies tend to have some limitations. First, the greater the rapport the more subjective the whole process will be. Second, the subject is more likely to be self-justifying than factual, and third, cases are seldom comparable in a pluralistic universe. This strategy was used with an understanding of all these limitations. To avoid subjectivity, the research assistants worked hand-in-hand with the researcher in each interview. The researcher documented all discussions during the interviews. In focus group discussions the researcher was the moderator and she jotted down some points where necessary, while the research assistants took notes and recorded the proceedings. However, the findings of this study were not intended for generalization, but the data and methodology used could be used to study another case with the same characteristics in the country.

The data were collected from various stakeholders who were selected purposively by virtue of their position (heads of schools, academic coordinator, chairperson of school board, zonal chief officer, quality assurance department). Teachers and students were selected randomly according to the number needed by the research taking gender into consideration. The study employed four types of data collection methods, namely documentary review, focus group discussion, semi-structured interviews and observation. This is because multiple cross-checking methods have a greater chance of yielding results of long lasting value.

The qualitative data were analysed using content analysis, which refers to reducing the data and making sense of the volume of material so as to identify core consistencies and meanings (Patton, 2002). The researcher reduced or organised the data from the transcripts by cutting and pasting the text to make it manageable so that she was less overwhelmed by it. This was done by reading through the text as indicated in data reduction mapping with the guidance of the research objectives and questions. Patton (2002:432) explains that analysis normally starts at the initial stages of data collection so that “the inquirer acts as a catalyst on raw data, generating an interaction that synthesizes new obstacles arising from the catalyst conversation”. Thus the data were analysed as they were collected to provide the opportunity for noting and correcting the weaknesses of methods and of the collected data. Data from documents and observation were reduced, categorised and summarised in order to make sense of them. Thereafter, the data were rearranged so that frequencies and percentages could be presented using quantitative techniques. This is in line with McMillan and Schumacher (1997), who state that most descriptions and interpretations are portrayed in words rather than numbers although numerical data may be used to elaborate findings identified in qualitative analysis. Thereafter, the reduced data was further analysed by carefully reviewing the transcribed interview texts, documented field notes and observations by describing them to disclose any other relevant materials. This is in agreement with Patton (2002:437), who maintains that, “thick, rich description provides the foundation for qualitative analysis. Good description takes the reader into the setting being
described.” Later on, the information was interpreted to give an insight into the problem studied. The results are presented according to the research objectives and questions.

Results and Discussion

Effective Planning of Instructional Programmes and Mobilization of Teaching and Learning Resources

To find out how school leaders effectively plan for instruction and how teaching and learning resources are mobilized, data were collected from various stakeholders (head of schools, chair of school board, chief quality assurance officer Eastern Zone, teachers and students). The results revealed that effective use of time at the beginning of each term, especially in preparing schemes of work and lesson plans, was ranked above average by both categories of schools (Table 3.1). This is due to the school leadership’s demand for good academic performance. The interviews with heads of schools and senior academic masters/mistresses revealed that they ensured that schemes of work and lesson plans were prepared at the beginning of each term and checked by them. Atherton (2005) argues that a scheme of work is a useful guideline, as it makes teaching of the subject more manageable and provides supporting information about planning and teaching a subject. It also contains important reference documents that support course delivery. Generally, planning in terms of schemes of work and lesson plans is important for students’ learning, but it needs to be complemented by close supervision in school to ensure its implementation.

Table 1: Effective Planning of Instruction Programmes and Resource Mobilization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School categories</th>
<th>Best-performing schools</th>
<th>Worst-performing schools</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Themes and Statements</td>
<td>MT N=4</td>
<td>T N=12</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Planning of Instruction Programmes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Use of time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Monitoring implementation of planned schemes of work, lesson plans and log-book</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ensuring resource mobilisation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Provision of teaching and learning materials</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Effective use of available Resources</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Planning for resource acquisition at departmental Level</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Following procurement Procedures</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key:** N = Number; MT=Management Team; T=Teachers; S= Students; ( ) percentages.

The findings further revealed that checking schemes of work and lesson plans was ranked differently by the two school categories. Whereas in the best-performing schools this practice was ranked above average, in the worst-performing schools it was ranked below average. Senior academic masters/mistresses in the best-performing schools reported that they regularly
checked the planning and implementation of teaching and learning. A physical check of schemes of work during fieldwork confirmed that schemes of work and lesson plans were well prepared. One head of school also said;

…we have a mechanism to ensure that teachers prepare schemes of work and lesson plans before the term begins as well as before they go to the classroom to teach. The academic office is well organised, with all documents being safely kept in files and easily accessible (Headmistress school A2)

This statement indicates that in the best-performing schools, the school management team ensured that teachers planned for effective teaching. These results concur with findings by Babyegeya (2002) who reported that in supervising instruction, respective heads of departments, academic coordinators and heads of schools assess teachers’ work records and documents that include schemes of work, lesson plans, subject logbooks, class journals and duty books. URT (2008) maintains that in good-performing schools, teachers are properly supervised by their school heads who are instructional leaders. These leaders ensure that everyone in the school is focused on attaining clearly prescribed objectives. Schemes of work and lesson plans are very important because they help teachers to be systematic, use time efficiently, and teach and evaluate effectively.

