The main purpose of this study was to examine the existing perceptions of teachers toward instructional supervision in secondary schools in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. It also explores if there are differences between beginner and experienced teachers in their attitudes toward and satisfaction with supervisory practices, and (possible) relationships with perceived professional development. The sample is 200 teachers. Independent sample t-test, correlation and regression analyses were used to analyse the data. The results reveal that, except for peer coaching and portfolios, the selected supervisory approaches were infrequently practiced in private and government schools. No significant differences were found between beginner and experienced teachers in their attitudes and satisfaction toward supervisory processes practiced at their schools. Moreover, significant weak to moderate positive relationships were found of the actual supervisory approaches, teachers’ attitudes and satisfaction with professional development. Regression analysis showed that teachers’ attitudes and teachers’ satisfaction are the most important contributors to professional development.

Keywords: instructional supervision; professional development; satisfaction; attitude; teachers’ perceptions

INTRODUCTION AND RESEARCH PROBLEM

Schools are the central places where children and youth access formal education. The fundamental purpose of a school is improvement of student learning. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), when a school’s instructional capacity improves, teaching improves, leading to improvements in student performance. The role of the teacher in the process of promoting such improvement cannot be underestimated. In order to attain the optimum level of improvement, teachers need to be well-educated and part of the learning community. Supervision of teachers is one of the functions of educational institutions, and offers opportunities for schools as a whole to improve teaching and learning, and the professional development of teachers (Kutsyuruba, 2003; Arong & Ogbadu, 2010).

In the past few decades, new concepts, such as “instructional supervision”, have been coined to define school supervision. “Instructional supervision” and “inspection” are considered by various educational officials, experts and policy makers as similar in their actual meaning (Oliva, 1976). However, their meaning is quite different in the sense
that instructional supervision is a type of school-based (in-school) supervision carried out by the school staff (principals, department heads, senior teachers, and assigned supervisors) aimed at providing guidance, support, and continuous assessment to teachers for their professional development and improvement in the teaching-learning process. Inspection, however, is a top-down approach aimed at controlling and evaluating the improvement of schools based on stated standards set by external agents outside the school system (Aron & Ogbadu, 2010; Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Tyagi, 2010; Wilcox & Gray, 1996). Instructional supervision is mainly concerned with improving schools by helping teachers to reflect on their practices, to learn more about what they do and why, and to develop professionally (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). Various authors stated that instructional supervision has a clear connection with professional development (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Zepeda, 2007). Kutsyuruba (2003) defines professional development as follows:

A major component of ongoing teacher education concerned with improving teachers’ instructional methods, their ability to adapt instruction to meet students’ needs, and their classroom management skills; and with establishing a professional culture that relies on shared beliefs about the importance of teaching and learning and that emphasizes teacher collegiality. (p. 11)

In this regard, participants in the instructional supervision process plan and carry out a range of professional growth opportunities designed to meet teacher’s professional growth, and educational goals and objectives at different levels. In doing so, beginner and experienced teachers have their own preferences and choices for various supervisory approaches, such as clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, reflective coaching, teaching portfolios, and professional growth plans (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000).

In Ethiopia, supervisory services have been carried out since 1941, though the service’s name shifted between “inspection” and “supervision”. In order to effectively and efficiently achieve the intended objectives of educational supervision, two approaches to the organization of supervision were taken: out-of-school (external) supervision, and school-based (in-school) supervision; the former is carried out by external supervisors at federal, regional and lower levels, whereas the later is carried out by school principals, department heads and senior teachers. However, in Addis Ababa – the capital city of Ethiopia where this study is conducted – supervision is carried out somewhat differently to that in the rest of the county. Since the beginning of 2004, schools, particularly City Administration government and private schools in the city follow a new approach to supervision called “subject area instructional supervision.” This is a type of school-based supervision carried out using a combination of permanently-assigned subject area supervisors, school principals, department heads and senior teachers. The subject area supervisors are teachers recruited and assigned by Addis Ababa City Government Education Bureau based on their qualification and teaching experience as permanent staffs in each school to give their professional support for teachers (Alemayehu, 2008).

