THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WOMEN PRINCIPAL INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES, TEACHER ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AND TEACHER PROFESSIONAL COMMUNITY PRACTICE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KUALA LUMPUR

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INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP
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KUALA LUMPUR

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THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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ORIGINAL LITERARY WORK DECLARATION

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Field of Study: Instructional Leadership

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ABSTRACT

With the implementation of the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025), the role of principal as an instructional leader has been widely debated in the education system. This debate is further extended to Malaysian women principals as instructional leaders on various factors influencing school outcomes. Therefore, this study aims to identify and analyze the relationship among women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment, teacher professional community practice and teacher demographic variables. The non-experimental quantitative study was conducted using a survey containing information on teacher demographic variables and 74 items related to women principal instructional leadership practice, teacher organizational commitment, and teacher professional community practice. Questionnaires were distributed to teachers in 39 Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools that were headed by women principals. A Total of 357 questionnaires were randomly selected as the final sample of analyses. Thereafter, data were analyzed with Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences and Analysis of Moment Structures. According to demographics of respondents, the majority (81.2%) were female and rest (18.8%) were male teachers, while most teachers (73.1%) were Malays, followed by Chinese (18.0%) and Indians (10.9%). Most of the respondents were aged between 31 and 40 years. Additionally, the majority of teachers (46.8%) had 10 years of teaching experience, with most of them (84.0%) have a bachelor’s degree. In addition, the main group of respondents (86.8%) had worked under their respective principals for less than 5 years. The researcher used numerical rating-scale and found a normal distribution of the data. The data were subjected to descriptive and inferential analysis. The findings show that school teachers rated their women principals as having moderate level of instructional leadership practices. The teachers rated themselves as having moderate level of teacher organizational commitment but a high level of teacher professional community practice.
Pearson product moment correlation shows a positive and significant relationship among women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher professional community practice and teacher organizational commitment. According to multiple regression analysis, only developing a positive school learning climate is a significant predicting dimension of teacher organizational commitment. Teacher professional community practice is a partial mediator between the relationship of women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment. The demographic variables of teachers such as gender, age, race, teaching experience, education level and years of service with respective principals act as a moderator to the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment. The model fitness indices reflect that the data collected from the respondents fit into the proposed model. Therefore, this study reveals that women principals have the potential to enhance professional community practice in schools but they need a well-organized training to enhance their instructional leadership practices and to uplift the level of teacher organizational commitment. Besides, policy makers can take some initiatives to apply this model for more effective and efficient teaching and learning processes in Malaysian schools.
ABSTRAK

Dengan pelaksanaan Pelan Pembangunan Pendidikan Malaysia (2013-2025), peranan pengetua sebagai pemimpin pengajaran telah banyak dibahaskan dalam sistem pendidikan. Perbahasan ini merangkumi pengetua wanita Malaysia sebagai pemimpin instruksional terhadap pelbagai faktor keberhasilan sekolah. Oleh itu, kajian ini bertujuan mengenal pasti dan menganalisis hubungan antara amalan kepemimpinan instruksional pengetua wanita, komitmen guru dalam organisasi, amalan profesional guru dalam komuniti dan faktor demografi guru. Kajian kuantitatif bukan eksperimen dijalankan dengan menggunakan kajian selidik yang meninjau faktor demografi guru dan 74 item berkaitan amalan kepemimpinan instruksional, komitmen guru dalam organisasi dan amalan profesional guru dalam komuniti. Borang soal selidik telah diedarkan kepada guru dari 39 sekolah menengah awam di Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur yang ditadbir oleh pengetua wanita. Sebanyak 357 soal selidik telah dipilih secara rawak untuk dianalisis dengan menggunakan Pakej Statistik Untuk Sains Sosial dan Analisis Struktur Moment. Menurut demografi guru, majoriti (81.2%) adalah wanita, berbanding dengan jumlah lelaki yang sedikit (18.8%), manakala kebanyakan responden (73.1%) adalah Melayu, diikuti dengan Cina (18.0%) dan India (10.9%). Kebanyakan responden adalah di antara usia 31 hingga 40 tahun. Tambahan pula, majoriti guru (46.8%) mempunyai pengalaman mengajar selama 10 tahun dan kebanyakan daripada mereka mempunyai ijazah sarjana muda (84.0%). Di samping itu, kumpulan responden yang utama (86.8%) berkerja kurang dari 5 tahun dengan pengetua mereka. Penyelidik menggunakan skala penilaian numerik dan mendapatkan data telah bertaburan normal. Data yang dikumpul tertakluk kepada analisis deskriptif dan inferensi. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa guru-guru sekolah menengah telah memberikan tahap skor min yang sederhana kepada amalan kepemimpinan pengajaran pengetua wanita dan komitmen guru dalam organisasi, tetapi tahap skor min yang lebih tinggi kepada amalan guru sebagai profesional dalam komuniti. Daripada
analisis korelasi Pearson, semua pemboleh ubah iaitu amalan kepemimpinan instruksional pengetua wanita, amalan profesional guru dalam komuniti dan komitmen guru dalam organisasi mempunyai hubungan korelasi yang positif dan signifikan antara satu sama lain. Menurut analisis regresi berganda, membangunkan iklim pembelajaran yang positif adalah satu-satunya peramal yang signifikan kepada komitmen guru dalam organisasi. Amalan profesional guru dalam komuniti adalah faktor pengantara separa antara hubungan amalan kepemimpinan instruksional pengetua wanita dan komitmen guru dalam organisasi. Antara pemboleh ubah demografi, hanya bangsa bertindak sebagai faktor pengantara dalam hubungan antara amalan kepemimpinan instruksional pengetua wanita dan komitmen guru dalam organisasi. Pemboleh ubah demografik guru-guru seperti jantina, umur, etnik, pengalaman mengajar, tahap pembelajaran dan jangka masa berkhidmat dengan pengetua yang berkenaan berfungsi sebagai moderator dalam perhubungan antara amalan kepemimpinan instruksional pengetua wanita dan komitmen guru dalam organisasi. Indeks ketepatan model menunjukkan data yang terkumpul adalah sesuai untuk model yang dicadangkan dalam kajian ini. Oleh itu, kajian ini menunjukkan bahawa pengetua wanita mempunyai potensi untuk menambahbaik amalan profesional komuniti di sekolah-sekolah tetapi mereka memerlukan latihan yang tersusun untuk mempertingkatkan amalan kepemimpinan instruksional mereka dan menambahbaik tahap komitmen guru dalam organisasi. Penggubal dasar juga boleh mengambil inisiatif untuk mengaplikasi model tersebut ke arah proses pengajaran dan pembelajaran yang lebih efektif dan efisien di sekolah-sekolah di Malaysia.
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DEDICATIONS

This thesis is dedicated to my

Father

Mohammad Abdul Mannan

And

Mother

Nasrin Jahan
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract ............................................................................................................................ iii
Abstrak ............................................................................................................................ v
Acknowledgements ......................................................................................................... vii
Dedications ......................................................................................................................... viii
Table of Contents ............................................................................................................ ix
List of Figures ................................................................................................................ xiv
List of Tables ................................................................................................................... xv
List of Symbols and Abbreviations .............................................................................. xviii
List of Appendices ......................................................................................................... xx

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION .................................................................................. 1
1.1 Introduction .............................................................................................................. 1
1.2 Problem statement ................................................................................................... 8
1.3 Research objectives ............................................................................................... 13
1.4 Research questions ................................................................................................ 14
1.5 Significance of the study ....................................................................................... 16
  1.5.1 Policy makers ........................................................................................... 16
  1.5.2 School leaders ........................................................................................... 17
  1.5.3 Teachers .................................................................................................... 17
  1.5.4 Stakeholders ............................................................................................. 18
  1.5.5 Researchers ............................................................................................... 18
1.6 Limitations of the study ......................................................................................... 19
1.7 Definition of terms ............................................................................................... 20
  1.7.1 Teacher organizational commitment ........................................................ 20
    1.7.1.1 Affective commitment ........................................................................ 20
### 1.7.1.2 Continuance commitment ......................................................... 20

### 1.7.1.3 Normative commitment ......................................................... 21

### 1.7.2 Principal instructional leadership practices .............................................. 21

#### 1.7.2.1 Defining the school mission ...................................................... 21

#### 1.7.2.2 Managing the instructional program ......................................... 22

#### 1.7.2.3 Developing the school learning climate .................................... 23

### 1.7.3 Teacher professional community practice ................................................ 24

### 1.8 Summary ................................................................................................. 25

### 1.9 Organization of this Study ........................................................................ 25

### CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW .................................................................... 26

#### 2.1 Introduction ............................................................................................. 26

#### 2.2 Organizational behavior ........................................................................... 27

##### 2.2.1 Organizational behavior in educational settings ................................ 29

##### 2.2.2 Organizational commitment ............................................................. 30

##### 2.2.3 Dimensions of organizational commitment ........................................ 32

##### 2.2.4 Research on teacher organizational commitment .............................. 35

##### 2.2.5 Summary of teacher organizational commitment research ................ 39

#### 2.3 Leadership ............................................................................................... 40

##### 2.3.1 Leadership practices and women .................................................... 42

###### 2.3.1.1 Women as educational leaders ..................................................... 45

##### 2.3.2 Leadership in educational settings .................................................... 49

###### 2.3.2.1 Principal instructional leadership practices .................................... 52

###### 2.3.2.2 Women principal instructional leadership practices ...................... 60

###### 2.3.2.3 Model of principal instructional leadership practices .................... 65

###### 2.3.2.4 Principal instructional leadership practices for school outcomes .......... 72
2.3.2.5 Summary of women PILP research ...................................................... 74

2.4 Teacher professional community practice ................................................... 74
  2.4.1 Measurement of teacher professional community practice ................... 83
  2.4.2 Role of TPCP in school outcomes .......................................................... 84
  2.4.3 Summary of teacher professional community practice research ............ 87

2.5 Relationship between women PILP, TOC, TPCP .......................................... 87
  2.5.1 Relationship between women PILP and TOC ...................................... 87
  2.5.2 Relationship between women PILP and TPCP .................................... 92
  2.5.3 Relationship between TOC and TPCP ................................................. 95
  2.5.4 Relationship between women PILP, TOC and TPCP ......................... 98

2.6 Teacher demographic variables ................................................................... 100
  2.6.1 Relationship between teacher demographic variables and TOC .......... 100
  2.6.2 Relationship between teacher demographic variables and women PILP ... 102

2.7 Theoretical framework ................................................................................. 103

2.8 Conceptual framework ............................................................................... 106

2.9 Public secondary education system, Malaysia ............................................. 109
  2.9.1 Organizational structure of secondary schools ..................................... 110
  2.9.2 Gender distribution of teachers and administrators in secondary schools .................................................. 111
  2.9.3 Role of TPCP in secondary schools ...................................................... 111

2.10 Research gap ............................................................................................... 112

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY ............................................................................. 115

3.1 Introduction .................................................................................................... 115

3.2 Research design ............................................................................................ 115
  3.2.1 Research sample and population ....................................................... 118
3.2.2 Research instrument ................................................................. 122
  3.2.2.1 Numerical rating scale ..................................................... 125
3.3 Pilot study ..................................................................................... 127
  3.3.1 Validity .................................................................................. 127
  3.3.2 Reliability .............................................................................. 129
3.4 Data collection procedure ............................................................ 131
3.5 Research ethics ............................................................................. 132
3.6 Analysis of data ............................................................................ 132
  3.6.1 Descriptive statistics .............................................................. 133
    3.6.1.1 Measuring mean and standard deviation ....................... 133
  3.6.2 Inferential statistics ............................................................... 134
    3.6.2.1 Normality of the data ..................................................... 135
    3.6.2.2 Pearson product-moment correlation ............................ 136
    3.6.2.3 Multiple regression analysis .......................................... 137
    3.6.2.4 Structural equation modeling ....................................... 138
3.7 Summary ..................................................................................... 143

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS .................................................. 144
4.1 Introduction .................................................................................. 144
4.2 Teacher Demographic profiles ................................................... 145
4.3 Data analysis .............................................................................. 147
  4.3.1 Descriptive statistics .............................................................. 147
  4.3.2 Pearson product moment correlation coefficient .............. 162
  4.3.3 Multiple regression analysis ................................................. 172
  4.3.4 Structural equation modeling .............................................. 175
  4.3.5 Summary of the results ......................................................... 191
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION ................. 192

5.1 Introduction ......................................................................................... 192

5.2 Summary of the findings ....................................................................... 194

5.3 Discussion ......................................................................................... 196

  5.3.1 Teacher organizational commitment ...................................................... 196

  5.3.2 Women principal instructional leadership practices ............................. 199

  5.3.3 Teacher professional community practice .............................................. 208

  5.3.4 Relationship between women PILP and TOC ........................................ 211

  5.3.5 Relationship between women PILP and TPCP .............................. 213

  5.3.6 Relationship between TOC and TPCP .............................................. 216

  5.3.7 Role of predicting dimension of women PILP on TOC ......................... 218

  5.3.8 Role of TPCP as a mediator between women PILP and TOC .......... 220

  5.3.9 Relationship between teacher demographic variables, women PILP,
      TOC ........................................................................................................ 224

  5.3.10 Fitness of conceptual model ............................................................... 225

5.4 Conclusion .......................................................................................... 227

5.5 Implications .......................................................................................... 230

  5.5.1 Implications for teacher organizational commitment ......................... 231

  5.5.2 Implications for women principal instructional leadership practices .... 232

  5.5.3 Implications for teacher professional community practice .......... 233

5.6 Recommendations for future research .................................................. 234

References ................................................................................................ 237

List of Publications and Papers Presented ............................................... 262