They also help teachers to know areas of strengths and weaknesses in their classes, which they highlight through comments they write in the remarks section. Frequent planning by teachers improves their ability to teach effectively. The senior academic master in School B1 confirmed this by saying,

Teachers do the planning; the role of the school management is to make sure that they do it promptly. My office ensures that all documents relating to planning are prepared and then submitted to my office. Lesson plans are submitted each Friday for evaluation of their quality and appropriateness.

This statement indicates commitment by the school management team. Contrary to the assertion above and to the positive findings in schools that performed well, the research findings show that the monitoring of teaching plans in the worst-performing schools was either weak or not done at all. Teachers reported that the school head did not insist on teachers preparing schemes of work and lesson plans. Even if a teacher decided to plan there was no monitoring of what was planned. Through documentary review the researcher discovered that there were no records or evidence that plans were in place. It is difficult to understand how students can perform well when teachers do not prepare their lessons and sometimes they do not even teach, and yet no measures are taken by the school leadership to remedy the situation. Failure of the school leadership (head teacher and senior academic master) to check teaching plans can be interpreted as lack of commitment to ensuring improved school performance.

Regarding effective mobilisation of teaching and learning materials, both categories of schools rated highly the mobilisation and provision of teaching and learning materials for teachers as evidence of good school leadership. For instance, the findings established that in the best-performing schools tremendous efforts were made to mobilise resources that supported teachers in their work, as testified by the head teacher of School B1:

As regards mobilisation of resources (chalk, lesson plan books, schemes of work sheets, logbooks, pens, manila paper, and other important teaching and learning materials), each department is supposed to prepare a list of its needs and submit it to the academic office. The school head receive lists during the staff meeting at the end of the term, after which they are sent to the store-keeper who has the responsibility of identifying the supplier and placing an order for what is needed. Because the school departments have no office,
the supplier delivers the ordered materials to the academic office, which is responsible for distributing them to heads of departments.

These results concur with Agu et al. (2000) who said that the school head’s role is crucial for improving quality, and so he or she has to ensure that necessary resources such as textbooks, paper, chalk and other teaching/learning materials are available in school. Textbooks are among the resources, which, if available in school and in the required quantity, can be used to enhance and facilitate effective teaching and learning in the classroom.

There were marked differences between the two categories of schools in ranking effective use of the available resources. The respondents in the best-performing schools rated it higher than those in the worst-performing schools. The school leadership in the best-performing schools followed approved procurement procedures in acquiring teaching and learning materials, and teachers appreciated the school leadership’s commitment to the timely acquisition of resources. On the other hand, this practice was rare in the worst-performing schools. The findings show that mobilisation of teaching and learning materials was poor due to the limited involvement of stakeholders in planning. This finding is in line with what URT (1993) observed that the inadequate supply of teaching and learning materials means that most practical courses remain hypothetical and have little relationship with classroom practices. Unless resources are sought, the whole process of providing quality education will be inefficient and ineffective.

**Practices for Supervising Effective Implementation of Instructional Programmes**

The researcher sought to find out whether school leaders supervised teachers during actual teaching. The findings from the study testified that the school leadership did frequent checks on schemes of work and lesson plans, as well as monitoring teaching and learning in the classroom. Instructional supervision according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002:6) is “helping increase the opportunity and capacity of teachers and school to contribute more effectively to students’ academic success.” These practices were ranked above average by both school categories (table 3.2).

The findings further showed the difference between the school categories in ranking the use of class journals and other attributes. Best-performing schools gave a higher ranking to the use of class journals, average ranking to students’ recommendations through suggestion box and setting aside a special day to talk to students, and below average to actual supervision in the classroom.

<table>
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<th>School categories</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Themes and Statements</td>
<td>MT N=4</td>
<td>T N=12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Use of class journals</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
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The respondents from this category of schools stated that teachers are asked to set teaching and learning targets, and students are given a chance through class journals and suggestion boxes to report what is going on during classes. In addition, head teachers allocate one day a term to talk to students to gather their views on the problems they face in the teaching and learning process. Although head teachers do not supervise teachers during classes, they have established strategies for monitoring teaching and learning processes. The findings show that the worst-performing schools lacked these practices.

