Models of Supervision that School Supervisors Can Use to Promote Effective Implementation of Performance Lag Address Programme for High Learner Achievement.

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Abstract: *Zimbabwe introduced a new programme called Performance Lag Address Programme (PLAP) as a way of addressing the literacy and numeracy problems that affect the performance of most learners. Research reveals that one important variable that determines the success or failure of a new programme or curriculum is the quality of supervision overseeing that programme. In order for supervisors to be successful in their role of effectively implementing Performance Lag Address Programme (PLAP) and thereby increasing student achievement, knowledge about supervisory models are needed. The models of supervision reviewed in this paper include scientific supervision, clinical supervision, self-assessment supervision, developmental supervision, and collaborative or co-operative or collegial supervision. Supervision styles that emanate from these models that will be reviewed are the autocratic, consultative, participatory, democratic, directive and non-directive supervisory styles. The importance of bringing as many of these models and styles to the fore is for the supervisor to pick the best model for a particular situation or to combine a number of the models in order to produce the best results.*

Key Terms: *Performance, supervision, effective, lag, learners, models, achievement*

1. INTRODUCTION

The introduction of PLAP in the Zimbabwean primary schools constitutes a change as PLAP is a new programme that hitherto did not exist. Among other critical factors that determine successful implementation of a new curriculum is the supervisory regime that exists to support the programme (Harber & Davies, 2010). The supervisor at school level coordinates curriculum changes in the public schools. Critical features of effective curriculum implementation are open communication, a strong staff development program, and daily encouragement and support of faculty members. Planning and organization, financial support, and human support are among the principal's significant contributions.In order for supervisors to be successful in their role of effectiveness in the implementation of a new education programme (including PLAP) and thereby increasing student achievement, supervisory models are needed (Ozigi, 2007). The models of supervision reviewed in this paper include scientific supervision, clinical supervision, self-assessment supervision, developmental supervision, and collaborative or co-operative or collegial supervision. Supervision styles that emanate from these models that will be reviewed are the autocratic, consultative, participatory, democratic, directive and non-directive supervisory styles.

2. SCIENTIFIC SUPERVISION

Scientific management or supervision or the classical theory as it is often referred to, was developed by Taylor (1911) to create better, more efficient organisations (Bush, 2008). Taylor's concern was the heed to increase efficiency by lowering costs. According to Madziyire (2003), Taylor believed there was one best way to do a job and that workers had to be scientifically selected and then thoroughly trained. He also underscored the need for co-operation between management and employees so that the job was done according to set standards. There was need to divide work with managers taking the responsibility for planning and supervision, while the workers painstakingly went through planned procedures. The supervisory styles that seem to emerge from the scientific model of supervision are the charismatic, autocratic and the nomothetic supervisory styles. Leaders who adopt such styles are serious about the task and not so much concerned about people. Harber and Davies (2010) conclude that power relations in schools in developing countries are largely authoritarian or

bureaucratic. They go on to give the following example about Nigerian schools: "In theory it is expected that some heads of Nigerian schools will fall into categories like autocratic, democratic and laisses-faire, but most heads tend to be authoritarian if not altogether autocratic"

Ever and Morris (2010) prefer to use the term assertive supervisory style to refer to the autocratic style. They explain that in the assertive style, the principals want things done his / her way and tells rather than listens. Such a principal does not worry too much about other people's feelings or opinions, regularly checks on staff, is aggressive if challenged and goes by the book. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2012:3) summarise the leadership style used with scientific supervision thus: "traditional scientific management represents the classical autocratic philosophy in which teachers are viewed as appendages of management and as such are hired to carryout prespecified duties in accordance with the wishes of management".

According to Murimba (2013) the relationship that existed between the teacher and supervisor (principal) in Zimbabwe from the 1920s right up to the early 1970s was that of the boss and the employee. The teacher as junior partner in the relationship had no say and his creativity was stifled by bureaucratic control. Inspectors forced teachers to use methods of teaching that encouraged rote learning. School inspectors visited schools with the express purpose of trying to detect faults in teachers (Murimba, 2013).