Appendix ........................................................................................................ 266
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: PIMRS conceptual framework (Hallinger, 2013) ........................................... 66
Figure 2.2: The theoretical framework of the study ...................................................... 106
Figure 2.3: The conceptual framework of the study ..................................................... 109
Figure 3.1: Research procedure for the study ............................................................... 116
Figure 4.1: The results show the direct effect of women PILP on TOC ....................... 176
Figure 4.2: The standard regression weights for every path in the proposed model .... 177
Figure 4.3: The AMOS output showing when race was inserted in the model .......... 179
Figure 4.4: The line graph showing the effect of different races .............................. 181
Figure 4.5: The AMOS output showing when gender inserted in the model .......... 182
Figure 4.6: The AMOS output showing when age was inserted in the model ........ 183
Figure 4.7: The AMOS output showing when education level was inserted in the model ................................................................. 184
Figure 4.8: The AMOS output showing when teaching experience was inserted in the model ........................................................................................................... 186
Figure 4.9: The AMOS output showing when years of service with respective principals was inserted in the model ................................................................. 187
Figure 4.10: The proposed model ............................................................................. 190
Figure 5.1: The proposed model linking women PILP, TOC, TPCP and teacher demographic variables ......................................................................................... 195
LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: Number of schools and teachers of three zones ........................................... 119
Table 3.2: Number of sample size from each zone ....................................................... 120
Table 3.3: Number of schools required from each zones and actual number of teachers .......................................................................................................................... 121
Table 3.4: Number of items and dimensions of women PILP ...................................... 124
Table 3.5: Number of items and dimensions of TOC ................................................... 124
Table 3.6: Number of items of TPCP............................................................................ 125
Table 3.7: Cronbach’s coefficient alpha values of all dimensions (N=41) ................. 130
Table 3.8: Normality test for all dimensions of variables ............................................. 136
Table 3.9: The correlation coefficient and the strength of correlation ....................... 137
Table 3.10: The value of $R^2$ ........................................................................................... 138
Table 3.11: Goodness of fit indices ............................................................................... 141
Table 3.12: Intended data analysis according to research questions ............................. 142
Table 4.1: Teacher demographic profile ....................................................................... 145
Table 4.2: Descriptive statistics for TOC ...................................................................... 147
Table 4.3: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of affective commitment ...................................... 148
Table 4.4: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of continuance commitment ............................... 149
Table 4.5: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of normative commitment ................................. 150
Table 4.6: Descriptive statistics of women PILP .......................................................... 151
Table 4.7: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of framing the school’s goals .............................. 152
Table 4.8: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of communicating the school’s goals .................. 153
Table 4.9: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of supervising & evaluating instruction .......... 154
Table 4.10: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of coordinating the curriculum ......................... 155
Table 4.11: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of monitoring student progress .............. 155
Table 4.12: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of protecting instructional time .................. 156
Table 4.13: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of maintaining high visibility .................. 157
Table 4.14: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of providing incentives for teachers .......... 158
Table 4.15: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of promoting professional development ....... 159
Table 4.16: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of providing incentives for learning .......... 159
Table 4.17: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of TPCP ................................................. 161
Table 4.18: Relationship between women PILP and TOC .................................. 163
Table 4.19: Relationship between defining the school mission and TOC .............. 164
Table 4.20: Relationship between managing instructional program and TOC ....... 165
Table 4.21: Relationship between school learning climate and TOC .................... 166
Table 4.22: Relationship with women PILP and TPCP ........................................ 168
Table 4.23: Relationship between defining school mission and TPCP .................... 169
Table 4.24: Relationship between managing the instructional program and TPC ..... 169
Table 4.25: Relationships between developing the learning climate and TPCP ....... 170
Table 4.26: Relationship between TOC and TPCP ............................................. 171
Table 4.27: Multiple regression (Stepwise) between women PILP and TOC ........... 173
Table 4.28: Multiple regression (Stepwise) of ANOVA result .............................. 174
Table 4.29: Standardized regression weights & significance for variable .............. 175
Table 4.30: Standardized regression weights & significance for variable .............. 176
Table 4.31: Standard regression weights & its effects for each path .................... 177
Table 4.32: Testing the moderating effects of women PILP × race on TOC .......... 180
Table 4.33: Testing the moderating effects of women PILP × gender on TOC ...... 182
Table 4.34: Testing the moderating effects of women PILP × age on TOC .......... 183
Table 4.35: Testing the moderating effects of women PILP × edu.lev on TOC ...... 185
Table 4.36: Testing moderating effects of women PILP × exp. of teacher on TOC .... 186
Table 4.37: Testing moderating effects of women PILP × yrs of service on TOC ...... 187
Table 4.38: Model fitness........................................................................................................... 188
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AC</td>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>AMOS</td>
<td>Analysis of Moment Structures</td>
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<td>ANOVA</td>
<td>Analysis of variances test</td>
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<td>CC</td>
<td>Continuance commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>Comparative fit index</td>
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<tr>
<td>Chisq/df</td>
<td>Chi square/degrees of freedom</td>
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<tr>
<td>Const.</td>
<td>Construct</td>
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<tr>
<td>C.R.</td>
<td>Composite reliability</td>
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<td>DCM</td>
<td>Defining school mission</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DSLC</td>
<td>Developing school learning climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DV</td>
<td>Dependent variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPPRD</td>
<td>Educational Policy Planning and Research Division</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EPRD</td>
<td>Education Planning and Research Division</td>
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<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>Goodness-of-fit statistic</td>
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<td>HRD</td>
<td>Human Resource Division</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Aminuddin Baki Institute</td>
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<td>Institute of Educational Leadership</td>
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<td>Independent variable</td>
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<td>Kurt.</td>
<td>Kurtosis</td>
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<td>LCE</td>
<td>Lower Certificate of Education</td>
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<td>M</td>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>MIP</td>
<td>Managing instructional program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOE</td>
<td>Ministry of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MV</td>
<td>Mediating variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abbreviation</td>
<td>Description</td>
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<td>--------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>Normative commitment</td>
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<tr>
<td>PBSMR</td>
<td>Penilaian Berasaskan Sekolah Menengah Rendah</td>
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<tr>
<td>PILP</td>
<td>Principal instructional leadership practices</td>
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<td>PIMRS</td>
<td>Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale</td>
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<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
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<td>PLC</td>
<td>Professional learning community</td>
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<td>PT3</td>
<td>Pentaksiran Tingkatan 3’</td>
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<td>PTA</td>
<td>Parent-Teacher Associations</td>
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<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>Root-mean-square-error of approximation</td>
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<td>SD</td>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
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<td>SPM</td>
<td>Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia</td>
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<td>SPSS</td>
<td>Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences</td>
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<td>Stand.</td>
<td>Standardized co-efficient</td>
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<td>Three-Component Model</td>
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<td>TOC</td>
<td>Teacher organizational commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPCP</td>
<td>Teacher professional community practice</td>
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<tr>
<td>TTTs</td>
<td>Teacher Training Institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unstand.</td>
<td>Unstandardized co-efficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A: Details of the items based on the experts’ comments of the survey instrument 266
Appendix B: Survey instrument 273
Appendix C: Seeking permission for the adaptation of PIMRS survey instrument (Email Professor Dr. Philip Hallinger) 284
Appendix D: Seeking permission for the adaptation of TCM survey instrument (Email Professor John P Meyer) 286
Appendix E: Seeking permission for the adaptation of TPCP survey instrument (Email Professor Moosung Lee) 288
Appendix F: Instrument’s content validity panel 290
Appendix G: Permission letter from EPRD 291
Appendix H: Permission letter from District Education Office, Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur 292
Appendix I: List of schools headed by women principals, Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur 293
Appendix J: Graphical representation of teacher demography 296
Appendix K: Normality curves 299
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Education is the process of facilitating learning, or the accumulating of knowledge, skills, beliefs, values and habits. Education plays a role to underpin the development of a good quality citizen for the nation’s social, cultural and economic growth (Siwar & Abdulai, 2011) and in the pursuit of national values and aspirations and to transform Malaysia into a hub of educational excellence (Azman, Sirat, & Pang, 2016). To achieving the nation’s aim, many initiatives are taken by the education system. Along with that, the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025) has focused the quality of teaching practices of teachers as one of the domain factors to accomplish the success of the education system (Ministry of Education, 2013).

Teachers are crucial and fundamental players in enhancing school effectiveness because they have actual strength for producing quality students during teaching and learning practices (Ministry of Education, 2013). Ensuring high quality of teaching practice is a vital demand for academic achievement of students in schools (Raman, Ling & Khalid, 2015). The quality of teaching practices can make a difference for the school success besides improving student learning. Since teaching practices are associated with various professional activities of teachers within schools, it is fundamental for the teachers to be committed within schools to pay full concentrations on improving student outcomes (Kim & Sheridan, 2015). Moreover, the highly committed teachers are capable of improving student academic performance and transforming the schools into excellent schools (Raman et al., 2015).

Furthermore, the teachers who are committed toward the organization can prove themselves as dedicated performers in improving and advancing student outcomes (Crosswell, 2006; Hulpia, Devos, & Vankeer, 2011). In contrast, the teachers who lack
of full concentration, willingness and seriousness can affect school outcomes (Alderman, 2013). This is because the committed teachers perform their professional responsibilities beyond their personal affairs and remain in the job from their psychological view, nurturing not only students’ knowledge but also affecting students’ manners directly (Brookfield & Preskill, 2012). This level of teacher commitment has upgraded the quality of teaching and enhanced learning practices within schools. These circumstances are vital for school effectiveness that influence and have a great impact on the overall education system for any country (Kim & Sheridan, 2015).

Commitment of teachers depends on their psychological bonding to their schools, students, teaching and profession (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 2013); therefore the consistency of teacher commitment relies on several factors. Many researchers identified different types of commitment during the career of employees (Bermúdez-González, Sasaki, & Tous-Zamora, 2016; Bogler & Nir, 2012; Gerard, Varma, Corliss, & Linn, 2011; Hulpia et al., 2011; Kelchtermans, 2005; Liu, 2016; Ugboro & Obeng, 2015; Wang, 2015; Yalabik, Van Rossenberg, Kinnie, & Swart, 2015).

From the perspectives of different types of commitment, the researcher of this study pays attention to teacher organizational commitment (TOC) that is identified as the root of all types of employee commitment (Nesje, 2016). Organizational commitment has multidimensional perspectives (Allen & Meyer, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 2004; Somech & Bogler, 2002) though it consists of acceptance, trust and willingness of employees toward the organization (Bogler & Nir, 2012; Kurland & Hasson-Gilad, 2015). Organizational commitment, furthermore, concerns the employees’ emotional and physical involvement to bring good impact for the organization. Teacher organizational commitment acts as an imperative variable in maintaining the link between organization and employees’ association (Bond, 2015; Chen et al., 2015).
Moreover, organizational commitment states employees’ job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, responsibility and loyalty during their career (Brookfield, 2015; Yalabik et al., 2015) and motivation in their job activities (Yousaf, Yang, & Sanders, 2015). The organizational commitment relates positively with lower turnover rate, minimized absenteeism, developed organizational citizenship behavior and success within organizational changes (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Nagar, 2012).

Though schools are social organizations, teacher organizational commitment is a crucial factor for student learning and higher quality of teaching practices (Hulpia et al., 2011; Thein, Razak, & Ramayah, 2014) having indirect effect on student outcomes and subsequently result in school effectiveness (Hamid, Nordin, Adnan, & Sirun, 2013; Liu et al., 2016; Murphy & Torff, 2016; Sun, 2015). In addition, teacher organizational commitment is associated with different standpoints, such as desire-based, cost-based and obligation-based that are respectively indicated as three dimensions, such as affective, normative and continuance commitment of employees (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

The levels of teacher organizational commitment between people to people fluctuate due to influence of several organizational variables. Similarly, personal characteristics, such as gender of school leaders have significant effect on employee commitment levels (Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Miller (2002), for example, has suggested to address the significance of leadership practices on gender in education sectors that foster to promote teacher organizational commitment. Addressing this issue, many researchers have paid great attention to leadership practices of women in education sectors from the 20th century to date (Abu-Tineh, 2013; Adams & Hambright, 2004; Alexander, 2013; Arar & Oplatka, 2016; Atieno, 2013; Bissessar, 2013; Oplatka, 2006; Powell, 2011).
Women contributions in education sectors play a vital role in both national and global levels to balance gender equality in society. Therefore, hiring and retaining women teachers have come into main concern with the aim of advancing girls’ education in many countries (Kirk, 2004; Wellington, 2015). Likewise, Malaysia has reserved some steps to endow the women in each and every field especially in ensuring a growing number of girls obtain a good education. These initiatives attempt to boost up their contributions in decision making which help them to attain leadership positions (Teh, Wong, Lee, & Loh, 2014). As a result, almost half of the secondary schools (49%) in Malaysia are headed by women principals (Ministry of Education, 2015).

Generally, the teaching profession is occupied by women for several years. In fact, the accountability of women within schools have revealed grass-root levels to high-level which prepared them well systematized for developing the schools. Women have patience and capability to focus on others’ capacity and nurtured others’ spirit as designers, so that the great achievements are indicated by them to build up a relational environment within the school community (Roebuck et al., 2013). In this way, women principals have established a collaborative atmosphere for promoting teacher commitment level in schools (Abu-Tineh, 2013; Shakeshaft et al., 2007).

In terms of leadership practices of school principals, the Malaysia Education Blueprint has emphasized instructional leadership practices of school principals for several decades (Ministry of Education, 2013). Therefore, many researchers have put effort to find out the instructional leadership practices of principals in educational settings. For example, Noor (2007) investigated how women principals are effective in developing teacher self-efficacy through instructional leadership practices in Johor schools. Ghavifekr et al. (2015) found that principal instructional leadership practices have greatly impacted on the shared mission and clear goals, professional leadership, a continuous
program for monitoring teacher progress, and teacher professional growth. In addition, Abdullah and Kassim (2011) examined how higher level of instructional leadership practices developed the higher level relationship between learning cultures as well as teachers’ attitude toward the organization.

Sazali et al. (2007) revealed that principal instructional leadership practices can help to define the school mission in a proper way. These leadership practices lead the schools to become effective organization. The instructional leaders, moreover, have strength to communicate the desired mission and vision among teachers for improving schools (Ahmad & Ghavifekr, 2014). Jefri (2004) found a positive and significant relationship between teachers’ satisfaction and principal instructional leadership practices in schools. In other words, principal instructional leadership practices exhibit the leaders as responsible for school outcomes. Based on this, Sharma et al. (2016) stated that “Effective leaders are proactive and seek help that is needed. They also promote an instructional program and school culture conducive to learning and professional growth” (p. 163). Zain, Muniandy, and Hashim (2016) mentioned that an instructional principal must have a great impact to influence the teachers for enhancing teaching and learning practices for students’ academic achievement.

Furthermore, women principals are acknowledged as instructional leaders since they are associated with sharing vision and goals, motivating and fostering teachers, creating teacher professional community practices and act as coaches for mentoring teachers to develop their classroom instruction (Arar & Oplatka, 2016). They are also experienced in curriculum development, managing instructional programs to develop teaching and learning in a collaborative and participatory manner (Nogay & Beebe, 2008). Therefore, the positive attitude of women principals expose them as successful
leaders for improving the quality of teaching through teacher organizational commitment (Moorosi, 2010).

Malaysian researchers found the relationship between principal instructional leadership practices and students’ academic performance (Sekhu, 2011). Other study by Premavathy (2010) stated that students’ academic performance is associated with principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment. Regarding this issue, some studies marked teacher professional community practice as one of the dominant factors in linking teacher organizational commitment and principal instructional leadership practices (Hallinger, Lee, & Ko, 2014; Lee, Louis, & Anderson, 2012). Leithwood As schools are ongoing organizations, every professional in the community must occupy with colleagues in the continuing investigation within a teacher professional community practice (TPCP) (Ball & Harrison, 2015; Lee et al., 2012; Li, Hallinger, & Walker, 2015). The concept of teacher professional community practice has been theorized in the 1980s (Ho, Lee, & Teng, 2016) that has positive and significant relationship with the teaching practices due to improving learning activities in schools (Lee et al., 2012).

Teacher professional community practice fosters improvement in teachers’ personal, interpersonal and organizational capacities and their commitments to professional development, as well as students’ achievements (Pancucci, 2008; Stoll et al., 2006). Teacher professional community practice is proved to be transformative for high impact of teaching and learning method, management and school leadership within a team. When there is a professional community practice in a school, the teachers improve their teaching quality through sharing their knowledge with each other in a supportive environment (Hord & Sommers, 2008).
Furthermore, Hausman and Goldring (2014) have suggested that teacher professional community practice has a dominant role in developing TOC in schools. It has positive influence on collective and supportive alignment that have enhanced the commitment levels of teachers (Lee, Zhang, & Yin, 2011). Teacher professional community practice can deliver a clear message to all practitioners regarding the appearance of lifelong learners in schools (Lee et al., 2012). Instructional leaders have a responsibility to improve the instruction in developing TPCP for enhancing school outcomes (Brenninkmeyer & Spillane, 2008; Goldring, Huff, May, & Camburn, 2008; Louis, Dretzke, & Wahlstrom, 2010).

Various studies have revealed that the relationship among teacher organizational commitment (TOC), women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher demographic variables act as usable outcome for developing the teaching and learning practices in schools. Therefore the researcher in this study has focused on teacher demographic variables such as gender, age, race and teaching experience, education level of teachers and years of service with respective principals. This study also pays attention to how teacher professional community practice (TPCP) acts as a mediator on the relationship of teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP).

In education sectors, there is still a big gap in research regarding how women school principals in developing countries practise their leadership for improving teaching and learning practices in schools (Abu-Tineh, 2013). Similarly in Malaysia, there is insufficient study concerning gender issues in the field of education. Underlining these scores, there is a need to investigate the relationship among women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP), teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher
professional community practice (TPCP) and teacher demographic variables in public secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

1.2 Problem statement

Secondary education is an imperative stage for producing good quality citizen because education at this level forms the core of the education system. Therefore, the Ministry of Education Malaysia has drawn some objectives for secondary education, for example to foster the personal development of students, preparation for secondary examination and international test, social capital and cultural thought; religious and moral contribution to the society and country (Ministry of Education, 2013).