Survey research conducted by Alemayehu (2008) in 10 Addis Ababa secondary schools, with a sample of 332 teachers, showed that the subject-area instructional supervision practiced in Addis Ababa City Administration has multiple problems, such as, lack of adequate support for newly deployed (beginning) teachers, infrequent use of classroom visits and peer coaching by instructional supervisors, focus of such supervisors on administrative matters rather than on academic issues, and lack of mutual professional
trust between supervisors and teachers. All these and other problems are linked to a negative perception of teachers towards instructional supervision.

According to Oliva (1976), the way teachers perceive supervision in schools and classrooms is an important factor that determines the outcomes of the supervision process. In addition, previous research and publications reveal that, because of its evaluative approaches, less-experienced teachers have more negative attitudes toward the practice of supervision than more experienced teachers. Less-experienced teachers consider supervisors to be fault-finders; they fear that supervisors will report their weaknesses to the school administrator and believe that supervision has nothing of value to offer to them (Blumberg, 1980; Oliva, 1976; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

However, literature on perception of teachers toward supervisory practices is very limited in Africa in general and in Ethiopia in particular.

This study is designed to examine teachers’ perceptions of the actual frequency of the use of selected instructional supervisory approaches (clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, reflective coaching, teaching portfolios, and professional growth plans) and the perceived relationship with professional development in the private and government secondary schools of Addis Ababa. The study also focuses on investigating teachers’ attitudes toward supervisory practices and their satisfaction with such practices, and the (possible) relationships with perceived professional development. In other words, the research problem seeks to answer the following basic questions:

a) Are there differences in perception between teachers regarding actual supervisory practices (in terms of years of experience, gender and school type)?

b) Is there a difference in attitude toward, and satisfaction with, supervisory practices between beginner and experienced secondary school teachers?

c) What are the relationships of actual supervisory approaches, teachers’ attitudes and satisfaction toward supervisory practices with teachers’ professional development, and what predictors contribute most to teachers’ professional development?

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

School supervision, as a field of educational practice has passed through many changes. Traditionally, inspection and supervision were used as important tools to ensure efficiency and accountability in the education system. Different countries, which were later adherents of the terms, inspection and school supervision, implemented them in different ways. In many developed countries, such as UK and US, much more attention has been given to the term inspection than school supervision (Lee, Ding, & Song, 2008).

Since the teacher demand for guidance and support from supervisors has increased over time, some countries changed the term, preferring “supervisor” to “inspector”. According to Grauwe (2007), some countries have recently developed more specific terminologies: Malawi, uses “education methods advisor”, and Uganda “teacher development advisor.” In line with this trend, Beycioglu and Donmez (2009) stated that: “school supervision has been changing in its practice from a control mechanism which inspects and restricts teachers for not having them make errors to a practice which
allows schools, especially at present, to have its members supervise themselves in collaboration and group dynamics” (p. 72). This suggests there is a paradigm shift from the concept and practice of general school supervision (external inspection) to instructional (in-school) supervision in various countries.

**Overview of instructional supervisory approaches**

Implementing different supervisory approaches is essential, not only to give choices to teachers but also to provide choices to administrators and schools (Kutsyuruba, 2003). The widely-used approaches to instructional supervision (formative evaluation) are categorized as clinical supervision, collaborative supervision (peer coaching, cognitive coaching, and mentoring), self-reflection (self-directed development), professional growth plans, and portfolios (Alfonso & Firth, 1990; Clarke, 1995; Poole, 1994; Renihan, 2002; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Zepeda, 2007).

**Clinical supervision**

This approach (model) to instructional supervision was developed by Goldhammer and Cogan in the late 1960s (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Karjewski, 1980). According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), clinical supervision is “face-to-face contact with teachers with the intent of improving instruction and increasing professional growth” (p. 23). It is a sequential, cyclic and systematic supervisory process that involves face-to-face (direct) interaction between teachers (supervisees) and supervisors designed to improve the teacher’s classroom instructions (Kutsyuruba, 2003). The purpose of clinical supervision, according to Snow-Gerono (2008), is “to provide support to teachers (to assist) and gradually to increase teachers’ abilities to be self-supervising” (p. 1511).