As regards supervision, the teachers in both school categories said that head teachers rarely supervised actual teaching. Teachers at School B2 added,

The head of school has never supervised any of our classes; therefore we have not received any advice on how to improve our teaching. This applies also to the Zone quality assurance officers, as they have not done any supervision of teachers for six years now. We need frequent supervision because it helps us to improve our teaching.

The statement indicates that teachers would like to be supervised because they are eager to learn from their leaders. However, they cautioned that they would prefer to be informed beforehand about supervision visits rather than someone just deciding to walk into the classroom unannounced. These findings corroborate those of Beach and Reinhartz’s (2000) on mentoring, namely that mentors and their protégés can develop an amicable relationship as colleagues. Such a relationship can provide a relaxed and supportive environment where teachers’ freedom of expression is not restricted, but it enables them to psychologically prepare their students in advance for the presence of a third person (supervisor) in their class.

For instructional supervision to fully benefit schools, it needs restructuring so that teachers and school leaders play a more meaningful and effective role (Moswela, 2010). Concerning how supervision was conducted in schools, the school management team agreed that they were aware that it is their responsibility to supervise and monitor teaching and learning in their school, as the head of school A2 said;

…I have never done this and I admit that it is my responsibility but I do not supervise due to time constraints. I am a mathematics teacher, I teach Form One to Form Four due to the shortage of teachers, and I have many other responsibilities as well in the academic office, and so I have no time. Secondly, I also think teachers would feel uncomfortable being supervised, unless they are informed about how they would benefit from being supervised, something which is yet to be done…

This statement indicates that there is no supervision of actual teaching in classes. Although heads of school are responsible for overseeing curriculum implementation, this does not oblige them to conduct instructional supervision in their school. The lack of skills may contribute to this. URT (2010) acknowledges that due to the rapid increase in the number of secondary schools under the Secondary Education Development Programme (SEDP I), most heads of
schools lack leadership skills. Therefore, the Quality Assurances Department should concentrate on improving the teaching and instructional supervision skills of teachers and school leaders, respectively, so that they can effectively facilitate the process in their schools.

3.3. Ensuring Assessment of Instructional Programmes

The researcher sought to find out whether school leaders ensured the planning of tests and examinations and whether they monitored students’ progress in their school. The findings on this aspect varied between the two categories of schools. The ability to conduct planned tests and examinations and to monitor progress, ensuring the quality of tests and examinations and using tests and examination results to monitor progress in improving performance were ranked very highly as practices of effective leadership in the well-performing schools (Table 3.3).

Table 3: Ensuring Assessment

<table>
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<th>School categories</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Themes and Statements</td>
<td>MT N=4</td>
<td>T N=12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Conducting planned tests and examinations and monitoring progress</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Ensuring quality of conducted tests and examinations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Using tests and examination results for school improvement</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key: MT=Management Team; T=Teachers; S=Students; ( ) percentages

These findings agree with Hallinger’s (2003), who maintains that evaluating instruction and monitoring students’ progress are among key leadership functions that contribute to improving school quality and students’ achievement.

The results on the ability to conduct planned tests and examinations show that the school leadership used various ways to ensure that students’ progress is properly monitored and assessed. In the best-performing schools the management team indicated that assessment and monitoring are carried out according to school plans, which show when tests and examinations are to be conducted. It was also revealed that the quality of tests and examinations was ensured before being administered. This is in line with the observation by Kellaghan and Greaney (2001) that assessments/evaluations are ascribed an active role. Assessments are consciously used in the educational process to change teachers’ behaviour and classroom instruction, which, in turn, are expected to raise the standard of students’ learning (ibid.). Thus, prepared tests need to be of high quality to meet the learning standards and must be conducted as planned.

In the worst-performing schools the administration of planned tests and examinations as well as monitoring progress were ranked average. The senior academic master said that:

The school’s intention is to have regular tests and examinations but due to the shortage of resources, especially human (secretary), and a photocopier in the school, it is difficult to conduct them. Instead, individual teachers usually plan, for instance, a quiz at the end of each topic. Planned assessments like weekly tests, mid-term tests, terminal examinations and annual examinations are conducted at school level. (Teacher, school A2)
This statement indicates that school leaders were aware of the necessity of evaluating students regularly but hardly took the initiative to do so. Concerning quality control, Hoy and Miskel (2008) argue that transformational criteria, such as the number of tests given, evaluation of teaching and the use of instructional technologies, are among quality control procedures. Similarly, Mosha (2006:214) asserts, “Monitoring and evaluation are done to assess whether organizational improvements are occurring, and to oversee compliance with directives.” Therefore, education leaders act as education auditors, whose function is to verify the teaching and learning outcomes in order to initiate remedial actions. Therefore regular assessment is needed in order to improve students’ performance.