The aims of secondary education can be reachable with the honest and sincere efforts from teachers. Yet, the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025) has claimed the lack of quality teaching that has received abundant criticism and public enquiry from parents who want higher quality education to prepare today’s students for future needs (Ministry of Education, 2013).

Malaysian researchers Raman et al. (2015), in fact, have noted that the classroom activities of teachers have direct impact on student outcomes. They also stated that committed teachers are a pivotal factor for improving student outcomes and school effectiveness. This is further supported by many researchers who found that the teachers are easily motivated to perform their teaching activities willingly when they have high commitment toward their organizations (Gupta & Gehlawat, 2013; Noordin et al., 2010; Shirzadi et al., 2013; Thein et al., 2014).

Besides that, teacher organizational commitment empirically is one of the main factors in ensuring teacher retention, job satisfaction, job performance, reduced absenteeism and teacher capability to adopt new teaching practices and future success in education
sectors (Chan et al., 2008; Meyer et al., 2002; Nagar, 2012). On the contrary, teacher organizational commitment has been paid little attention in educational research (Raman et al., 2015).

Additionally teacher organizational commitment and the effectiveness of a school depend largely on a supportive and collaborative culture. The importance of effective school principal is undeniable, especially to enhance commitment levels of teachers through productive learning and high quality of teaching (Lee & Ahmad, 2009; Ministry of Education, 2013). It is vital factor for principals to concentrate on the vision, goals and direction of schools, and accumulate schoolwide commitment toward the school goals. Regarding these perspectives, principal instructional leadership practices emerges as a determining factor because of their potential for maintaining supportive and collaborative relationship with the teachers to enhance their commitment that directly impact on student learning and quality of teaching in schools (Hallinger et al., 2015).

Since a great number of women are in the principal position but very few literature are found in Malaysian context, so the researcher has focused on finding out the perceptions of teachers regarding women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment from public secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. In addition, there are eighty-two public secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur while sixty-one schools are administered by women principals in three zones of this state (District Education Office, Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, 2015).

Teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and women principal instructional leadership practices in secondary schools are determined by other factors such as teacher demographic variables. Teacher demographic variables for instance gender, age, race, education level of teachers, teaching experience and years of service with respective
principals function as dominant outcome for the perceptions of teacher about teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP). Regarding this aspect, some researchers noted gender, age of teachers and teaching experience as important determinants of teacher organizational commitment (Ling & Ibrahim, 2013; Noordin et al., 2010). On the contrary, some researchers found not any significant relationship with age, education level of employees and organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and leader’s behavior (Mathieu et al., 2016). Atieno (2013) found no relationship between teacher demographic variables and women principal leadership practices. Other researchers, such as Gumus and Akcaoglu (2013) found teachers’ gender as significant in perceptions of their principal instructional leadership practices.

As Malaysia is a multiracial country, Teh et al. (2014) focused on race but did not find any significant relationship between race and teacher commitment, principal leadership in schools. These discrepancies in this context have encouraged the researcher to focus on teacher demographics as moderating variables in this study. Thus, the researcher posed a pertinent question regarding teacher organizational commitment, women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher demographic variables.

Malaysian researchers, Tahir et al. (2015) mentioned that principals are busy with administrative and managerial work hence parting from supervising and monitoring teachers’ duties. Consistent with that, Aziz et al. (2015) found in their literature review that the lack of guidance of school leaders is one of the factor for underperforming the students in the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), Trends in Mathematics and Science Studies (TIMSS). However, Sharma and Kannan (2012) found that the lack of guidance of instructional principals influence the commitment level of teachers. Relatively, Hallinger and Bryant (2013) found that there was a lack in
implementing instructional leadership practices in effective ways in schools of Asian principals.

Therefore, in order to ensure teaching quality in schools, a steady school workforce may contribute to an augmented focus on teacher accountability, student concerns, and school achievement. As schools are ongoing organizations, all professionals in the community have to occupy themselves in the continuing investigation within a teacher professional community practices (TPCP) (Lee et al., 2012). TPCP is another prominent variable that can afford teachers with regular feedback on student learning and can enhance teaching quality through a shared and reflective conversation (Li et al., 2016). Many studies have proven that school principals should act as a coach through their instructional leadership for more effective enhancement of teacher professional community practice (Hallinger, Lee, & Ko, 2014). Therefore, another question is posed to find out the perceptions of teachers regarding their professional community practice under women principal instructional leadership practices in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

Teacher professional community practice has a strength to prepare the practitioners as lifelong learners (Lee et al., 2012); for what is a bourgeoning point to enrich the commitment of teachers toward their organization. Many researchers revealed that TPCP has a positive and significant effect on TOC. For instance, the supports of a committed workforce held a firmer collegial base and less stress associated with turnover (Collie, Shapka, Perry, & Martin, 2015). In addition, the collective and supportive alignment of instructional principals can also enhance teacher organizational commitment whereas teacher professional community practice (TPCP) acts as a mediator to enhance TOC within schools (Hallinger, Lee & Ko, 2014; Hausman & Goldring, 2014). Therefore, TPCP in schools has now seen as important in formulating education system but in Asian
countries, it has been addressed recently (Walker, Lee, & Bryant, 2014). Likewise, Abdullah and Ghani (2014) stated the concept of professional community is like a “new born baby” in Malaysia. These circumstances have posed another question: does teacher professional community practice act as a mediator on the relationship between teacher organizational commitment and women principal instructional leadership practices in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

From various perspectives the researcher of this study focus to address the link between women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher professional community practice and teacher organizational commitment and teacher demographic variables. In order to find out the level of teachers’ perceptions and relationship of these variables, the researcher used non-experimental quantitative approach by using surveys. Regarding this, the three-component model (TCM) (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) was identified because it is a leading model to find out employee perceptions toward their organizations in social science. The principal instructional management rating scale (PIMRS) (Hallinger, 2013) was used to analyze women principal instructional leadership practices that act as the most distributed model in instructional leadership practices (Leithwood et al., 2008). Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) developed six items to find out the level of TPCP in Hong Kong and the researcher used in this study due to its item consistency with the Malaysian context.

Much studies have been focused principal instructional leadership practices with great attention in this context while little attention has been concerned investigating the empirical connection between teacher professional community practice and teacher organizational commitment. There are still very few studies to support the relationship among the variables: women PILP, TOC, TPCP and teacher demographic variables (age, gender, race, education level of teachers, teaching experience and years of service of
teachers with respective principals) in Malaysia. Therefore, there was a requirement to investigate their positions in terms of the relationship among women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment (TOC), and teacher professional community practice (TPCP) and teacher demographic variables in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

1.3 Research objectives

The overall objective of this research is to investigate the relationship of women principal instructional leadership practices on teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice in public secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. This study is targeted at achieving the following objectives:

1. To assess the perception of teachers regarding teacher organizational commitment (TOC), women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) and teacher professional community practice (TPCP) in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

2. To analyze the relationship among women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) and teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice (TPCP) in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

3. To examine the predicting dimensions of the women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) on teacher organizational commitment (TOC) in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

4. To examine whether teacher professional community practice (TPCP) mediate the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment (TOC) in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.
5. To find out the moderating effect of teachers’ demographic variables such as, gender, age, race, education level of teachers, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals for the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

6. To develop a proposed model involving women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment (TOC), teacher professional community practice (TPCP) validate to collect the data from Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

1.4 Research questions

In line with the objectives, the researcher, specifically, set up the following questions.

RQ.1 What are the perceptions of teachers regarding their organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

RQ.2 What are the perceptions of teachers regarding women principal instructional leadership practices in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

RQ.3 What are the perceptions of teachers regarding teacher professional community practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

RQ.4 Is there any significant relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?
RQ.5 Is there any significant relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

RQ.6 Is there any significant relationship between teacher professional community practice and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

RQ.7 Which predicting dimensions of women principal instructional leadership practices have contributed to teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

RQ.8 Does teacher professional community practice act as a mediator for the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

RQ.9 Do teacher demographic variables such as gender, age, race, education level of teachers, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals act as moderator for the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

RQ.10 Do the data linking with women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice collected from Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools fit in the proposed model?
1.5 Significance of the study

The Government in Malaysia has financed markedly for enhancing the educational program for teaching and learning as well as for enhancing the capacities of school leaders and various programs related to school improvement. Therefore, principal accountability has put remarkable pressure on school workforces, for student learning and teaching in schools. In these circumstances, many scholars have provided the evidence that lack of teacher organizational commitment toward the schools decreased the teaching quality in Malaysia. The education system of Malaysia also stressed the importance of principal instructional leadership practices for improving student learning and teaching quality (Ministry of Education, 2013). Hence, this study has proposed a model which could enhance the teaching and learning practices through the relationship of women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP), teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice (TPCP) in public secondary schools in Malaysia. The findings of this research are not only beneficial for the Ministry of Education, Malaysia to provide effective education policy but also pay for educators such as school leaders, teachers, and stakeholders. The following paragraphs have explained the inevitability of this study.

1.5.1 Policy makers

To enhance the quality of education, the Ministry of Education, Malaysia has designed a blueprint regarding education policy. The rudimentary aim of the policy is to progress the level of leadership and teaching to infuse quality education in public secondary schools of Malaysia (Ministry of Education, 2013). Recently, the government is targeting to build up Malaysia as a regional hub for higher studies within Asia. Therefore, this study will not only focus on instructional leadership practices of secondary school principals but also emphasized women school principal leadership practices. This is because a great number of women principals have led in secondary schools in Malaysia.
Besides this, the researcher focused on a proposed model for improving teacher organizational commitment (TOC) in schools through the upgrading of TPCP by women principal instructional leadership practices. The findings of this study could help the Ministry of Education (MOE), specifically Aminuddin Baki Institute (IAB) (training institute for principals). They can take some initiatives to promote principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice within schools. Besides that, the findings on women principal instructional leadership practices may be used as one of the factors related to learners’ outcomes.

1.5.2 School leaders

Since the literature on women principal leadership practices is very limited, this study can develop the guidelines for women principal leadership practices in Malaysia. Hence, the researcher has forwarded the message not only to women principals but also all principals regarding the impact of TPCP on TOC for teaching and learning practices in secondary schools in Malaysia. Instructional principals have needed strength for establishing teacher organizational commitment for student learning and success. The findings of this study have revealed that principal instructional leadership practice can work as a connector for positive step to teacher organizational commitment (TOC) where TPCP acts as a promoter for establishing TOC within schools.

1.5.3 Teachers

In education sectors, the teachers have direct influence on student outcomes. Teachers act as exemplary characters for the students. Hence, accumulating teacher organizational commitment directly results in enhancing the quality of teaching and learning process in schools. The Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025) reported that students are not getting proper feedback from the teachers due to lack of teaching quality. Therefore,
leaders need awareness to develop the teacher organizational commitment. As mentioned earlier, there is a significant relationship between TPCP and TOC which referred teachers as part of sharing knowledge and discussing new areas among themselves for ensuring TPCP in schools. Besides this, the Ministry of Education (2013) targeted to upgrade Malaysian children to strive at international level, yet, this aim is still underdeveloped. The intention of ensuring TPCP in the schools is a vital factor in nurturing the new generation.

1.5.4 Stakeholders

This study will give the clear ideas to private sectors to assess or hire their leaders. In this context, this study would identify the strengths and weaknesses of leadership practices of principals that would express the potential connection among the centralized structure of the Malaysian educational system and the other stakeholders. Results of this research work can show a route for the stakeholder for paying attention to TOC and TPCP in improving the quality of education. In addition, there is an emergent point to reform the principal’s selection process as well as requiring the different training programs for improving leadership and teaching quality.

1.5.5 Researchers

The model in this study can be used as a guideline for the successful women principal instructional leadership practices to enhance teacher organizational commitment and to establish teacher professional community practice in secondary schools. This study has an imperative contribution to the literature for further studies to promote interest and obtain more meaningful research using different methods that could create better knowledge in education reform efforts. From various literature, it is proved that such integration is not evident in Malaysian education. The model presented in this research
can be revealed to bridge the gap in knowledge to researchers on how school leaders can enhance teaching quality and ensure their followers as lifelong learners.

1.6 Limitations of the study

This research work was conducted in thirty-nine public secondary schools out of sixty-one public secondary schools headed by women principals. Therefore, the findings from the study should not be generalized to all Malaysian women principals in public secondary schools as the respondents in this study were focused only in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. This population was selected for the study due to a great number of women principals occupied in secondary schools in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur.

Secondly, the researcher collected the data only using a close-ended questionnaire for research instrument without involving observations and interviews. The researcher used non-experimental quantitative method because it is easier to collect the data through questionnaires in a short way and also possible to use a large sample to generalize the findings (Chua, 2012). On the other hand, the researcher only used the questionnaire regarding women principal instructional leadership practice, teacher organizational commitment, teacher professional community practices and teacher demographic variables to collect the data, so the perceptions of teachers are only dependent on respondents’ sincerity and honesty in answering the questionnaire. The researcher could not use diversified research methods because of timing, cost and citizenship constraints.

Third, many aspects may influence teacher organizational commitment toward schools such as their demographic background or the working environment. However, only three factors were considered in this study: affective, continuance and normative commitment. Besides this, there are various types of leadership practices contributing to teacher
organizational commitment, yet this study has been confined to only women principal instructional leadership practices.

1.7 Definition of terms

In order to clarify this study, the studied variables are operationally defined in the following:

1.7.1 Teacher organizational commitment

Teacher organizational commitment (TOC) is recognized as employees’ devotion, readiness to employ strength, willingness of accomplishing goal and value, and wish to remain as members of their organization (Meyer et al., 2002). However, this study identified teacher organizational commitment based on the three-component model (TCM) (Meyer et al., 1993). The TCM survey questionnaire measures three forms of employee commitment toward the organization: affective, continuance and normative commitment.

1.7.1.1 Affective commitment

Affective commitment has strongly related with employees’ emotional connection, credentials with, and attachment to the organization (Meyer et al., 2002). In other words, it shows employees’ turnover intention and turnover. Meyer et al. (1993) developed a 6-item with 6-rating scale for affective commitment and the researcher used a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale for measuring the perceptions of teachers regarding this dimension (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

1.7.1.2 Continuance commitment

Continuance commitment refers to employees’ wishes for remaining in the organization due to financial demands. In addition, it is related to employees’ attendance, performance and organizational citizenship behavior as well as stress and work-family encounter (Meyer et al., 2002). Meyer et al. (1993) developed a 6-item with 6-rating scale
for continuance commitment and the researcher used a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale for measuring the perceptions of teachers regarding this dimension (Hair et al., 2010).

1.7.1.3 Normative commitment

Normative Commitment refers to employees’ feeling of moral obligation toward their organization. Normative commitment is also linked with desirable outcomes (Meyer et al., 2002). Normative commitment has a 6-item and used 6-rating scale (Meyer et al., 1993). The researcher used a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale for measuring the perceptions of teachers regarding this dimension (Hair et al., 2010).

1.7.2 Principal instructional leadership practices

Principal instructional leadership practice (PILP) is critically assumed on focus to accomplish the vision and motivate the teachers for showing their higher level of strength and ability to develop students’ performance (Hallinger, 2011). In addition, Hallinger and Heck (2010) noted instructional leaders as the leaders for learning in the twenty-first century. Therefore, Hallinger and Murphy’s (1985) conceptual model has clarified three dimensions: defining the school mission, managing the instructional program and developing a positive school learning climate.