**Collaborative supervision**

Collaboration and collegiality are very important in today’s modern schools. According to Burke and Fessler (1983), teachers are the central focus of the collaborative approach to supervision. Collaborative approaches to supervision are mainly designed to help beginning teachers and those who are new to a school or teaching environment with the appropriate support from more experienced colleagues.

The major components of collaborative approaches to supervision are: peer coaching, cognitive coaching, and mentoring. However, it is stated by various authors that these approaches to instructional supervision overlap one another but are quite different in their purpose and function (Kutsyuruba, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Showers & Joyce, 1996; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000; Uzat, 1998).

**Peer coaching**

Peer coaching is a type of supervision in which teachers in a given school work collaboratively in pairs and small teams to observe each others’ teaching and learn from one another to improve instruction (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). Peer coaching, according to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), is defined as “teachers helping each other to reflect on and improve teaching practice and/or carry out new teaching skills needed to carry out knowledge gained through faculty or curriculum development” (p. 215). Peer coaching differs from other coaching approaches in that it involves teachers of equal
status (beginners with beginners or experienced with experienced), and focuses on innovations in curriculum and development.

**Cognitive coaching**

The term cognitive in supervision refers to becoming aware (mediated thinking) of one’s own teaching effectiveness. Cognitive coaching is an effective means of establishing sound relationships between two or more professionals of different status (beginners with experienced teachers, beginners with assigned supervisors, or experienced teachers with assigned supervisors). In cognitive coaching, the coach (more experienced teacher or supervisor) acts as a mediator between the beginner teacher to be coached and his or her own thinking. Cognitive coaching differs from peer coaching in that peer coaching focuses on innovations in curriculum and instructions, whereas cognitive coaching is aimed at improving existing practices (Showers & Joyce, 1996).

**Mentoring**

Mentoring, as defined by Sullivan and Glanz (2000), is “a process that facilitates instructional improvement wherein an experienced teacher (mentor) works with a novice or less experienced teacher collaboratively and nonjudgmentally to study and deliberate on ways instruction in the classroom may be improved” (p. 213). It differs from peer coaching and cognitive coaching in that mentoring involves a hierarchical relationship between a novice and senior (more experienced) teacher. In addition, in mentoring, one senior teacher from the same department is assigned as a mentor for one novice teacher. Thus, it is a one-to-one correspondence between senior and novice teachers (Murray & Mazur, 2009).

**Self-reflection (reflective coaching)**

Because the context of education is always changing, teachers should have a professional and ethical responsibility to reflect on what is happening in response to the change. To do so, they can participate in self-assessment reflective practices (Kutsyuruba, 2003). According to Glatthorn (1990), self-directed development (reflective coaching) is a process by which a teacher systematically participates for his or her own professional growth in teaching. Similarly, Sergiovanni (1991) stated that “self-directed approaches are mostly ideal for teachers who prefer to work alone or who, because of scheduling or other difficulties, are unable to work cooperatively with other teachers” (p. 305).

**Portfolios**

Because teachers want to actively participate in their own development and supervision, they need to take ownership of the evaluation process (Kutsyuruba, 2003). The best way for teachers to be actively involved in such practices is by using a teaching portfolio (Painter, 2001). A teaching portfolio is defined as a process of supervision in which a teacher compiles collections of artifacts, reproductions, and testimonials that represent the teacher’s professional growth and abilities (Riggs & Sandlin, 2000). In portfolios, teachers evaluate themselves and develop their teaching practice as well as pedagogical and domain knowledge with the evidence from collection of the artifacts (Reis & Villaume, 2002).
Professional growth plans

Professional growth plans are defined as “individual goal-setting activities, long term projects teachers develop and carry out relating to the teaching” (Brandt, 1996, p. 31). This means that teachers reflect on their own instructional and professional goals by setting intended outcomes and plans for achieving these goals. In professional growth plans, as part of an instructional supervisory approach, teachers select the skills they wish to improve and document their plan, including the source of knowledge they wish to acquire, the types of workshops to be attended, the books and articles to be read, and the practice activities to be set.