Mbamba (2002:28) observes that "…within the traditional concept, supervision is characterised by formality, rules and regulations and an artificial social milieu which makes the supervisor appear as a God in the institution". Greater control of Zimbabwe's education system during the 1920s up to the early 1970s was manifested through detailed schemes that were strictly adhered to. The scheme prescribed the content and methodology which were to be utilised by the teacher in every lesson. The timetable, scheme of work, the teaching procedures and pacing were literally identical throughout the country; thus it was possible to tell what all grade five teachers would be teaching and how they would be teaching it on a given day. Murimba (2013:152) observes that "close supervision, deadlines, formats, no trust in teachers and no initiative, are features of the scientific model". It is a reality that this is still the dominant model of supervision in the schools due to the fact that our education system is a bureaucratic system. When you consider that PLAP is a change in the primary school system, the expectation is that the structures that inhibit change will allow it to roll out smoothly. Thus, the difficulties of implementing this programme.

3. HUMAN RELATIONS SUPERVISION

Mbamba (2002:105) explains that "the human relations model tries to emphasise team work as opposed to the creation of social cliques among employees. The underlying principle of this model is that people who are satisfied increase productivity and it is easier to lead, control and work with individuals who are satisfied".

The human relations model frowned at the view that workers were mere tools to be used by management for their ends. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2012:3) observe that "…in this model teachers were to be viewed as people in their own right rather than packages of needed energy, skills and aptitudes to be used by supervisors".

Supervision, according to the human relations model, has to create a feeling of satisfaction among teachers showing interest in them as people. Personal feelings and comfortable relationships were the watch words of human relations supervision. Participation was to be an important method and its objective was to make teachers feel that they were useful and important to the school.

Ever and Morris (2010:16) coined the term solicitous supervisory style to refer to the style emanating from human relations supervision. They assert that the principal who uses the solicitous supervisory style cares about people and wants to be liked. He / she avoids conflict and if the school is a happy that is all that matters. Such a principal praises to the point of flattering and glosses over slack or poor performance.

Madziyire (2003) informs us that with post-independence democratisation of the education system in Zimbabwe during the 1980s, there was some attempt of supervising teachers in a manner geared towards demonstrating a concern for the interest of learners. Supervisors, too, became more human in

their supervision of teachers. However, Madziyire (2003:16) warns that "when supervisory practices are based on the human relations model, teachers tend to adopt a laissez-faire attitude, which leads to chaos. Teachers may neglect their work knowing fully well that the principal would not reprimand them for fear of straining relations".

4. HUMAN RESOURCES SUPERVISION

The human resources model was a challenge to the scientific and human relations supervision models although it did incorporate what was considered the good of the former two models (the scientific and human relations models). This model emphasises the full utilisation of a person's capacity for continued growth. The proponents of this model believe in giving teachers challenging work as well as the need to integrate personal needs and organisational needs (Ever and Morris,2010; Edefelt and Johnson 2005). (Madziyire, 2003:82) reveals that:

Human resources theorists had an interest in people, but more so in the potential these people had. Workers would receive maximum satisfaction and enrichment from achievement at work.   The workers would then work to reach higher levels of effectiveness because they are committed to organisational goals.

In the human resources model, the supervisors' (principals') role would be mainly to help teachers develop as total beings with individual talents and competencies. Satisfaction emanating from the use of this model, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2012), results from the successful completion of important and meaningful work. Supervisors who base their supervision on the human resources model, help staff members to find solutions to poor performance and involve staff in making decisions which affect them.

According to Chakanyuka (2006) the supervisory style that appears to stem from the human resources model, is the participatory style. The participatory style encourages participatory decision-making, increased worker responsibility and gives teachers more autonomy.   Supervisors (principals) who base their supervision on the human resources model, help staff members to find solutions to poor, performance and involve staff in making decisions which affect them.

5. DEVELOPMENT SUPERVISION

This model recognises teachers as individuals who are at various stages of development and growth. According to Glickman (2001) (in Beach and Reinhartz, 2009:136) "…as supervisors' work with teachers in an educational setting, they should match their assistance to teachers' conceptual levels with the ultimate goal of teachers taking charge of their own improvement". In addition, supervisors must be knowledgeable about and responsive to the developmental stages and adult life transitions of teachers (Beach and Reinhartz, 2009).