1.7.2.1 Defining the school mission

The first dimension, defining a school mission refers to principals as leaders of academic progress of students ensuring collaboration among staff in sharing the school mission clearly (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This dimension consists of two functions: framing the school’s goals and communicating the school’s goals.
(a) **Framing the school’s goals**

Instructional leaders need to emphasize clearly to frame school mission or set of goals for student achievement (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This function has 5 items and a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale was used for measuring this factor (Hair et al., 2010).

(b) **Communicating the school’s goals**

The instructional leaders must clarify the school goals among teachers, students, parents, and administrators. The school goals should be written down around the school. Besides this, the school leaders actively focus on student academic development of through encouraging teacher participation and involvement in this route (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This function has 5 items and a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale was applied for measuring this factor (Hair et al., 2010).

1.7.2.2 **Managing the instructional program**

The dimension, managing the instructional program refers to principals as the core of all managerial works where principal instructional leadership practices act as a key player to stimulate, supervise and monitor teaching and learning in schools (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This dimension encompassed three functions: supervising and evaluating instruction, and coordinating curriculum and monitoring student progress.

(a) **Supervising and evaluating instruction**

The function, supervising and evaluating instruction is included as a central job of principals due to providing instructional assistance for teachers and monitor teaching practices through many classroom visits (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This function has 5 items which are measured by a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale (Hair et al., 2010).
(b) **Coordinating the Curriculum**

The function, coordinating curriculum refers to principals as coordinators of curriculum and close observers of the content taught in class for the continuation of achievement tests (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This function has 5 items which are measured by a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale (Hair et al., 2010).

(c) **Monitoring student progress**

The function monitoring student progress has assumed the instructional leaders to evaluate the students’ results and ensure the changes essential for student progress such as helping teachers prepare classroom lessons, provide timely feedback to students and also analyze teachers informally to find out existing drawback in schools. The sub-scales have 5 items which are measured by a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale (Hair et al., 2010).

1.7.2.3 **Developing the school learning climate**

The third dimension, developing a positive school learning climate refers to the principal’s need to practice establishing a climate for supporting continuous development of teaching and learning (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This dimension includes five functions: protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting professional development, and providing incentives for learning.

(a) **Protecting instructional time**

The principal must assign learning time for teachers with lumps of continuous work time for developing classroom organization and instructional proficiency (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The subscale has 5 items which are measured by a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale (Hair et al., 2010)
(b) *Maintaining high visibility*

Visibility of principals in schools can enhance the interaction among principals, teachers, and students which have positive effect on student behavior and classroom teaching (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The 5 items of the sub-scale are measured by a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale (Hair et al., 2010).

(c) *Providing incentives for teachers*

The factor providing incentives for teachers suggest that the principal must use the best techniques formally and informally to praise the teachers when required (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The subscale has 5 items which are measured by a 0 to 10 numerical rating scale (Hair et al., 2010).

(d) *Promoting professional development*

The factor, promoting professional development, has provided and informed the teachers of related prospects to improve their instruction. The principals should have encouraged this type of staff development to achieve the school goals (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The subscale has 5 items which are measured by a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale (Hair et al., 2010).

(e) *Providing incentives for learning*

Lastly, the principals must ensure a school learning climate where students are highly praised or rewarded within the classroom or before the whole school for their academic achievement and extraordinary activities (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The subscale has 5 items which are measured by a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale (Hair et al., 2010).

1.7.3 Teacher professional community practice

Teacher professional community practice (TPCP) is the recognition of shared ideas among other colleagues in a collaborative manner on the quality of learning and fostering
collective learning of new teaching techniques as well as transferring the conversations for improving the teaching quality in a team (Lee et al., 2012). Ho, Lee, and Teng (2016) have noted that teacher professional community and learning organization both are comprised of professional learning community in schools. This study has adopted 6 items (Hallinger, Lee & Ko, 2014) measured by a ‘0 to 10’ numerical rating scale.

1.8 Summary

This chapter furnishes the purpose, problem statement, significance, and research questions required to be answered for this study. The significance of the study also focuses its outcome for various audiences, such as policy makers, school leaders, teachers, stakeholders, and researchers as well. Hence, this study shows the teachers a light on how they can establish their TPCP in the school community. Therefore, the teachers are also aware of how the TPCP has enhanced TOC for development teaching. In addition, school leaders have to acquire knowledge on how effective instructional leaders nurture teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice within schools for learning. This chapter also clarifies the limitations of this study. Finally, this chapter addressed the operational definitions of terms to be used throughout the study.

1.9 Organization of this Study

Chapter one presents the introduction, significance, problem statement, objectives and ten research questions, and operational definitions of terms. Chapter two reviews literature related to the variables and mention the theoretical and conceptual framework of this study. Subsequently, chapter three provides the research methodology in detail. Chapter four analyzes and describes the findings of the study. Lastly, chapter five elaborates the results of the research work, furnishes recommendations for further study besides pointing out the contributions of this study.
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

A literature review is a vital part of a study because it critically examines fundamental findings of scholarly works relating theoretical and methodological contribution to this study. A literature review introduces an understanding of related issues, links between existing theory and the findings or may provide a new theory that links with the findings (Bryman & Bell, 2015).

The first part of the review displays the relevant models and theories related with organizational behavior as well teacher organizational commitment (TOC). Consequently, the second part discusses leadership, educational leadership of women and history and evolution of the instructional leadership model. As instructional leadership has been made known in the early 1980s, so the review has evolved continually from the early 1980s till date. In addition, this part also states women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) while the next section highlights emergence of the teacher professional community practice (TPCP) for enhancing the teaching and learning process in schools. Additionally the researcher describes the research work regarding the relationship of women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice. Besides this, the researcher presents the literature regarding teacher demographic variables on the relationship between women PILP and TOC. The next, the researcher discusses the theoretical and conceptual framework on the relationship among the variables women PILP, TOC, TPCP and teacher demographic variables. Lastly, this part describes the education system of Malaysia and the research gap.
2.2 Organizational behavior

According to Greenwald (2008) an organization is: “a body of individuals working under a defined system of rules, assignments procedures, and relationships designed to achieve identifiable objectives and goals” (p. 8). In addition, an organization is a social entity where people have established relations among themselves for facilitating to obtain a set of common goals (Scott & Davis, 2015). In other words, an organization is a social component to people which is formed and organized to meet up an objective for a group of people.

Likewise, all organizations are included in managerial systems that determinate correlation between various activities and the members and assigns some tasks, duties and authority to perform different roles. Miller (2014) stated that an organization has five aspects such as individual and collective goals, social capacity, coordinated action, structure of organization and introducing the organization with setting of other organizations.

From various definitions, it is revealed that every organization has the goal, the structure and the people (Lumby, 2012). In this respect, organizational structure shows the roles of the organization both inside and outside within it. Organizational goals are included in external environment, adaptation, management, motivation and positional status (McGuire, 2002).

People within the organization are related to various internal and external accountability. Therefore, an organization consists of individuals with various tasks struggling to accomplish a common goal. Organizational behavior shows how an individual and groups work together within an organization. Hence, organizational behavior is a widespread topic and includes management, theories and practices of motivation and the roots for organizational assembly and plan (Daft, 2006). In short,
organizational behavior is a process that expresses everyone’s understanding and predicted human behavior within the organization (Owens & Valesky, 2007).

Among all organizational behavior, motivation is a significant driver and underlies what employees wish to do and how much strength they will devote to undertake the jobs and how long they will persevere to accomplish it (Gagné et al., 2008). Therefore, motivated employees work for the organization effectively and proficiently and shape an organization’s behavior. A motivated workforce has strongly shown job satisfaction. Job satisfaction expresses individuals’ feeling regarding their work (Peltokorpi, Allen, & Froese, 2015). Motivation is a part of organizational goals; without the continuing commitment of motivated employees achieving the organizational goal is not reachable. Motivation shows human’s psychological attachment which reveals a person’s status of commitment.

Hence, Meyer and Allen (2004) assumed that commitment and motivation were divergent but correlated with each other. They aimed to identify the direct correlation between motivation and commitment. Hence they underlined the objective of motivation was a sequence of any action whereas the commitment was a unit of any organization, individual or incident. Gagné et al. (2008) evaluated that motivation impacts on organizational commitment eventually; on the contrary commitment hardly impact on work motivation.

With the intention of the nature of human connection and communication, some existing leaders and followers in a group try to obtain some common goals for the organization. Therefore, any organization must have a single or collective group that guides the organization toward their goals. In order to achieve this goal, the aim of any organization is to acquire the commitment of any individual or a group. The next section describes the commitment of employees within organizations.
2.2.1 Organizational behavior in educational settings

Schools are social organizations which socially assembled our thoughts and our lived experiences (Burr, 2015; Greenfield, 2004). As members of a school, school leaders, teachers, administrators, and students are interacting within it to construct meaning to configure the world (Kim & Sheridan, 2015). Therefore, the school has structure, authority, values and norms in order to overcome the ample difficulties to understand the association with each other in the organization.

As schools consist of human beings so the characteristics of each or in a group reflect on school as a culture, structures and circumstances (Shafritz, Ott, & Jang, 2015). In other words, schools are nested within the norms and values of individuals and these influences upon the organizational behavior. In addition, Owens and Valesky’s (2007) “classical theory of organization” recommended that the values, ideals, principles, and the necessity for individual’s satisfactions were crucial motivators for the organizational process.

House (1996) postulated effective leaders as role model on employee’s performance and builder of the working environments. In a workplace, the leaders must have ability to overwhelm many deficiencies for ensuring their subordinates’ satisfaction and individual performance (Bryman & Bell, 2015). The attachment of leaders had created a significant contribution of followers’ understanding, attitudes, loyalty, communication process and participatory manners (Robbins, Judge, Millett, & Boyle, 2013). These aspects appeared to underscore a deeper apprehension in a group and included such behavior inspiring more communication between followers and leaders. Thus, when the people work together to achieve a goal, it revealed a sense of ownership between them.

Furthermore, a greater sense of involvement had established a common thread linked to commitment of followers (Owens & Valesky, 2007). Therefore, commitment is defined as a crucial part for any organizational behavior as it motivates teachers to ready
themselves to shoulder greater responsibilities. Many researchers described organizational commitment in different ways. For instance, organizational commitment is encompassed of employees’ trust and organizational values and goals; enthusiasm to exert power toward organizations; and a craving to endure inside the organization (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

Moreover, “commitment towards teaching profession” generally is the expression of the individuals’ constructive and affective attachment toward their career (Kelchtermans, 2005). “Commitment towards student learning” furthered focus on the step of teachers on how they are devoted to student learning avoiding other involved issues (Yalabik et al., 2015). These commitments are reckoning on the individual’s psychological and behavioral connection to the organization. In the real surroundings, some might become emotionally committed, some are affectively connected and some others feel obligated to the organization. Apparently, some of commitments can negatively affect a person's well-being, self-respect, and job satisfaction (Ali & Yangaiya, 2015).

Understanding the significance of different commitments, this study has underpinned organizational commitment of teachers as the utmost construct for upgrading teaching quality as well as establishing student outcomes in schools. Moreover, organizational commitments are included in commitment to leaders, profession or career and above all toward their organization.

2.2.2 Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment has attracted significant consideration in theory and research. Organizational experts have also developed many nuanced explanations of organizational commitment and numerous scales to analyze them since several decades. For example, Little (2007) conceived commitment in three aspects, namely reflectiveness of acts, higher levels of outcomes, and task responsibilities beyond their
personal affairs. Becker et al. (1995) stated three dimensions of organizational commitment. They mentioned that organizational commitment referred to a strong wish to be a member of the respective organization, desired a high level of work performance and accomplish to fulfill organizational goals and values.

Similarly, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) added same dimensions regarding organizational commitment but they also mentioned that organizational commitment identified one’s attachment and loyalty to the organization. In addition, Tella, Ayeni, and Popoola (2007) determined some factors of organizational commitment, such as gender, age, tenancy in the organization, and internal factors of organization, such as: job design and leadership style; and external factors which act as catalyst to enhance the level of commitment.

Nevertheless, organizational commitment shows the strong link between the individual and organization (Bond, 2015; Camilleri, 2006; Chen et al., 2015). Hence, the involvement of employee’s loyalty to organization, willingness and acceptance of the goal and value with the organization, and desire to preserve membership is referred as organizational commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

On the basis of multidimensional aspects, organizational commitment was measured by the three-component model (TCM) (Meyer et al., 1993). This model has divided organizational commitment into three constructs, such as affective, normative and continuance commitment. These three constructs depicted the ongoing participation of individuals within the organization. At first, desire-based commitment is referred as affective commitment that is associated with attendance, performance, and organizational citizenship behavior and stress and work-family conflict outcomes (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 2004; Meyer et al., 2002). In addition, cost-based commitment is referred as continuance commitment which shows employees want to stay in the organization because of financial
needs (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 2004; Meyer et al., 2002). When the employees feel they want to stay in the organization because of their moral and desirable obligation, it refers to normative commitment or obligation-based commitment of the employee (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 2004; Meyer et al., 2002).

In Spain, the researchers (Devece, Palacios-Marqués, & Alguacil, 2016) found a relationship of three dimensions of organizational commitment in their study. They found positive and significant relationship between affective, continuance and normative commitment. In addition, they also found that these three dimensions are positively related with organizational citizenship behavior. The researchers added that organizational commitment reflected employees’ goals, interests and attachment toward their organizations. The researchers revealed an interesting information that continuance commitment moves the level of organization which develops the relationship between affective commitment and organizational citizenship behavior in a corporate organization.

Mentioned research work helped the researcher of this study to focus on three constructs of organizational commitment of Meyer et al. (1993). The next segment describes the three dimensions of organizational commitment.

2.2.3 Dimensions of organizational commitment

Organizational commitment has received attention since several decades. Porter et al. (1974) assessed organizational commitment as only one construct, for instance, affective commitment of employees toward their organization. The affective commitment expresses employees’ satisfaction and level of involvement in their organization. Subsequently, Reichers (1985) proposed that OCQ was inadequate for serious theoretical research in the area of employee commitment because individuals make different types
of commitments to their organizations. Besides this, Porter et al.’s (1974) explanation is not clear to measure the types of organizational commitment.

On the contrary, Meyer and Allen first offered two types of organizational commitment such as affective and continuance commitment in 1984 (Meyer et al., 2002). While affective commitment identified a sense of belonging and mental connection toward the organization, continuance commitment underlined serving the organization to avoid financial issues. Subsequently, Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed a third dimension, normative commitment which was perceived as the obligation of employee toward the organization.

Meyer and Allen (1991, 2004) offered three dimensions of organizational commitment: affective commitment (AC); continuance commitment (CC) and normative commitment (NC). Underlining the importance of the commitment process, this part illustrates how different dimensions of commitment influence an employee.

Affective commitment represents an emotional association, identification and involvement with the organization (Meyer et al., 2002). In addition, it relates individual’s characteristics which contribute in remaining an employee as a member of the organization. Moreover, employees show their effort and job satisfaction and also work to obtain success in the organization. This attachment of employee confirms their strong “job satisfaction”. Meyer et al. (2002) showed that affective commitment is correlated with job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational citizenship behavior. Hence, affective commitment shows employees’ extra effort and maintains the good relationships for upgrading the organization. It is concluded that affective commitment can reveal the employees’ understanding and behavior toward their organization (Keiningham et al., 2015). Additionally, if employees’ showed their affective commitment this can reduce their job stress and work-family conflict (Meyer & Allen, 2004).
Continuance commitment refers to employees’ relationship with financial assistance for instance, cost-based association to remain or leave the organization (Meyer et al., 2002). However, the higher level of continuance commitment can show the employee stays within the organization to avoid financial issues (Peltokorpi et al., 2015). In contrast, the lower level of continuance commitment of employee shows their turnover intention for the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 2004). As a result, the continuance commitment of employees expresses their stress which is reflected in their family lives.