TEACHERS’ PERCEPTION, ATTITUDE TOWARD AND SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISORY PROCESSES

From laypersons conducting school inspection in the 18th century to the practice of neo-scientific management, supervision in most schools of the world has focused on inspection and control of teachers (Alemayehu, 2008). Sullivan and Glanz (2000) stated that “the evaluation function of supervision was historically rooted in a bureaucratic inspectional type of supervision” (p. 22). In a study of supervision and teacher satisfaction, Fraser (1980) noted that “the improvement of the teaching learning process was dependent upon teacher attitudes toward supervision” (p. 224). He also noted that unless teachers perceive supervision as a process of promoting professional growth and student learning, the supervisory practice would not bring about the desired effects.

Kapfunde (1990) stated that teachers usually associate instructional supervision with appraisal, rating and control. In Ethiopia, many teachers resent and even fear being supervised because of the history of supervision, which has always been biased towards evaluation or inspection (Haileselassie, 1997). Regarding the challenges of teachers, it is stated in various literatures that beginner teachers face more challenges than more experienced teachers. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (1998) stated that “teaching has been a career in which the greatest challenge and most difficult responsibilities are faced by those with the least experience” (p. 21). Similarly, Johnson (2001) noted that “at least 30 percent of beginning teachers leave the profession during the first two years” (p. 44). For many less experienced teachers, supervision is viewed as a meaningless exercise that has little value beyond the completion of the required evaluation form (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998).

The attitude and satisfaction of teachers toward instructional supervision depends largely on several factors, such as a harmonious teacher-supervisor relationship and availability of supervisory choices based on teachers’ needs, as well as mutual trust, respect and collaboration among supervisees and supervisors (Kutsyuruba, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Zepeda, 2007). In this regard, research conducted by Kutsyuruba (2003) on beginner teachers’ perception of instructional supervision revealed that “beginning teachers desire more frequent use of instructional supervision that meets their professional needs, that promotes trust and collaboration, and that provides them with support, advice and help” (p. 4).
RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Instructional supervision is an important tool in building effective teachers’ professional development. Instructional supervision is “an organizational function concerned with teacher growth, leading to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning” (Nolan & Hoover, 2008, p. 6). According to Zepeda (2007), there must be a clear connection between instructional supervision and professional development. She added that the various models or approaches to instructional supervision, such as clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring etc., each have different contributions to make towards enhancing teachers’ professional development. Research findings on instructional supervision suggested that there is a significant link between instructional supervision and professional development. They are inter-linked and inter-dependent (Burant, 2009). In support, Sullivan (1997) notes that the fields of educational development, instructional supervision and professional development are interlinked and “can and should overlap as needs and local preferences dictate” (p. 159).

RESEARCH MODEL, DESIGN AND METHOD

Several theories, approaches, and actors that are viewed as essential to research into instructional supervision and professional development have been presented above. In order to clarify the possible associations, we will now present a conceptual research model (see Figure 1). The scales/indicators mentioned in the model that will be used in the analyses are explained in more detail later in this section.

Teachers’ perception of different instructional supervisory approaches, their attitudes and satisfaction with supervisory practices, influence their professional development. The study analyses the relationship of these concepts with professional development.

![Figure1: Research model of instructional supervision](image-url)
SAMPLE

The study essentially aimed to examine beginning teachers’ perceptions of instructional supervision, and investigate differences in perception between experienced teachers, and relationship of these perceptions with professional development in Addis Ababa secondary schools. The gross sample consisted of 200 (100 beginning and 100 experienced) teachers from 10 private and 10 government secondary schools. All 200 responded to and completed the survey questionnaire.

VARIABLES AND SCALES

The independent variables in this study are: perceptions of actual supervisory approaches, attitudes toward supervisory practices, and satisfaction with supervision. The dependent variable is perceived professional development. The control variables are: gender, teachers’ experience, and type of school. The items in the questionnaire about supervisory practices were used to construct four separate scales (see Table 1).