Development supervision is described by Beach and Reinhartz (2009) in terms of two teacher variables that change over time and are related to instruction.   These variables are teacher commitment and level of abstract thinking. The term commitment refers developmentally to the willingness of teachers to expend time and energy. It appears that over time, teachers move from concern for self to concern for their students and finally to concern for other students and other teachers. The concern is expressed in the teacher's willingness to devote time and energy to helping others (Glickman, 2004).

The teacher continuum ranges from low to high, as shown in table2.1 below. According to this model, teachers at the one end of the continuum are low in commitment. These teachers tend to show concern for their own success and survival and seldom demonstrate any concern for learners and other teachers. At the opposite end of the continuum are teachers who have a high level of commitment which is shown in their concern not only for their pupils but for other pupils and teachers as well (Glickman, 2004). These teachers are willing to spend extra energy and effort to helping others.

Teachers who function at the other end of the continuum, that is, those with low levels of abstract thinking are unclear about the problems and therefore cannot conceptualise what should be done. Glickman (2004:120) contends that "…in working with such teachers the principal helps by providing simple clear statements, many opportunities to practice what has been discussed, concrete guidance and continuous supervision to ensure that items discussed are implemented".

This model (development supervision) it will appear, implies that novice teachers (young teachers) would be (generally, found in the low abstract thinking category after which they move to the moderate thinking category which is then followed by the high abstract thinking category.

Wiles (2007) proposes that in working with teachers who have a limited ability to think abstractly, the supervisor (principal) may use the directive style for those who are moderate in abstract thinking the best styles would be the consultative and participatory styles.

Within the development model, the role of the supervisor is to return more responsibility for instructional improvement to the teachers, and a cooperative problem-solving approach is employed. Supervisors make decisions collectively with teachers. Motivation for continued instructional improvement comes from the supervisor as well as from the teacher. In such an environment, teachers take greater control of their own professional development (Beach and Reinhartz, 2009, Gordon, 2007).

6. CLINICAL SUPERVISION

The essential ingredients of clinical supervision as articulated by Cogan (1973) and Gold hammer (1969) (in Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2002) include the establishment of a healthy supervisory climate, a special mutual supervisory support system called colleagueship, and a cycle of supervision comprising conference, observation of teachers at work, and pattern analysis. The supervisor is first and foremost interested in improving instruction and increasing the teacher's personal development.

Mbamba (2002:107) sees clinical supervision as "…an intensive process designed to improve teachers' classroom performance. If clinical supervision is to operate effectively, a collegial, collaborative relationship between teachers and supervisors (principals) is an essential prerequisite. One of the proponents of clinical supervision, Cogan (1973) in Madziyire (2003), names the stage of clinical supervision as that of establishing a teacher-supervisor relationship. It includes a two-way support system called colleagueship: the supervisor builds a relationship based on mutual trust and support and inducts the teacher into the role of co-supervisors. The teacher must not fear the supervisor but must take him / her as a colleague helper.

The second phase is that of planning with teachers. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2012:321) "teacher and supervisor [principal] ask series of lessons or a topic unit". The teacher and supervisor (principal) ask themselves if the plan is in tune with larger plans surrounding it. They have to scrutinise the content for suitability. This shared planning means that the plan belongs to both the teacher and supervisor and ensures that there will not arise a situation where the teacher is blamed for failure.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2009) say that phase three involves planning the strategy of observation. Together the teacher and the principal plan and discuss the kind and amount of information to be gathered during the observation period and the methods to be used to gather this information.

The fourth phase is the observation of instruction. The roles to be assumed by the principal are agreed upon prior to the lesson. The principal may either be a colleague teacher, resource person, demonstration teacher, principal or a non-interacting entity in the classroom. Both the teacher and the principal observe the teacher's and pupils' behaviour and any other events worth noting (Phillips 2009).

The fifth stage is the analysis of the teaching learning process. Either together or separately, the teacher and principal analyse the proceedings of the lesson. The extent to which set objectives were achieved is assessed. Any critical incidents including the teacher's style is examined (Beach and Reinhartz, 2009).

The conference strategy is planned in the sixth phase. Time and place for the conference are discussed. Privacy is important and the teacher's classroom is the most ideal place for the conference (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2009).