The third construct of organizational commitment, normative commitment, expresses the moral obligation of employees toward their organization (Meyer & Allen, 2004). Normative commitment is the expression of employees’ attendance, organizational citizenship behavior and overall job performance toward their organization. According to Gonzalez and Guillen (2008), the moral obligation is derived by the internalization of normative force within the organization. The acceptance of special favors from the organization may oblige employee to endure even more before considering other alternatives. Moreover, they work toward the success of these organizations because in doing so they are behaving in a manner consistent with their own values.

Meyer et al. (1993) revised the questionnaire to clarify the discrepancy between affective and normative commitment. Besides this, there were twenty-four items in the earlier versions (Meyer & Allen, 1991) and subsequently Meyer et al. (1993) and Meyer and Allen (2004) modified the questionnaire, using the three-component model (TCM). The three-component model (TCM) had eighteen items where six items belonged to each dimension. This model stated that organizational commitment is the most maturely developed among other constructs of commitment (Meyer & Allen, 2004). For these reasons, this study has focused on Meyer, Allen and Smith’s (1993) TCM to investigate the perceptions of teachers regarding teacher organizational commitment.
Therefore, it is concluded that employees’ satisfaction and perception toward organizations may influence the organization’s success or failure. Hence, organizational commitment has an impact on affective, normative and continuance commitment. The necessity of measuring the level of teacher organizational commitment is important in education sectors. The next part describes the research on teacher organizational commitment in educational settings.

2.2.4 Research on teacher organizational commitment

Teacher organizational commitment shows teacher’s robust wish for achieving organizational goals and values, willingness for involvement in school work and strong intent to remain in the school (Kim & Sheridan, 2015). In addition, it referred to teachers’ job satisfaction and job performance during their teaching career in schools (Brookfield, 2015).

Therefore many researchers have focused teacher organizational commitment for school outcomes in Malaysia. For example, Raman et al. (2015) found that teacher’s professional behavior was considered as the factor for teachers’ commitment in five excellent schools in Kubang Pasu district in Kedah. The researchers used 178 teachers as respondents and used the organizational climate index and organizational commitment questionnaires to find out the relationship between the two variables by using quantitative analysis. The findings of this research showed that school climate had relationship with teachers’ commitment. Dimensions such as collaborative leadership, teachers’ professional behavior; and work pressure had a positive and significant relationship with teachers’ commitment. The researchers also found higher level of teacher commitment in these high performing schools. These findings showed that the highly committed teachers have shown their higher level of performance toward schools and ensure students’ academic performance.
Selamat, Nordin, and Adnan (2013) in their study distributed three thousand and four hundred survey forms among three hundred and forty schools in mainland Malaysia. Among the questionnaires, only one hundred and eighty six questionnaires were selected randomly for further analysis. The researchers stated teacher organizational commitment as a vital factor for determining school success. They also mentioned that the highly committed teachers contributed as a further strength for their schools willingly and this promoted the schools as effective schools. The finding of higher level of commitment of teachers is supported by Raman et al. (2015). Therefore it was an emergent issue to find out the variables associated with teacher organizational commitment.

Selamat et al. (2013) also found in their research that most of the teachers wanted to stay in the organization but very few wanted to leave the schools. The researchers described that teachers’ affective commitment received higher mean score compared to the continuance and normative commitment. Regarding the lower mean of continuance commitment, the researchers mentioned that the teachers of these schools were attached within the schools emotionally but some did not want to maintain the membership within schools. In terms of normative commitment, teachers stayed in these schools due to a sense of responsibility.

Additionally, Shirzadi et al. (2013) found a positive and significant relationship between organization climate and work motivation. These findings were supported by Raman et al. (2015). Shirzadi et al. (2013) collected data from a physical education institute in Malaysia by using quantitative study to identify the relationship between organization climate and work motivation with organizational commitment among 196 novice teachers. The researchers emphasized that the good school and favorable
workplace additionally motivated teachers to increase their commitment and encouraged them to stay in the organization.

Moreover Noordin et al. (2010) suggested that teachers had low levels of commitment in primary schools in Malaysia. Although teachers had moderate levels of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment, nevertheless affective commitment was perceived at a higher level compared to other commitments in these schools. The finding of higher level of affective commitment was sustained by Selamat et al. (2013). Noordin et al. (2010) also found affective commitment had expressed psychological attachment of teachers, as higher level of affective commitment was a good pointer for schools. In addition, continuance commitment displayed respondents’ commitment to their schools because they fear losing organizational membership among the members and stay because of economic assistance such as benefits and pensions. In addition, the lower level of normative commitment may indicate teachers’ remaining in schools because of their obligations within the school.

Likewise, Nazarudin et al.’s (2008) research found the same result that teachers had perceived moderate level of TOC whereas affective commitment received higher mean score than other dimensions namely normative and continuance commitment. They followed a quantitative research approach by applying the TCM questionnaire (Meyer & Allen, 1991, 1996, 2004) and revealed the moderate level of teacher organizational commitment in Beaufort primary schools, Sabah, Malaysia. In addition, the researcher found that the lower level of normative commitment showed the lower level of moral obligation of teachers toward the schools, while the lower level of continuance commitment of teachers explained that they stayed in school due to financial demands.

Besides this, Lee and Ahmad (2009) followed quantitative research in their study. The researchers found that organizational culture was a moderator in the relationship between
leadership behavior and organizational commitment. The researchers collected the data from the students and teachers of a business faculty in a public university. The leadership behavior was found to be significantly related to organizational commitment. In addition, employees’ organizational commitment was significantly associated with job satisfaction, but not significant with employees’ performance. However, they found that supportive culture of the organization influenced the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Apart from Malaysia, the researcher of this study paid attention across the world. For example, Ebrahimi and Mohamadkhani (2014) conducted a quantitative study by involving one hundred and eighty four teachers in Iran. They examined which organizational climate was suitable for enhancing teacher commitment. They found in this respect that teachers were required in encouraging organization climate which could help them to complete their tasks in a proper way. They found that teachers were becoming less committed to their jobs because they were overburdened with clerical work in schools. Besides, this issue was affected by the school climate which brought bad impact on student academic achievement and other outcomes.

In addition, the findings of DiPaola and Tschannen-Moran (2014) showed that teachers’ professional behavior was the best indicator of their commitment. They also highlighted the collaborative leadership as a potential indicator to influence teacher commitment. However, academic pressure did not have any impact on teacher commitment but was associated with teacher professional behavior.

Han, Yin, and Wang (2015) did quantitative research work and the data were collected from five hundred and seventy nine tertiary teachers in China. The researchers revealed that Chinese teachers had perceived higher level of commitment including great care and enthusiasm in teaching work. Moreover, the psychological attachment of
teachers toward their institution was a determinant of a lower expectation of teacher erosion. Yet, this higher level of commitment expressed their potential which was a vital element for the longstanding success of the individual organization as well as overall education system of any country (Han et al., 2015).

Based on various literature, it is clear that teacher organizational commitment is associated with student learning that can bring a good impact on effective organizations. The level of teacher organizational commitment is directly influenced by the principal’s leadership. Therefore, the role of principal instructional leadership practices has heightened teacher organizational commitment and has affected teacher’s collegial relationship in schools.

2.2.5 Summary of teacher organizational commitment research

Research works on teacher organizational commitment have revealed an important evidence for an individual, assemblies and organizations that teacher organizational commitment (TOC) has a significant impact on quality of teaching and learning in schools. Though teacher organizational commitment expresses employees’ emotional attachment within the organization, so instead of this commitment, teachers have shown their lower involvement and dissatisfaction within the organization. Moreover, affective commitment indicated their psychological attachment, normative commitment revealed their moral obligations whereas continuance commitment reflected their cost-based desire to stay in the organization. Hence, teacher organizational commitment provides a broad measure of leadership behavior effectiveness. Though the leaders have only made a difference for their employee’s satisfaction and awareness toward organizational success or failure (Bass, 1990), so that the next section focus on leadership theories, women leadership, as well as women leadership in educational settings and women principal instructional leadership practices in schools.
2.3 Leadership

Leadership is one of the vital points of any organizational behavior. The concept of leadership has been discussed throughout history and many researchers documented several definitions of leadership for several years. Bennis and Nanus (2002) stated that, “Everyone is tested by life, but only a few extract strength and wisdom from their most trying experiences. They are the ones we call leaders” (p. 4).

There are many definitions describing the complex nature of leadership. Besides these, the pivotal concept of leadership is included in leadership as a process, leadership as involvement of some form of influence over people, and also leadership as taking place in groups by sharing goals (Northouse, 2013). Similarly, Vroom and Jago (2007) described leadership as a process involving the ability to influence and to motivate individuals or groups toward common goals.

Literature showed that an important part of leadership is to influence others through shared goals (Bass, 1990; Northouse, 2013; Yukl, 2013). It can be shown that a leader is the person who can influence the followers positively and negatively in their work as well as in their behaviors. Thus, the flexibility or the ability to make adjustments according to the changing situational demand totally depends on leaders’ behavior. The leaders who acquired the ability to carry out specific tasks and performances appropriate to their local context, as well as the situation in which they find themselves are referred as effective leaders (Northouse, 2013).

Further evidence of the power of effective leadership can be found in the work of Leithwood, Harris, and Hopkins (2008), who concluded that leaders influence teachers’ motivation, commitment and overall belief about their working conditions. According to this, Yukl (2013) illustrated that this influence of leaders had established the effect on subordinate’s effort, and happiness which were determined by the situational and
dominant variables. This relationship had served as a pathway directing the leadership practices displaying the position and opportunities for an outcome.

Yukl (2013) also mentioned that leaders are required to keep pace with clarifying organizational common goals in front of followers for achieving the desired outcomes. To achieve the goals, the leaders must show the roadmap, such as providing an effective workplace and essential resources besides influencing their behaviors to attain the goal. The leaders, subsequently, aimed to remove all the obstacles faced in developing the goal. The leaders influenced followers’ motivation, job satisfaction, job performance and the workplace which indirectly related to followers’ professional skills (Le, Choi, & Soehod, 2016; Shahidul, Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia, 2013).

The most influential likelihood method to leadership is the path-goal theory developed by Robbins and Coulter (2013). This theory stated that the foremost goal of the leader was to support followers in order to attain organizational goals effectively with the proper direction and backing. Northouse (2013) also stated in path-goal theory that the leaders’ approach and their work settings impacted on the characteristics of subordinates. Furthermore, Bush (2014) noted that the primary function of leadership was to foster development and change. Besides this, leadership is about seeking reformatory and adaptive change.

Thus, mentioned literature proved that it is important for leaders to set the direction for the future generation by developing a goal and vision that must be communicated by a collaborative and democratic way to align people and empower others. Hence, some researchers have drawn their attention to personal attributes of leaders such as gender that has emerged as a budding issue in leadership practices (Hallinger et al., 2016). Thus, this study has emphasized women principal leadership practices in educational settings; the subsequent segment discusses leadership practices of women.
2.3.1 Leadership practices and women

The issues of leadership and gender have been a provocative subject since the 1980s till recent years (Chizema, Kamuriwo, & Shinozawa, 2015; Eagly, 2013; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Engen, 2003; Gregory-Mina, 2012; Powell, 2011). The women leaders, basically are less ambitious, more collaborative and cooperative and more concerned with enhancing others’ empowerment unlike male leaders. These behaviors suggest that women make excellent leaders who provide guidance and inspiration to several determined women (Eagly, 2013).

From the meta-analyses of leadership practices of males and females, Eagly (2007) found that gender related dissimilarities were present in leadership practices but these differences were very few. Van Engen and Willemsen (2004) found that there was only one of the differences between the female and male. The researchers mentioned that female leaders were more participative and democratic leaders than their male colleagues.

Another study mentioned that men were better to be employed in authority positions than women, since women were better than men for taking care at home as well in employment settings (Eagly, 2013). Likely, gender distinguishes and resemblances in behavior replicate consequently shared gender stereotypes and gender role beliefs which in turn reflect society’s observations of women’s and men’s social perspectives in their community (Chizema et al., 2015).

Men, in contrast assumed a top-down role; this means they exhibit a command and control style unlike women. Female leaders are usually interpersonally and collectively oriented with others. Thus, it appeared that women embraced more traditionally feminine approaches when they show less male-dominated roles (Ames & Flynn, 2007). Some meta-analyses revealed that its benefits can be determined by the setting. Likewise, there was evidence that the central ground between participative and directive approaches are
normally more effective. Moreover, the higher levels of positive behavior raised out the relationship in a social perspective; the low levels of positive behavior could act as an obstacle to obtain the perceived organizational goals.

Women, from the meta-analysis, proved as a masculine leader comparing to men (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Engen, 2003). This leadership practice was especially examined as a vastly androgynous and effective style which was known as transformational leadership (Avolio, 2010). Female leaders were more transformational than their male counterparts. In addition, transactional leadership was concerned that female leaders led to motivate employees with encouraging, reward-based motivations. Men, on the contrary, showed the destructive leadership approach in leading the organization (Desvaux, Devillard-Hoellinger, & Meaney, 2008). Women possessed diverse informational aspects than men and maintained the relationship improving the follower’s creativity and work performance.

Beyond leadership practices, there were some imperative gender-related variances such as leaders’ attitudes and values. The leaders’ psychology supported us for understanding their motivations and goals due to attain as leaders. Schwartz and Rubel’s (2005) cross-national study suggested that women, generally, domiciled more highlighting on social ideals of universalism and benevolence. Benevolence mentioned to preserve and enhance people’s welfare in maintaining good relationship while universalism was discovered to understand, gratitude, tolerate and protect others for nature (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005). Likewise, some other researchers found that women were recommended for social values which promoted others’ welfare than men (Gordon, 2012). Furthermore, women authorized socially concerned moral practices and social policies that endorsed the family, marriage and organized religion (Eagly et al., 2003).
Culture, in contrast may be influenced cause of countering of women more kindly to people when they tend to an androgynous approach. In addition, criticism effects beside women who embraced masculine exercise in organization. Overall women might be advanced in accepting leader approaches that specialists exposed in furthermore organizational backgrounds (Wang, 2015). Therefore, women mainly excel as a feminine element for providing support and mentoring the workplace culturally (Eagly et al., 2003).

Malaysia is a multi-racial (Malay, Chinese and Indian) country; hence, the culture of different races eliminated stereotypes on gender (Bakar & Mustaffa, 2013; Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008; Kennedy, 2002) that might endeavor to eliminate the glass ceiling (Haslam & Ryan, 2008). This cultural value might boost up women’s contributions in decision making and remove barriers that limited the contribution of women. Besides, Malaysians believed in happiness collectively and emphasize a powerful caring orientation inside a culture that esteems hierarchical divergence in society (Kennedy, 2002). This consistency in Malaysian culture promoted women at an upper level, as some studies have recognized women as cultural based leaders (Jogulu, 2010; Sperandio, 2010).

Regarding this issue, Idris (2008) exposed women leaders as “family oriented” like as a “mother” in her research work in corporate organization; in Malaysia this culture may be more accepting toward their leadership practices. This may be clarified by the social theory of conditioning which claimed that women would be nurturing and gentle due to considering the respect of society (Ismail & Ibrahim, 2008). This behavior was found sustained by other researchers. As affiliates of judicial bodies, women were more expected than their male leaders to be advocated for modifications that uphold the benefits of children, women and families and that upkeep public well-being in different areas such as education and health care (Wenniger & Conroy, 2002).
It can be concluded from the literature that women have a tendency to have established advantageous relationships which have made groups or individuals more resourceful and dynamic for effective organization. There is evidence that women leaders have followed a more participative and relation-oriented leadership approach than their male counterparts. However, there are manifold signs that women are ratified highly to generate organizational outcomes through benevolence, understanding, universalistic and moral characters, as females are the light of sympathy, nurture and emotional articulacy, which highlighted them as a leader of educational settings. This study has therefore mentioned the leadership practices of women principals in schools in the subsequent section.