Ways for Holding Teachers Responsible for their Performance

The findings revealed that the counseling of teachers and students was highly ranked by both categories of school as practices used by the leadership to remind them of their responsibilities in school. Warning letters were ranked above average by both school categories, and there was consistency in the responses from the two categories of school on what is done by the school leadership to ensure that teachers are properly guided in their daily conduct (Table 3.4). The results from the study further revealed that the review of teachers’ conduct through staff assessment forms received no responses in the best-performing schools while in the worst-performing schools this practice was ranked below average.

Table 4: Ways Used to Hold Teachers and Students Responsible for their Performance

<table>
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<th>School categories</th>
<th>Best-performing schools</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MT N=4</td>
<td>T N=12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Counselling teachers and students</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Warning letters</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Reviewing teachers’ conduct</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Using staff assessment forms</td>
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</table>

Key: MT=Management Team; T=Teachers; S=Students; ( ) percentages

Heads of school and senior academic masters/mistresses in the second category of schools reported that:

..we discuss teachers’ conduct during staff meetings to remind teachers of their responsibility to do their job well. Although knowledge of teachers’ day-to-day activities would help leaders to control their behaviour, it was reported that there was little interest in knowing what teachers do in school each day. (Head of school A1)

It was revealed by the school head that currently promotion is automatic and is seldom based on evaluation of performance. This practice is unhelpful for maintaining standards and holding teachers responsible for their performance. One school head indicated the lack of a proper way and said that;

No proper way has been established for the purpose but for me if a teacher misbehaves, especially on an issue that can affect academic programmes, I normally talk to him/her about the issue. If I do not succeed, I send the teacher to the senior management team to be counselled. If this does not work he/she is given a warming letter, and if he/she persists in misbehaving, the teacher is reported to TSD for further decision/action.
The statement indicates the alternative that is available if the head of school fails to deal with the matter. However, Wong and Nicotera (2007) maintain that education leaders are critical for facilitating accountability and so they must know the standards to be met in order to ensure better performance.

Similarly, Mosha (2006) insists that accountability and responsibility make sense when every stakeholder is given unrestricted access to information about the performance of a given education institution. It means that when stakeholders are aware of stipulated standards it is easy for leaders to hold them accountable for failing to meet them. Generally, the findings revealed that the best-performing and worst-performing schools did not have the same way of holding teachers and other staff responsible for their performance. As a result, each school used its own mechanism, depending on the context.

### Practices for Motivating Teachers and Students to Enhance Performance

According to Kemmerer (1990) motivation refers to the process of arousing, directing and sustaining behaviour. It may include monetary offers such as salary, allowances, and fringe benefits as well as non-monetary offers such as training opportunities, materials, transfer or public recognition. The findings revealed that incentives in the form of monetary rewards and public recognition were given for good performance in national examinations that are administered by the National Examinations Council of Tanzania (NECTA). A teacher at school B1 disclosed during focus group discussion,

> The school head pays us Tsh 1000 per period when we conduct remedial classes and sometimes when monthly tests are conducted on Saturdays. If there is money, the school leadership provides a token amount of cash to assist teachers, especially for bus fares, to motivate us to attend. Again, if there is a meeting or people are busy with school activities the school head can decide to provide soft drinks.

These incentives were ranked very highly as motivators of teachers and students in both categories of schools (Table 3.5). Teachers in the best-performing schools added that head teachers are ready to publicly recognise good performers. Recognition, according to Luthans (1998), is one of the most effective incentives for improving performance. He (ibid.) adds that recognising self-motivated, self-managing and highly productive individuals will encourage the continued development of their abilities, and so recognition is a very effective motivator.

These findings show that although the worst-performing schools had in place a way of motivating teachers, no funds were allocated to implement such a scheme. However, Figlio and Kenny (2006) discovered that students learn more in schools in which individual teachers are recognized and given incentives for doing a good job. The authors add that the more teachers are motivated the better their teaching performance which, ultimately, leads to students achieving more in terms of getting better results.

### Conclusion

The supervision of instruction in school is a core activity of school heads. Ensuring the effective use of time by planning academic programmes, mobilising resources and providing assistance to teachers are essential. Monitoring through documents alone is not enough. The supervision of teachers while they are actually teaching needs to be strengthened in both categories of schools and the effective assessment and monitoring of students’ progress through well established procedures needs to be ensured. Effective mechanisms for holding teachers and other staff accountable for their performance need to be established in schools to improve
students’ academic performance. The motivation of teachers and students should not be undermined. It is necessary to use all means possible to make sure that teachers are motivated so that they are committed to supporting school activities. This can be done through monetary awards (e.g. allowances) and non-monetary awards (e.g. training opportunities through seminars and workshops) as well as through public recognition on graduation day.

References