Table 1: Scales regarding supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SCALES</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>N (sample)</th>
<th>N (item)</th>
<th>M (SD)</th>
<th>Cronbach’s alpha</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perception of actual supervisory</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.69 (.77)</td>
<td>.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>approaches (PASA)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitudes toward supervisory processes</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.09 (.62)</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ATSP)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with supervision</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.17 (.96)</td>
<td>.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SWS)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision and professional development ( SPD)</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.60 (.66)</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: * α of the scale if item 4 deleted

Actual supervision scales

The items assessing perceptions of supervisory approaches represent respondents’ perceptions of actual frequency of the use of selected supervisory approaches, namely: clinical supervision; peer coaching; cognitive coaching; mentoring; reflective coaching or self-directed development; portfolios; and professional growth plans. Respondents were asked to respond to seven items on actual frequency of the use of these supervisory approaches using a 5-point Likert scale with (1) never, (2) seldom, (3) occasionally, (4) often, and (5) always as the scale.

Attitudes toward supervision, supervision and professional development scales

The items of attitudes toward supervisory processes scales (11 items) and supervision and professional development scales (5 items) represent respondents’ attitudes regarding supervisory processes and their perceptions of the relationship between instructional supervision and professional development, respectively. Respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement on 5-point scales with (1) strongly disagree
through (3) neutral to (5) strongly agree. An example for items in attitude scale is “I am convinced of the need for instructional supervision”, and for the supervision and professional development scale is “Supervision has clear connection with professional development.”

**Satisfaction with supervision scale**

The items of satisfaction with supervision scales represent teachers’ perception of satisfaction with the amount and quality of supervision. To examine the level of satisfaction with the amount and quality of supervision, the respondents were asked to respond to two items using a 5-point scale that ranged from (1) not at all satisfied through (3) neutral to (5) highly satisfied. The third question dwelt upon how the experience of supervision met their professional needs as beginning and experienced teachers. An example of items in this scale is: “Please rate your satisfaction with amount of supervision being provided in your school.”

The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient results demonstrate that the constructed scales have satisfactory to good reliability. However, the reliability coefficient of the constructed scale to measure the relationship between supervision and professional development is relatively low (α=.59) but increases to .65 when item 4 is deleted.

**METHOD OF DATA ANALYSES**

In order to answer the research questions, three types of analyses were conducted: (1) independent sample t-test, (2) correlation analysis, and (3) regression analysis.

**Independent sample t-test**

Independent sample t-test is used to analyze whether differences were found between beginner and experienced teachers, between male and female teachers, and between private and government school teachers regarding actual supervisory approaches. It was also used to analyze if there are differences between beginner and experienced teachers in their attitudes toward and satisfaction with supervisory practices.

**Correlation analysis**

Correlation analysis is applied to discover whether a relationship exists between teachers’ attitudes toward and satisfaction with actual supervision approaches, as well as the relationship of these scales with (perceived) professional development.

**Regression analysis**

Linear regression analysis is used to predict whether teachers’ perception of real supervisory practices, attitudes toward and satisfaction with supervision contribute significantly to professional development. Other possible factors, such as teacher’s gender, teaching experience, and school type are also considered as control variables in the regression model.
RESULTS

RQ1: Are there differences in perception between teachers regarding the actual supervisory practices (in terms of years of experience, gender, and school type)?

Under this section respondents’ were asked to rate, on a 5-point scale, with 1 = almost never occurred, 2 = less frequently occurred and 3 = more frequently occurred, the actual frequency of the use of selected supervisory approaches, namely: clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, reflective coaching or self-directed development, portfolios, and professional growth plans.

Beginner and experienced teachers’ perception on the actual use of supervisory practices

Beginner teachers are those who have 1-2 years experience and experienced teachers are those with three or more years of teaching experience. The results of the independent sample t-test (Table 2) show that there is no significant difference between beginner and experienced teachers in their perception of the actual use of clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, and professional growth plans. However, reflective coaching is most often used by experienced teachers and portfolios most often used by both beginner and experienced teachers.