2.3.1.1 Women as educational leaders

The perspectives of women administration and leadership in education sectors have become into a significant variable among the researchers from the 20th century to till now (Abu-Tineh, 2013; Adams & Hambright, 2004; Alexander, 2013; Atieno, 2013; Bissessar, 2013; Hallinger et al., 2016; Kochan, Spencer, & Mathews, 2000; Powell, 2011; Shakeshaft, Nowell, & Perry, 1992; Tamar, Arar, & Azaiza, 2011). This part of the review will discuss some research work on leadership practices of women in education sectors from the 1990s till now.

Women’s journey in history has been filled with obstacles as well as achievements throughout the years. Besides this, women engagement in schools also played a vital role in both national and social perspectives. Therefore, women teachers have come into main concern in order to advance girls’ education in many countries regarding the demand for hiring and retaining in education sectors (Duflo, 2012; Kirk, 2004).

Kanwar, Singh, and Kodwani (2009) found in their research work that the presence of women in leadership practices provided a greater impact on girls’ education and
contributes to consider them as career choices as decision makers and leaders in future. At the same time, their contributions to society acknowledged them to mingle with other women and authenticate their capacities and input. Leela and Brown (2003), however, claimed that women struggle due to their lower level of self-confidence, self-image and lack of inspiration regarding positions of leadership in the male-dominated society in Uganda. Yet, overcoming these barriers, the women in developing countries advanced in leadership position because of increasing the number of girls in education, cultivating the abilities and confidence of women as well as changes in the view of women at social and national level.

Leela and Brown (2003) collected the data from nine women school leaders by using qualitative approach from various contexts such as China, Cyprus, Kuwait, Indonesia, Iraq, Commonwealth of Dominica, Zambia and Gambia applying an exploratory methodology. From their interviews, the researchers explored that there were not any established “glass ceiling” and “glass wall” remaining in different cultural backgrounds. Nevertheless, women believed in making the world better for the future generation. Owing to that, rapid reconstruction and modernization movements in society influenced opportunities for women to overcome the barriers. Thus, the number of studies of women leadership practices in educational settings are still going ahead across the world (Sperandio, 2010).

Hence, Oplatka (2006) found from the systematic review work that women adopted a combination of “masculine” and “feminine” leadership practices which was called “androgenic” style in developing countries (outside of Europe and North America exceptions: Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Israel) in educational settings. These practices, indeed, derived from the strong male-dominant background of these countries.
Along with the perspectives of women leadership, Grogan (2010) mentioned that there was no difference in leadership practices of men and women. The researcher also added that women were needed to reshape the leadership approaches from lower levels to higher levels in education sectors. The scholar discovered these findings from precious glimpses of different studies all over the world in her short essay, “Conclusion: women around the world reshaping leadership for education”.

Past research by Morriss, Tin, and Coleman (1999) followed comparative qualitative study regarding women principals’ leadership practices in schools in Singapore and England. They found that women principals expressed themselves as supportive leaders especially when their employees faced any problems. The principals showed participatory roles due to motivating teachers for their job responsibilities while some times teachers were encouraged to participate in the decision making process. The researcher revealed that female principals were concerned with maintaining good relationship with their staff. Thus, principals maintained ethical perspectives of care for developing the relationship among students, teachers and staff. Women principals were aware of teaching and learning, ensure the commitment to students and teachers besides being good listeners and problem solvers in their leadership approaches.

Furthermore, Tamar et al. (2011) conducted an exploratory research and collected the data from four Arab women principals’ career development and leadership approaches in Arab. From the interviews, the researchers found that women leaders, however, were not recognized in society normally to attain any job. The source of these empowerments were coming from their family backgrounds. Hence, the women principals faced many difficulties in adopting and introducing changes in this context. They gradually adjusted and maintained relationships among the school community with communication of apprehension and interest, greater fairness and sincerity. The female principals were
revealed as concerned and loving characters who motivated others for their organizational duties and also developed teaching quality in schools.

Likewise, Brinia (2012) mentioned that the Greek female principals faced discrimination concerning their management positions in a male-dominated environment. The scholar collected data from twenty male and twenty female primary principals using open-ended and semi-structured interviews. The female school leaders described themselves as emotional, sensitive, expressive, cooperative, aware, tactful and responsive to other ideas.

Alexander (2013) moreover expressed that supportive climate was more productive for the organization which was established by women principal’s intrinsic motivation due to support from the students and teachers. Women leaders were acknowledged for their interpersonal terms, such as cognitive and personal skills that were more important for functional skills of leaders. As a result, the female leaders effectively set up clear goals in the organization. Therefore, it was noted that women had the capacity to perform their responsibilities very effectively.

Kochan, Spencer, and Mathews (2000) mentioned in their research work that women focused on developing skills of employees besides ensuring the collaborative leadership which simultaneously affect employee commitment levels in schools. Similarly, Zikhali and Perumal (2015) showed from their empirical data that the female principals faced different challenges in disadvantaged schools. The researchers discovered that women principals could overcome these challenges by showing encouragement, sympathy and mysticism characteristics in the school community.

Therefore, women, since several decades till now exhibit a potential for intimacy and enhance the ability for nurturing and caring other power with which they are associated.
within the community in the field of education. Thus, women have been pointed out as having some characteristics, for instance empathy, passion, caring, patience, and responsiveness to detail and capability to incorporate people to heed to them and to motivate employees through commitment toward the organization. The study has underpinned the issue of principal instructional leadership practices in schools; that is why the researcher has described in the next part the evolution of leadership practices in school settings.

2.3.2 Leadership in educational settings

The paradigm shift in leadership is moving to the educational leadership model. Bush and Glover (2003) also demonstrated that leadership is a process of influence leading to achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on their personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. It is known that schools are the only tools in the education system where the scholars have asserted to ensure the education for all in schools. Indeed, a central task of the school is prominently to rely on principals who are referred as school leaders (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Lu, 2014; Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2008).

Schools, moreover, provide a challenging setting for establishing effective leadership (Bolman & Deal, 2014). Yet, many schools are having financial, technological and structural dilemma but effective school leaders can only show the right path for promoting the school outcomes (Viseu et al., 2016). Underlining this issue, Sharma (2011) added principals’ job responsibilities as the connector for school effectiveness. As Hallinger et al. (2015) stated, effective leadership creates effective schools and furthered to enhance the student-teacher interaction. The leadership practices of principals accomplish high standards in classroom teaching and affect student outcomes directly. Effective leadership
has also provided a positive impact on teachers’ performance (Hallinger, Heck, & Murphy, 2014; Hausman & Goldring, 2014; Lavigne & Good, 2015).

Yukl (2002) claimed that the meaning of leadership is random. The ‘working definition’ of leadership comprises its main structures in Bush and Glover’s (2003) statement. They stated:

Leadership is a process of influence leading to the achievement of desired purposes. Successful leaders develop a vision for their schools based on their personal and professional values. They articulate this vision at every opportunity and influence their staff and other stakeholders to share the vision. The philosophy, structures and activities of the school are geared towards the achievement of this shared vision (p. 3).

The definition of leadership is conceptualized into three dimensions: leadership as influence, leadership as vision, leadership as values regarding the leadership practices of school leaders (Bush & Glover, 2014). First of all, the definitions of “leadership as influence” replicated the social influence applied to the individual or a group to construct relationships and activities in a group or organization (Bush & Glover, 2014). The notion of “leadership as values” is anticipated to ground their action works clearly by individual or collective values (Bush & Glover, 2014). Day et al. (2001) research work in England and Wales schools found that “good leaders are informed by and communicate clear sets of personal and educational values which represent their moral purposes for the school” (p. 53). The third dimension, leadership as a vision has been viewed as an indispensable element of effective leadership since several decades (Bush & Glover, 2014). Therefore, it can be added that leaders are driven to work hard due to pursuit of their leadership of the individual’s visions.

Various researchers synthesized the conclusion among these leaderships, such as, instructional leadership (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985), strategic leadership (Davies,
Ellison, & Bowring-Carr, 2005), transformational and transactional leadership (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000), collaborative leadership (Hallinger & Heck, 2010) teacher leadership (Lambert, 2002) and distributed leadership (Harris, 2004).

Various findings indicated that among different competing models, the instructional leadership model has greater impact on student learning than any other leadership models (Bush & Glover, 2014; Hallinger, 2011; Leithwood et al., 2006; Robinson, 2007; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008). Robinson’s (2007) meta-analysis showed that the nature of the leader’s role had a significant impact on learning outcomes. Direct leader involvement in curriculum planning and professional development was associated with moderate or large leadership effects. The researcher suggested that the core business of leaders in education as to improve the teaching and learning practices to make a change for better student outcomes.

Nevertheless, instructional leadership practices further enhanced the prominence as a focus for policy and practice, and provided a rationale for school principals’ strengthening as a lever for school improvement (Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Leithwood et al., 2006; Leithwood & Sun, 2012). To ensure academic achievement, principals generally assumed instructional responsibilities, such as coordinating and supervising instruction, monitoring student learning, and supporting teacher development (Hallinger, 2013; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Principal instructional leadership practices is primarily focused on the direction for developing teaching and learning practices within schools (Bush, 2011; Bush & Glover, 2014).

Therefore, various studies have shown the path to the researcher of this study to focus on woman principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) as a variable. Before proceeding on women principal instructional leadership practices, the next part describes the path on how principal instructional leadership practices can be involved in teacher
organizational commitment as well as to establish practices in teacher professional community practice in educational settings.

### 2.3.2.1 Principal instructional leadership practices

This section represents the review of literature regarding the history of principal instructional leadership practices from the 1980s to recent years. Some studies were conducted in the early 1980s indicating the position of principal instructional leadership practices to show their importance in the education sectors. For instance, historically the development of principals’ roles followed a path from a “value broker” in the 1920s, to a “democratic leader” in the 1940s and to “bureaucratic executive” in the 1960s (Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013).

Similarly, Austin examined in 1979 that effective principals were viewed to students, teachers and overall the community as effective instructional leader. An effective instructional leader was highly expected by all as well as students also has having confidence regarding their achievements (DuPont, 2009). In the 1980s, the first important studies conducted by Bridges (1982) and Bossert et al. (1982) those who explained the demand for instructional leadership practices in educational research (Hallinger, 2013). Research work by Bossert et al. (1982) and Bridges (1982) opened new doors for developing instructional leadership practices in schools. Bossert et al. (1982) explored the educational leader who primarily aimed at improving student learning. Therefore, Bossert et al. (1982) and Bridges (1982) initiated educational researchers to think about the influence of principals’ actions on school outcomes and student learning.

Underlining principal instructional leadership practices, Hallinger (1983) developed an instrument, the “Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS)” which was revised later in 1987 and also used in more than 175 studies before 2013 in different countries across the world (Hallinger, 2013). Hallinger and Murphy (1985) divided this
PIMRS into three dimensions including defining a school mission, managing the instructional program and developing the school learning climate.

Instructional leaders were able to define a clear direction for the school and motivate others to join in its achievement and are able to align the strategies and activities of the school with the school’s academic mission (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). In 1988, Ginsburg concluded that instructional leaders must have emphasized to commit the teachers for developing learning and teaching practices in schools (Dupont, 2009).

Besides this, Smith and Andrews (1989) asserted instructional leaders as key players for making differences in schools. They also focused on four trends of principals, such as resource provider, instructor, communicator and presenter which are needed to obtain the school principals’ interaction with teachers. The interaction of instructional leaders provided a critical connection between the work of the school leaders and school success. The researchers proved that the interaction can foster the school leaders to find out the insights of teachers regarding their organization.

Smith and Andrews (1989) added that a school leader, moreover, provided the required resources to accomplish schools’ goals and visions. Besides this, principals act as resource providers to their staff members for contributing to school outcomes. In addition, principals have the instructional approaches and methods for facilitating classroom teaching. For this reason, principals are always required to roam around the schools and establish a positive and accessible culture for student learning and teaching practices which ultimately effect teacher commitment. As a communicator, the principal should build a culture where all work as a team through collaboration. The four trends of these researchers regarding the principal leadership have come into Hallinger’s (1983) three dimensions. Principals act as a communicator to share the schools’ goals and vision by giving continuing support to their staff.
In 1984, Dwyer did interviews and conducted observations of forty-two principals from urban and rural schools (Hallinger, 2005). In these schools, all principals believed to share their responsibilities about framing school goals and vision among all members and supported their followers to acquire quality of education through instructional output. In the 1990s, many of the researchers diverted their attention to transformational leadership (Miles, 2002). Yet, Tomlinson (2000) explained that teachers were needed to distinguish instruction and learning in the classroom.

Principal instructional leadership practices focused on performance of individual persons and influence on better instruction. Glatthorn (2000) developed a framework for an instructional leader mentioning four components: “standards based curricula; performance evaluation; assessment-driven instruction; and authentic learning” (p. 3). The principal as a curriculum leader must lead the learning community for continuous student achievement. Therefore, DuFour (1991, 1998) shifted instructional leadership practices from classroom teaching to the student learning process. DuFour (1998) also focused on student learning as a measure of success of the collaborative approach of teachers within a team. In these circumstances, guidance of principals moved forward as a learning community in a collaborative way to encourage the teachers are working in a team. In this way, principals must make effort to ensure continuous learning in schools (DuFour, 1998). Thus staff professional development is a growing issue to provide coaching for adopting new skills which resulted in their conversations. DuFour’s (1998) research findings were supported by Andrews and Soder (1987) and Hallinger (1987). They concluded that an instructional leader must be an expert as a resource provider for teachers for improving classroom instruction.

During the 2000s, most of the studies had been focused on instructional leadership models which were developed between the 1980s and 1990s (Hallinger, 2005). Elmore
(2000) has conceptualized his research work based on DuFour’s (1991) theory of professional learning community. Likewise, Elmore (2000) added Hallinger’s (1987) model of instructional leadership practices to investigate the role of instructional leadership practices in schools. Elmore (2000) also emphasized that principals needed to create a learning culture to ensure a good result of student outcomes within schools.

Robinson et al. (2008) opined that school leaders contributed effectively to developing teachers’ professional learning in both formal and informal ways. Robinson (2007) explained two reasons for participating school leaders in order to create a professional community in schools. First, the participation of the school principals can focus attention on the quality of teaching. Subsequently, the participation of school leaders for quality of teaching led them to the information regarding teachers’ work on a regular basis that can act as a ladder to develop a professional community in schools. In this way, the positive culture provides teachers a care in generating the modifications required to set in their teaching and learning in their regular work. Partaking in the professional community route of teachers can benefit the leaders to cultivate the knowledge essential in an instructional leader. Therefore, there is no alternative of principals to ensure them as vast knowledgeable and understandable in curriculum development and evaluation of teachers’ professional activities. Elmore (2000) also argued that principals were required to shield away interference from teachers allowing them to be concentrated on teaching and learning practices. In turn, the principals focused on the positive environment where teachers are committed to their organizations.

Mcguire (2002) underlined that effective instructional leaders require knowledge and skills to motivate and support their staff to be committed to their job responsibilities. Marzano, Waters, & McNulty (2005) performed a meta-analysis (1970-2005) and found that out of twenty-one factors, ten factors include the definitions of effective instructional
leadership practices. This research work paved the way for other researchers to focus on principal instructional leadership practices. Another study conducted by Buttram et al. (2006) confirmed the findings of Marzano et al. (2005); Buttram et al. (2006) mentioned that school principals followed instructional leadership practices to transform their ranking for outstanding schools in Delaware State.

Glanz (2006) looked at how an effective instructional leader supported the teachers for student learning. Glanz (2006) assumed many of the actions from Marzano et al. (2005). Before Glanz (2006), Cotton (2003) identified twenty-six instructional leadership practices that help the principal to support the teachers and to commit the teachers toward their organization. Principal instructional leadership practice furthermore, was an approach that transformed individuals and enabled them to achieve common goals in groups and shaped the role and behavior of school principals (Goldring, Huff, May, & Camburn, 2008).