The actual conference is the seventh phase which puts more emphasis on behaviours than on the individual. It is an answer which is wrong and not the teacher. The conference provides the opportunity and setting for the teacher and principal to exchange information about that which was

intended in a given lesson or unit and that which actually happened (Madziyire, 2003; Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2009).

The eighth phase (which is the last) is the return to planning. Any incident or any patters identified for improvement are incorporated into the new planning, and the cycle once again starts).

Goldhammer (1969) (in Beach & Reinhartz, 2009) condensed the phases of clinical supervision into five. Goldhammer's five-step clinical supervision process includes pre-observation, conference, observation, conference and post conference analysis.

The democratic supervisory and non-directive styles like the consultative and the participatory style (discussed in detail in section 3.8.1. (b) slot well into the clinical supervision model because the principal allows subordinates freedom in making decisions. The supervisor serves as facilitator and refrains from criticising unnecessarily. The democratic supervisory style (see section 3.8.1. (a)) allows teachers to seek help from a principal without fear of assessment or grading. In fact, various styles can be related to the clinical approach. The participatory style is found where both teacher and supervisor (principal) plan together. The collaborative style is evident during the stage when the principal seeks to establish colleagueship in order to work harmoniously together (Madziyire, 2003; Olivia, 2006; Beach and Reinhartz, 2009).

7. SELF-ASSESSMENT SUPERVISION

Another model of supervision involves teachers in self-evaluation and is called self-assessment evaluation. Bailey (2004) (in Beach and Reinhartz 2009) defines self-assessment as "the process of self-examination in which the teacher utilises a series of feedback strategies for the purpose of instructional improvement". The purpose of teacher self-assessment is to enable the teacher to become self-directed in improvement activity. During self-assessment, teachers are called upon to evaluate their own performance so that they will be more aware of strengths and weaknesses associated with classroom instruction (Bailey, 1981) (in Beaton, 2000).

Bailey (2001) states that the first step in self-assessment involves teachers' analysis and reflecting on their teaching performances. As they reflect on their performances, teachers can use carefully developed inventories that are based on teacher behaviour associated with effective instruction. The inventories should be specific enough to encourage teachers to make critical decisions regarding their instructional efficiency.

In the second step of the self-assessment model, the teacher uses the information generated from the completed inventory when answering the question, "How objective have l been in assessing my own performance?" (Bailey and Reinhartz, 2009:158).

The third step in self-assessment involves feedback from other people like the principal. The instructional supervisor uses the inventory designed to gather information about the teacher's instructional behaviour that relates to variables associated with effective instruction. In addition to inventories, videotaping or audio taping can be useful tools for the teacher in building a teaching profile. These techniques provide a more objective data base for analysis teacher performance, and give teachers the opportunity to see how they look and / or sound (Bailey, 1981; Dillon-Peterson, 1981; Orlich, 1984; Ncube, 2000).

According to this model, the fourth step which entails accurate assessment of existing personal and professional attributes is most important in determining the accuracy of the information from other people (Bailey, 2001). Self-assessment can be considered a success when the teacher verifies that the perceptions of others have yielded an accurate picture of existing personal and professional attributes (Beach and Reinhartz, 2009). If the data collected on the inventories or the feedback from others are inconsistent with the teacher's own rating there is a misconception concerning classroom effectiveness (Orlich, 2014). For the process of self-assessment supervision to be effective, teachers should honestly commit to analysing and changing their classroom behaviours. Additionally, teachers should have confidence in the process and in themselves. If these two factors are objectively addressed, the original goal of the model, namely that of self-improvement, can be achieved (Beach and Reinhartz, 2009; Bailey, 2001; Orlich, 2004).

8. CONCLUSIONS

Performance Lag Address Programme appears to be facing many challenges in its implementation as a new panacea for the high failure rates in schools. One of the variables that is responsible for this is the way how supervision of the programme is being conducted. There is a multiplicity of models of supervision that can be used by instructional supervisors in the successful implementation of a new programme like PLAP in the promotion of performance by both teachers and their pupils. This paper discussed some of these models looking at their strengths and weaknesses. It is not possible to prescribe the best model of supervision for an instructional supervisor as this is determined by the context of the supervision process. However, of importance to note is that, the knowledge of the existence of these models is the best starting point. Instructional supervisors should be aware of the models so that they may decide when to use them or when not to use them.

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