Table 2: Perception between teachers regarding the actual supervisory practices (in terms of years of experience)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisory Practices</th>
<th>Beginner (n=100)</th>
<th>Experienced (n=100)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinical supervision</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>1.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer coaching</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive coaching</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>.98</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective coaching</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>1.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolios</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional growth plans</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .05

Gender

A t-test was applied to test if there a significant difference exists between male and female perceptions of the actual use of selected supervisory practices (see Table 3). The results show that there is no significant difference between male and female teachers in their perception of the actual use of all supervisory approaches, except for actual use of cognitive coaching, t(197.76) = 1.08, p = .039. Male respondents perceive that cognitive coaching actually occurred somewhat more frequently than female respondents.

Table 3: Perception between teachers regarding the actual supervisory practices (in terms of gender)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisory Practices</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Relationship between instructional supervision and professional development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisory Practices</th>
<th>Gov’t (n=100)</th>
<th>Private (n=100)</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinical supervision</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peer coaching</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive coaching</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mentoring</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective coaching</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portfolios</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>1.94</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional growth plans</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: *p < .05

Government and private schools

Independent t-test results (Table 4) indicate that peer coaching was used more in private schools, t(197.33) = 1.02, p = .037 and portfolios more used in government schools, t(198) = 1.12, p < .001. However, there is no significant difference between government and private schools in the actual use of clinical supervision, cognitive coaching, mentoring, and professional growth plans.

RQ2: Is there a difference in attitude toward and satisfaction with supervisory practices between beginner and experienced secondary school teachers?

Beginner and experienced teachers were asked about their attitudes toward the supervisory processes in their schools. Eleven items in the attitudes scale and three items in the satisfaction scale were included and the results of independent t-test are provided in Table 5.
As shown in Table 5, there is no (statistically significant) difference between beginner and experienced teachers in their attitudes toward supervisory processes practiced at their schools. In general, based on the content of the items in the scale, it can be concluded that most teachers (beginner and experienced) were convinced of the need for instructional supervision, and believe that every teacher can benefit from instructional supervision. They perceive that supervision should be collaborative, promote professional growth and trust among teachers, and supervisory choices should be available to beginner teachers.

Similarly, results (in Table 5) indicated that there is no significant difference between beginner and experienced teachers in their satisfaction with supervisory practices. The mean score of the respondents imply that the majority of both beginner and experienced teachers have a neutral opinion about the frequency and quality of supervision received.

RQ3: What are the relationships of actual supervisory approaches, teachers’ attitudes and satisfaction toward supervisory practices with teachers’ professional development and what predictors contribute most to teachers’ professional development?

Pearson’s correlation analysis was performed to investigate strength of the relationship of professional development as perceived by teachers with scales of actual supervisory approaches, attitude and satisfaction. The results are summarized in Table 6 and show that teachers’ perception of actual supervisory approaches has positive and significant correlations with perceived professional development ($r = .25$ and $r = .21$, respectively). Similarly, moderate significant positive correlations were found between teachers’ attitude toward supervisory practices ($r = .36$) and their satisfaction with supervision ($r = .44$) with (perceived) professional development.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PASA</th>
<th>ATSA</th>
<th>SWS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation</td>
<td>.251**</td>
<td>.360**</td>
<td>.443**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>197</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: **$p < .01$
Predictors of professional development

Regression analysis was used in to test which of the predictors contribute most to professional development. Initially four separate regression models were conducted to see how each of the variables predicts professional development while controlling for teacher and school covariates.

The results of the four linear regression analyses (see Table 7) show that, after controlling for teacher and school-related variables (gender, experience and school type), all of the four scales are positively related to (perceived) professional development. The *actual supervisory approaches* have weak but positive significant relationships with professional development ($\beta = .25, p < .001$), *teachers’ attitude* ($\beta = .16, p = .017$); and *teachers’ satisfaction with supervision* ($\beta = .42$) has moderate positive relationship with (perceived) professional development. Furthermore, in all separate analyses, teachers’ years of experience shows a significant positive relationship with perceived professional development (ranges from $\beta = .18$-$\beta = .20$), which means that experienced teachers have a more positive perception of how supervision contributes to their professional development than beginner teachers.