Moreover, principal behavior influenced teachers’ perceptions; that is why it is a vital factor to evaluate the perception of teachers regarding the principal instructional leadership practices (Blasé & Kirby, 2009). Blasé and Kirby (2009) stated: ‘If teacher behaviors carry primary weight and leaders’ secondary, then the behaviors of leaders to motivate teachers for school improvement are doubly important’ (p. 126). Though the teachers trust principals are administrators, their actions and manners will replicate that perception. The capability of principals as instructional leaders is very critical in school upgrading because teacher behaviors mirror the principal’s performance. The principal delivers the way by offering desirable resources, eliminating hindrances, planning for ongoing collaboration, joining the public in the school community and shielding the reliability of the school (Crone, Hawken, & Horner, 2015).
Hallinger (2011) stated in his empirical research-based model on leadership that leadership for learning and school development considerably upgraded in the field of educational settings over forty years. Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) defined how teaching and learning leadership stimulate and articulate a link between teaching and learning improvement in schools through instructional practices and instructional strategy of school leaders. The instructional leaders also enhance the teacher commitment and trust in the organization. In addition, Li, Hallinger, and Ko (2016) investigated Hong Kong primary schools to identify characteristics of different types of leadership practices to find out their influence on teacher learning. Their findings proved that principal instructional leadership practices were the most forceful tool among various leadership dimensions on teacher learning in schools.

For reasons argued before, policymakers have turned their attention increasingly to find out the system-wide ways of evaluating and improving the capacity of instructional leadership practices for student outcomes (Hallinger & Lee, 2013; Hallinger & Lu, 2014). Based on these interpretations, Malaysian policymakers have concentrated on principal instructional leadership practices since independence till today (Ministry of Education, 2013). Furthermore, in efforts to enhance principal leadership practices in this context, many researchers put in their effort to find out the most conductive settings for instructional leadership in schools.

Yasin et al. (2016) interviewed three principals using the qualitative approach in Seremban district, Malaysia. The researchers revealed that principals understood instructional leadership as being identical with sharing school vision and goal, classroom observation and direct involvement of teaching and learning process of students as well teachers. They also believed that instructional leaders are the ‘role model’ for the teachers, staff and the whole community within schools. Moreover, instructional principals have to
be good listener and cooperative with the teachers. These practices of principals have brought better result in public examinations in Malaysia. On the contrary, the researchers found that principals are leading the school community to be exam-oriented goal because of the demands of Malaysian society. This study furthermore focused that Malaysian principals are required to enhance their knowledge with the new finding of research in education and to be effective organization managers and instructional leaders.

Ghavifekr et al. (2015) used the quantitative method to collect data from eighty teachers regarding the instructional leadership practices of principals in vocational and technical colleges in Malaysia. The researchers found that principals practice professional leadership, shared mission and clear goals, continuous progress of teacher’s progress and professional growth of teachers effectively for student outcomes. The professional leadership practices of principals help to solve any kind of problems when dealing with stakeholders. Shared vision and clear goals of principals easily encourage the staff to work harder to achieve the desired goals and objectives of the institutions.

Abdullah and Kassim (2011) examined the instructional level by using PIMRS of secondary school principals in Pahang, Malaysia. They reported that the level of principal instructional leadership practices was high. They found that principal instructional leadership practice was perceived high mean score in four domains, such as, defining and establishing school goals, managing instructional program, promoting learning environment and creating friendly and cooperative school environment. They also found that secondary school principals in Pahang possessed positive attitude to organizational change in the three dimensions of cognitive, affective and behavioral. They also noted a strong and positive relationship between learning environment and affective domain of teachers’ attitude toward the organization.
Sazali et al. (2007) conducted a quantitative study in Kubang Pasu, Malaysia and collected the data from one hundred and four school teachers. The principals were rated the high level of mean score in principal instructional leadership practices. In addition, teachers rated the high level of mean score in defining and communicating school goals of principals. On the other hand, the principals were rated at a low level of mean score in visibility in the classroom.

Jefri (2004) showed that principal instructional leadership practices were rated at the moderate level; in contrast, teacher’s satisfaction was perceived at high level of mean score. The researcher collected the data from ten principals and two hundred and sixty teachers by applying PIMRS for principal instructional leadership practice and teacher’s satisfaction. The study found a positive and significant relationship between implementation of principal instructional leadership practice and teacher’s satisfaction in schools.

In prior research, Shahril (2000) stressed six structures which reinforced effective principal instructional leadership practices as for example, emphasized on academic achievement, and ensured positive school climate, enhanced teaching and learning, coordinated instructional program, assessed student work regularly and accomplished teachers due to their great achievement in professional activities. However, the researcher addressed that principal instructional leadership practices must cultivate and nurture the professional development of teachers by providing proper training and resources for classroom teaching practices.

It is summarized from various researchers’ point of view that principal instructional leadership practices have to acknowledge teachers’ self-development, classroom instruction, and students’ engagement and overall foster to create positive atmosphere for teachers. In addition, teachers have perceived that effective instructional principals are
greatly acquainted with curriculum and instruction, are good communicators of school mission and organized instructional programs properly. Hence, principal instructional leadership practices act as an influence process through which leaders identify a direction for the school, committed the staff, and coordinate school and classroom-based strategies aimed at improving teaching and learning. Therefore, the supportive manner of instructional leaders in each and every sectors of school outcomes critically influence teachers’ attachment to schools. The collaborative and supportive manner in leadership practices are to motivate teachers for the continuous teaching and learning and to facilitate collective capacity of all educators and accomplish a professional community within schools. Along with these perspectives, this study seeks to explain how women principal instructional leadership practices impact on educational leadership.

2.3.2.2 Women principal instructional leadership practices

Since the evolution of principal instructional leadership practices in the education sector, some researchers investigated personal characteristics of leaders, such as gender (Arar & Oplatka, 2012; Hallinger et al., 2016; Leithwood et al., 2006). Some researchers discovered female principals as having greater understanding and appreciation of the teachers’ work. The principals saw administration as an extension of teaching; developed skills of teachers so they could transfer classroom instruction easily. Female principals not only have expertise in instructional knowledge but also enjoy working with teachers and spending time in the classroom (Nogay & Beebe, 2008).

Women administrators had a greater preference for activities related to instructional leadership practices and spend more time in the classroom, interacting with staff, and engaging in discussions related to academic and curricular concerns. As women have experience in spending a long time in classroom teaching, curriculum development, this
enabled organized instructional program which transferred them easily for taking the leadership positions in schools (Adams & Hambright, 2004; Shakeshaft et al., 1992).

Moreover, Shakeshaft, Nowell, and Perry (1992) found that women principals were concerned regarding teaching and learning in schools and ensuring good quality of education. The scholars mentioned that women, generally, had developed a good relationship among teachers, students, and administrators. Women principals also emphasized to commit their teachers toward their organization. In summary, women principals were conceptualized as having strengths in curricular development and instructional activities in educational leadership that encompassed teaching and learning in schools (Newton et al., 2003).

Likewise, Tallerico and Tingley (2001) concluded in their study that American women emphasized on curricular and instructional strength for developing teaching and learning in schools which affect student outcomes. Women were conceptualized as instructional leaders due to their great concern in the teaching and learning process. Therefore, Grogan (2010) added, women principals emphasized more on upgrading teaching and learning practices. In this respect, women principals kept their attention on solving classroom problems, to monitor and evaluate proper feedback and to provide professional development programs for student outcomes.

Moreover, Hallinger et al. (2016) used 40 data sets drawn from 28 studies that have used the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (Hallinger, 2013) in studies of gender and instructional leadership between 1983 and 2014. The datasets comprised perception from principals and teachers on more than 2,000 principals between 1983 and 2014. The meta-analysis yielded a positive and significant effect of gender on principal instructional leadership practices (Cohen’s $d = .288, p < .01$) and also revealed effectively engagement of women principals in instructional leadership practices.
This result furthermore was supported by past researchers, namely Eagly et al.’s (1992) meta-analysis of 50 studies. They compared the leadership practices of male and female public school principals. Women, in contrast, were believed to be more selfless and concerned with others. They suggested that women in leadership positions were more likely to encourage participatory decision-making than men because of their democratic rather than autocratic leadership approach. Women, additionally, appeared to be more concerned with organizing school activities necessary to reach explicit goals by their task-oriented nature than men and were more likely than men to interact with teachers as colleagues and equals.

This research is supported by Atieno (2013) who found that the female head teachers were rated very adequate in supervising and checking of students’ work and students’ records and delivery and provide resources to teachers for classroom activities while only a few rated their head teachers are adequate in leadership practices. The researcher employed descriptive survey design by using questionnaires and interviews with teachers and women head teachers from sixteen primary schools in Kenya.

Similarly, Nogay and Beebe (1997) used the PIMRS in their quantitative research in Ohio and found that female principals rated themselves higher comparing to their male counterparts for promoting professional development and providing incentives for learning. Yet, they reported that self-report instrument of principals might introduced bias in data collection.

Glass et al.’s (2001) findings proved that women were caring and child centered, builders of child development and student achievement; had potential in instructional activities and were as knowledgeable in teaching and learning as well expert in curriculum development. Women principals were perceived as a collaborators to facilitate relation-based working environment that contributed to enhance the level of teacher commitment.
The relational leadership approach easily inclined to solve other problems and also enabled efficient communication between the school and parents.

Past researchers, Grady et al. (1997) sustained the same findings by qualitative analysis. Women principals always observed their children and teachers to grow as the most rewarding aspects of their jobs. Principals also worked with students for developing programs to attain school goals with teachers in an enjoyable working culture. Principals, additionally worked as communicators, supervisors, and listeners when carrying out their job and maintaining the relationship as a family member with colleagues, and their superintendent for any problem solving.

Furthermore, Nogay and Beebe (2008) collected data from 38 female principals, 38 male principals, seven female superintendents and 69 male superintendents, and 367 male teachers and 367 female teachers by using the PIMRS questionnaire on seventy-six Ohio schools in a quantitative study. They found that female teachers perceived women principals as effective in framing school goals, while male teachers perceived female principals as effective in supervising and evaluating instruction in schools. Female superintendents rated female principals’ higher performance on curriculum coordinating. Female principals received the highest rating in monitoring student progress. In addition, male teachers perceived female principals as effective in maintaining visibility and providing incentives for teachers. In case of promoting professional development and providing incentives for learning, teachers perceived female principals are more effective than male principals. Female principals perceived themselves that there was a positive and significant relationship with providing incentives for learning than their male counterparts. Statistically significant differences were seen for providing incentives for learning, providing incentives for teachers, and maintaining high visibility. Principals
rated themselves higher than teachers on all 10 subscales and higher than superintendents on all subscales except in communicating school goals.

Malaysian researchers, Chua et al. (2014) found that school principals’ academic qualification was a significant factor of leadership skill. In terms of leadership domain, they claimed that the principals possessed high instructional and cultural leadership skills but low educational management and organizational management leadership skills. In contrast, there was no significant difference between the male and female principals on leadership skills. Furthermore, Noor (2007) reported on teachers’ perception of the principals’ instructional leadership in Johor Baru, Malaysia and showed that the perception of male teachers on the instructional leadership of principals is higher than female teachers. However, female principals’ instructional leadership practices were positively influencing teacher’s self-efficacy.

Hence, it can be summarized from prior and recent research regarding women principal instructional leadership practices that women have great potential to exercise instructional leadership practices due to focus on teaching and learning. Women are more likely to establish instructional priorities, focus on student relationships, look for the impact of teachers on the lives of children, and emphasize the technical skills of teaching practices. This research suggested that women shared a desire to implement a consultative, collaborative work environment that fostered an open, supportive atmosphere responsive to the needs and enhance the commitment level of teachers toward the organization. These findings supported that women are goal oriented, expert on curriculum development and influenced on building up a learning culture in schools. These leadership practices have proved them as instructional leaders to foster learning and teaching in schools (Hallinger, 2005). Because this study aims at determining women
principal instructional leadership practices, the subsequent fragment states the model of principal instructional leadership model in educational settings.

2.3.2.3 Model of principal instructional leadership practices

Cuban (1988) stated that the school principal has three key functions, such as managerial, political and instructional (Hallinger, 2013). Bossert et al. (1982) recognized the construct of instructional leaders who turned around managerial roles regarding the control and coordination of instruction and curriculum in schools. Therefore, this model has a gap due to only focus on the managerial attitude of instructional leaders. Yet, in order to define instructional leadership practices, several models were developed to the movement of effective schools to emphasize the practices of instructional leaders within schools from the 1980s to recent years (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, & Lee, 1982; Hallinger, 2013; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). The outcomes were received with uncertainty from various studies (Cuban, 1988), consequently stimulating the new leadership models designed obviously at improving the worth for teaching and learning practices in schools (Hallinger et al., 2015; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Leithwood et al., 2008; Robinson et al., 2006). Leithwood et al. (2008) claimed that the most distributed model of principal instructional leadership practices was recognized by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) and Hallinger (2013). The model consists of three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices. The principal instructional leadership practices directly influenced improvement in the teaching and student learning process by these three dimensions namely: defining school mission, managing instructional programs and developing school learning climate of this model (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985) (see Figure 2.1). This model has been kept pertinent since three decades; therefore, as a developing body of studies of student learning gradually upholds possessions on principal instructional leadership practices for student outcomes (Day et al., 2010; Heck & Hallinger, 2014; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Leithwood, Patten, & Jantzi, 2010; Rigby, 2014; Robinson,
The conceptual framework of the principal instructional leadership management rating scale (PIMRS) is illustrated in the following Figure 2.1.

**PIMRS Framework**

- **Defining the School Mission**
  - Frame the School’s Goal
  - Communicates the School’s Goal

- **Managing the Instructional Program**
  - Coordinates the Curriculum
  - Supervises & Evaluates Instruction
  - Monitors Student Progress

- **Developing the School Learning Climate**
  - Protects Instructional Time
  - Provides Incentives for Teachers
  - Provides Incentives for Learning
  - Promotes Professional Development
  - Maintains High Visibility

**Figure 2.1:** PIMRS conceptual framework (Hallinger, 2013)

(a) **Defining the school mission**

During the 1990s, school goals and vision were synthesized by Hallinger and Heck (1996) as the prominent possessions on student learning. Robinson et al. (2008) endorsed this point and reaffirmed school goals and vision as the second route for subsidizing classroom improvement and learning practices in schools. Nevertheless, the instructional leadership studies assumed that vision, mission and goals are the construct of goal which must comprehend an academic effort. Moreover, vision indicates a wide-ranging scenario of the direction of the schools in which the school moves on to educate all children.
Goals denote the precise aims that require to be obtained on the ride toward that vision.

The dimension, defining the school mission states the principals’ role in evaluating the school goals due to focus on its resources throughout the year. The instructional leadership practices favor school improvement through focus on school vision and goals (Leithwood et al., 2010; Sun & Leithwood, 2015). Hence, in a challenging world, it is critical for principals to highlight on vision and goals in sustaining a wide-ranging focus on teaching and learning (Kurland et al., 2015). For example, some researchers stressed on effective collaborative leadership for school-based management and school improvement in schools. This dimension has a vital point to build up a learning centered school (Murphy & Torff, 2016).

Goals and vision grasp their influence on primarily two dynamic roles for any instructional leaders. First of all, these factors encourage people to contribute their efforts to attaining a shared goal (Sun & Lethwood, 2015). Subsequently the motivational ability of school vision shows a unity to obtain meaningful school goals. Likewise, people may deserve to accomplish a new hope and reveal a higher level of job performance. School goals, however, have brought a better impact on providing a pathway to take teachers’ decisions, sharing the responsibility and implementing the program. In short, vision and goals of schools deliver clear ideas on what to do or what not to do (Hariri, Monypenny & Prideaux, 2012; Sun & Leithwood, 2015).

The first dimension, defining the school mission consists of two functions, framing the school’s goals and communicating the school’s goals. The two functions express the principal’s work among staff to communicate clearly the school mission for focusing on student academic progress (Leithwood et al., 2008; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008).
Principals are responsible for communicating with their staff in order to define the school mission properly.