Table 7: Regression model of predicting professional development using three predictors while controlling for teacher and school covariates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using Actual Supervisory Approaches</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>SE B</td>
<td>$\beta$</td>
<td>P values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actual supervisory approaches</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $R^2 = .112, \Delta R^2 = .061$; Significant variables bold printed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using Attitude toward Supervisory Practices</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.25</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.017</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude toward supervisory practices</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $R^2 = .188, \Delta R^2 = .124$; Significant variables bold printed

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Using Satisfaction with Supervision</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School type</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with supervision</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $R^2 = .232, \Delta R^2 = .170$; Significant variables bold printed

Finally, all the four predictors were put together in multiple regression analysis in order to see which of these predictors contribute most to professional development (see Table 8).
The results shown in Table 8 indicate that the first model (teacher and school related factors) accounted for 40 percent of the variance in professional development. However, the second model (including the four predictors) was able to account for 33 percent of the variance in professional development. Moreover, looking at the standardized β, we can observe that a moderate but significant positive relationship is found for two of the predictors: teachers’ attitude toward supervisory practices (β = .37) and satisfaction with supervision (β = .38). This finding implies that attitudes about and satisfaction with supervisory practices, and not actual supervisory practices, are contributing most in predicting professional development.

Furthermore, concerning teacher-related factors, of the three factors, only teachers’ years of experience shows a significant positive relationship with perceived professional development (β = .18, p = .003), which means that experienced teachers have a more positive perception of how supervision contributes to their professional development than beginner teachers. On the contrary, teacher’s gender and type of school are not significantly related to (perceived) professional development.

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

In this article, we examined teachers’ perception of instructional supervision and its relationship with professional development in private and government secondary schools of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia. The study also examined teachers’ attitudes toward and satisfaction with supervisory practices.

Teachers’ perception of the supervision process

Results in this study show that, except for reflective coaching, all other supervisory approaches – clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, and professional growth plans – were only occasionally applied for both beginner and experienced teachers. This result clearly indicates that supervisory options are not sufficiently available for beginner and experienced teachers. Various authors suggested that collaborative supervisory options, such as peer coaching, cognitive coaching, and mentoring should particularly be available for beginner teachers to enhance their professional development and instructional efficiency (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Showers & Joyce, 1996; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000).
Teachers’ attitude toward and satisfaction with supervisory practices

In a study of instructional supervision and teacher satisfaction, Fraser (1980, p. 224) stated that “the improvement of the teaching learning process was dependent upon teacher attitudes toward supervision”. Fraser further noted that unless teachers perceive instructional supervision as a process of promoting professional growth and student learning, the supervisory practice would not bring the desired effect. In line with this, the findings in this study show that both beginner and experienced teachers were convinced of the need for instructional supervision, and believe that every teacher can benefit from instructional supervision. They perceive that supervision should be collaborative, promote professional growth and trust among teachers, and supervisory choices should be available to beginner teachers. However, the majority of both beginner and experienced teachers have a neutral opinion on satisfaction with the general instructional supervisory processes. This implies they have reservations about the quality and amount of supervision provided in their schools.

Connection between instructional supervision and professional development

According to Nolan and Hoover (2008), instructional supervision is “an organizational function concerned with teacher growth, leading to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning” (p. 6). Similarly, Sullivan (1997) stated that fields of educational development, instructional supervision and professional development are interlinked; both focus on teacher effectiveness in the classroom and promote in their participants a sense of ownership, commitment, and trust toward instructional improvement (McQuarre & Wood, 19991). In this regard, our results show that both beginners and experienced teachers agree on the connection between instructional supervision and professional development. Moreover, the results confirmed that teachers’ perception of actual supervisory approaches, teachers’ attitude and satisfaction toward supervisory practices are significantly and positively correlated with professional development. However, the strongest predictors of professional development are teachers’ attitude toward and satisfaction with supervisory practices. Furthermore, the findings show that experienced teachers are more certain about the contributions of instructional supervision to their professional development than beginner teachers. In line with this finding, Glatthorn (1990) stated that experienced teachers have their own professional development needs and preferences, and are more confident about professional development as a result of instructional supervision.

REFERENCES


Beycioglu, K., & Donmez, B. (2009). Rethinking educational supervision. Inonu University Journal of the Faculty of Education, 10(2), 71-93.