In general, there is a need to highlight on fewer goals for what staff dynamism and school properties, furthermore can be organized. Regarding this aspect, some managerial works appear to coordinate the objectives. The goals are incorporated by using past and present data of students’ performance and distribution of staff responsibilities to accomplish the school goals. Parental participation is also a vital factor for developing the school goals. To determine school goals, performance goal is one of the determining variables for school success (Davies et al., 2005; Robinson et al., 2008). Therefore, some researchers asserted that it is impossible to do any single approach of principal in setting goals in schools within this model (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). In addition, the principal must set up the collaborative approach to fulfill the school’s goal. Above all, it is evident that the school leaders must have solid academic goals incorporated by their staff as their daily routine in a collective way. Thus, the portrayed goal-oriented and academically focused schools achieve their school goals such as school outcomes.

The function to communicate the school goals concern how the principal communicates with the ways of goals among teachers, parents, and teachers within schools. Principals discuss and review the school goals, especially curricular, instructional, and financial approach among the teachers and administrators regularly throughout the school year. Besides that, the principal communicates the school goals in staff bulletins, article writing, newsletter, handbook, as well in parent-teachers meeting, teachers’ meeting and discussions with staff (Robinson et al., 2008; Sun & Leithwood, 2015).
(b) Managing the instructional program

Managing the instructional program is the second dimension focusing on the control and coordination of curriculum and instruction. It has three functions, such as supervising and evaluating instruction, monitoring student progress and coordinating the curriculum (Hallinger, 2013; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This dimension emphasized the character of principals as “managing the technical core” in schools (Hallinger & Heck, 2002; Leithwood et al., 2006). In a big school, school principals are the only involved persons for developing and monitoring the instructional program.

Yet the outline of leadership practices control and coordinate the academic platform as a fundamental part for leadership, though the daily responsibilities are communicated widely to others. Obviously, the functions of this dimension also mandate that the school leaders have proficiency in learning and teaching, as well as an obligation to improve schools. This dimension promotes the principal to be a builder of “hip-deep” in instructional practices in schools (Hallinger et al., 1996; Marshall, 2015).

The function of supervising and evaluating instruction is a crucial job of the school leaders to certify that the school goals are exercised in daily classroom activities. The supervising and evaluating teachers’ function is concerned with the great job responsibilities of principals (Hallinger, Heck, & Murphy, 2014). This function underscores the prominence of the instructional ability of teachers (Fullan, 2006).

A characteristic, coordinating the curriculum views in an instructionally effective school where school leaders have achieved to coordinate the curriculum in a proper way. Furthermore, principals shows the continuous activities in the curricular progress by focusing on grade levels. These perspectives of curricular coordination are maintained by collaboration of teachers in each and every grade level with the guidance of principals (Ho, Lee, & Teng, 2016; Mattar, 2012).
Instructionally effective schools are recognized to monitor their student progress and to identify student weakness for programmatic tests. The principals show a significant role in providing teachers with up-to-date information of students and discuss students’ results among the entire staff. School principals deliver informational analyses for teachers describing the applicable data of tests in a summarized form (Hallinger, 2013; Rigby, 2014).

(c) Developing the school learning climate

Principals stimulate learning to encourage teachers to work more effectively and efficiently. Hallinger and Heck (2002) designated this job function as “shaping academic structures and processes”. Leithwood et al. (2004) referred to this function later on as “designing the organization”. These characteristics allow the school leaders to organize the work structures and design the working procedures in the organization.

The third dimension, developing the school learning climate is included in several subscales, such as protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, developing professional development, providing incentives for learning and teaching (Hallinger, 2013). This dimension has wider strength and opportunity to develop the school learning climate compared to the second dimension (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This dimension also has intersected into the dimensions of transformational leadership outlines (Leithwood et al., 2008).

Instructional leaders of effective schools are recognized as successful leaders or those who can create an “academic press” over the expansion of high prospects and standards. This culture nurtures the rewards for continuous learning and school success which results in a continuous improvement with rewards and practices (Heck & Hallinger, 2011). To conclude, the school leaders must show ideal values and practices that back the continuous upgrading of learning and teaching practices in schools.
The function of protecting instructional time allocates the learning time that is primarily named devotion to the significance of providing teachers with uninterrupted time for working. In order to improve instructional skills and classroom management, teachers need time for planning without being interrupted by tardy students, announcements, and requests from the office. The principal has to be supported over this part through the enforcement and development of school-wide strategies related to the disturbance of learning time in classroom (Hendriks & Scheerens, 2013).

Maintaining high visibility provides the priorities of principals toward their students and teachers. Though a noteworthy serving of the principals’ time is out of their control, yet it is an emergency to fix the residual time for maintaining visibility in schools. Visibility in classrooms overall in schools will increase the relationship among principals, teachers and students. This culture has created a positive impact on classroom instruction and student manners (Hallinger, Heck & Murphy, 2014; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Leithwood & Sun, 2012).

The function, providing incentives for teachers pursue to support school outcomes, goals and recompenses must be carried out in a coordinated way (Walker et al., 2014). In this function, principals are encouraged to use some monetary reward for teacher’s extraordinary accomplishments; as only the monthly salary and tenure may constrain principals to motivate teachers towards their meaningful effort. Besides this, the reward as a financial help is little bit effective comparing to recognition and praise as an accomplishments. As a result, the principal should nurture the paramount process of both informal and formal ways to motivate teachers and produce a culture on the basis of mutual trust, esteem and success (Bryk et al., 2010; Hallinger et al., 2015).

The function, promotes professional development express support and participation of principals for developing the professional learning of educators resulting in a better effect
on student learning outcomes. The principal has introduced some ways to support teachers for expanding teaching and learning, for instance providing teachers with related prospects for staff growth besides encouraging staff growth closely connected to school goals (Day et al., 2010; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Louis et al., 2010).

The last sub-scale, providing incentives for learning, is covered with the construct of a learning climate for acquiring high academic achievement of students. This school climate means students are rewarded and recognized in noticeable ways for their academic success and progress. It is not a mandatory to use fancy or exclusive rewards for students, but it is necessary for the principals to be accomplished and recognize students inside the classroom as well as in front of the whole school (Bormann, 2015).

The mentioned factors of principal instructional leadership practices are designated the opportunity of the principal; while the leadership practices lead a team in school along with learning. Nevertheless, it is also worthwhile to set up these accountabilities into the wider circumstances of how leadership attains its possessions within schools. The operative conception of the instructional leadership role is to sustain the effort over the medium to long term results (Donaldson, 2006). Researchers have also found that the active, skillful, instructional principals increase teachers’ role play in the instructional process which build up the sustainable development of schools (Fullan, 2006; Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008).

### 2.3.2.4 Principal instructional leadership practices for school outcomes

Many studies have demonstrated that principal instructional leadership practices effect on positive learning environments for students, schools’ mission with focus on school improvement (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Robinson et al., 2008). Principal instructional leadership practices can be built an academic press and mediated expectations embedded in curriculum standards, structures, and processes (Bryk
et al., 2010; Louis et al., 2010) by improving the strategies for employee development and lastly, supported ongoing staff professional learning. These circumstances in turn facilitate the school efforts to undertake, implement, and sustain changes for a long term learning process (Robinson et al., 2008).

Thus, these acknowledgements of principals for teachers’ self-development, classroom instruction, and students’ engagement generally foster school achievement and create a positive atmosphere for teachers. This research found the perceptions of teachers that the successful principals needed to have knowledge of curriculum and instruction, be good communicators and listeners, seek input, share power and credit, and be good problem solvers (Trinidad & Normore, 2005). This attachment for schools is critically important to the success of school principals. The inquiry-oriented practice of principal instructional leadership practices such as, collaboration that encourages teacher voice and acknowledges diverse contexts as well as the complexity of teaching will facilitating the thinking into practice (Galloway & Ishimaru, 2015). By comparison, the Galloway and Ishimaru’s (2015) approach is more inclusive; they conceptualized principal instructional leadership practices as a discursive, collaborative, and critical study of classroom interaction to achieve a just co-operative world.

Therefore, the literature supported that instructional leaders are goal-oriented and have direct and indirect influence on student learning, teacher collective efficacy, teacher satisfaction and commitment, school health, organizational learning, teacher change, and student engagement (Marks & Printy, 2003). Hence, the principal instructional leadership acts as an influence process through which leaders identify a direction for the school, committed the staff, and coordinate school and classroom-based strategies aimed at improving teaching and learning. Therefore, the supportive manner of instructional
leaders in each and every sector of school outcomes is critically important and may influence teachers’ attachment within schools.

Thus, the supportive manner of the continuous improvement of teaching and learning practices create a climate where the principal builds up a model of instructional leaders (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Teachers working in high academic press schools are more likely to use a variety of instructional strategies, collaborate with colleagues, attend to the teacher professional community practice, and provide frequent monitoring of student academic progress (Hallinger & Lu, 2014). The result of “collaborative effort” of principal instructional leadership practices has not been confined only to the learning in classroom but also aimed at objectives for all educators (Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Murphy & Torff, 2016; Spillane, 2006). Indeed, these steps of principal instructional leadership practices can enhance the teaching and learning practices as well as collective capacity of teachers within schools.

2.3.2.5 Summary of women PILP research

It is concluded that leadership is a process that can act as influence, as vision, as values (Bush & Glover, 2014). Women leadership practices have been publicized in a wider-range to exhibit as a prospective for nurturing and caring other power, with capability to incorporate people to heed them and to motivate employees through commitment toward the organization. Hence, women principal instructional leadership practices have revealed a potential for exercising of teaching and learning practices and resulted in a professional community practice among teachers (TPCP) within schools. The next part of this study illustrates the importance of teacher professional community practice (TPCP) in schools.

2.4 Teacher professional community practice

Based on social and philosophical perspectives, school is explored as a community where adults and students are educated by a common agenda and shared values of various
activities (Bryk et al., 2010). Concerning the philosophical viewpoints, the primary focus of school should be to develop the student’s life and present students with prospects to become operative fellows of the coming world. Hence, the objective of education is to build up the student’s aptitude for self-governing and acute social practice. As school is a social organization (Greenfield, 2004), the central point of school has to focus on its mission and objectives. This means that teachers and other staff of this community are reliable on concerns, as for example the gratification of adult values, how these are thoroughly related to organizational design and outline the round of regular life.

From the social perspectives, the concept of school community has derived from several associative relationships existing in schools, such as common link of shared work and in accomplishing that work, joining forces is required (Furman, 2004). For example, the administration prepare teachers’ schedules, faculty coordinate and share curricular duties, students desire to perform at a higher level of education; in this way, teachers and school leaders are responsible for providing them with facilities and connect with them accordingly. This community, furthermore, applies careful consideration of the conducts among teachers and students.

Within the community, teachers are connected to each other by a mutual mission and supportive personal affairs that enhance their organizational commitment. Teachers directly engage with their students, so that a pattern can be drawn of organizational life which may enhance the meaning in student life (Darling-Hammond, 2015). Therefore, teachers are required to build up a strong community for preparing these children. The perception of professional community in schools has been a budding issue in education (Stoll et al., 2006). Because the professional community facet of the effort of individuals and a group which is allocated with many viewpoints, so it is challenging to define professional community from theoretical angles (Hallinger, Lee & Ko, 2014).
Moreover, the term “professional community” is defined in broad ways by different researchers. For example, the professional community is included in components such as school culture especially focused on educator professionalism (Darling-Hammond, 2015). These association within community are acceptable for learning which may prove the community-based performance (Louis, Kruse, & Bryk, 1995). Furthermore, Rowan (1990) noted that enhancing teaching practice is possible by proper training of teachers.

Therefore, professional community has emerged in schools in different ways. In addition, a “professional community of learners” (Murphy, Elliott, Goldring, & Porteret, 2007) is characterized by shared learning practices within the community for developing the teaching practices. Moreover, the aim of this practice is to boost their capacities as professionals for the students’ progress that can bring continuous inquiry and development for communities.

Ho et al. (2016) indicated that the school-based professional learning community that originated from two concepts, such as teacher professional community and organizational learning (Lee et al., 2012; Stoll & Louis, 2007; Stoll et al., 2006). Additionally, Senge (2013) developed that the characteristic of organizational learning combines teacher professional community and professional learning community. More specially, organizational learning is not only concerned regarding individual’s learning of teachers but also aware of professional learning of an integrated group (Stoll & Louis, 2007). Moreover, Mullen (2009) stated that professional learning community as “a specific model of organizational development and learning for schools that has as its ultimate aim student learning” (p.18). DuFour (2004) suggested:

The powerful collaboration that characterizes professional learning communities is a systematic process in which teachers work together to analyze and improve their classroom practice (p. 3).
The concepts of organizational learning and professional learning community are highlighted in the learning of teachers as well as students.

However Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) traced the idea of TPCP from the models of collegiality (Little, 2007), practices in community (Louis, Kruse, & Bryk, 1995), collaboration of teachers (Bryk et al., 2010), and overall learning organization (Senge, 2013). Subsequently, application of this concept has blended into another construct namely ‘Teacher Professional Community’ (Louise, Marks, & Kruse, 1996). Based on this, Ho et al. (2016) stated that “the concept of school-based PLCs originally emerged from the concept of the teacher professional community which can be traced back to the1980s” (p. 33). The researchers in this study focus on teacher professional community practices which enhance the learning practices of teachers by sharing the responsibilities and adopting the new teaching practices and collective efficacy of teachers (Hallinger, Lee, & Ko, 2014).

Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) mentioned that a teacher professional community has reached its cumulative power as an approach for promoting robust change in schools. The researchers collected survey data from thirty-two Hong Kong primary schools from a sample of five hundred and fifty nine teachers. They investigated how the principal leadership quality affects the teacher professional community practice. Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) used their own developed instrument indicating six items to identify the perceptions of teachers about their professional community. From the descriptive analysis of this study, TPCP was rated a high level of mean scored ($M = 4.45, SD = 0.75$) comparing to principal quality ($M = 4.33, SD =1.06$) and teacher commitment ($M = 4.17, SD = 0.93$) in these investigated schools. In contrast, organizational trust was rated at a higher level of mean ($M = 4.63, SD = 0.74$) scored comparing than TPCP, principal quality and teacher commitment as observed by these Hong Kong primary teachers.
Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) used a six point Likert scale for collecting the perceptions of teachers. The researchers also proved that trust has a positive and significant effect on TPCP. Additionally, TPCP and organizational trust both have direct effect on teacher organizational commitment in these schools.

Past researcher, Louis et al. (1996) did a mixed-method case study, using interviews and surveys involving twenty-four schools. The researchers suggested that teacher professional community practice are a major concern due to their contributions in enhancing school outcomes. The researchers reported that interaction among teachers within schools have a strong role in restructuring the schools. The researchers investigated which factor helped to create a teacher professional community practice and facilitated the consequences of teachers’ sense of duty for student learning. They found that human behavior and social perspectives have promoted professional community practice in schools. In addition, the respect among the teachers as well as within the community and principals can affect teacher professional community practice in schools. Teacher professional development can also be an indicator due to perceived higher level of teacher professional community practice.

Bryk, Camburn, and Louis (1999) illustrated that professional community has been paid concentration for education sectors due to its contributions in fostering classroom instructional practices for student learning. The researcher used a self-administered instrument to investigate the professional community that is the mixture of learning organization and teacher professionalism. The researchers collected their data from Chicago public elementary schools and 5,690 participating teachers. They also added that trust of the faculty members has significant relationship with organizational learning outcome. The results of this research work also sugested that internal structures of professional and rules of the faculty members can enhance a climate which is encouraged
to adopt the new teaching practices for student learning. They also discovered the professional community develops the instructional change of teachers that support learning of teachers through modernization and investigation.

Ning, Lee, and Lee (2016) followed quantitative method and collected data from four hundred and eight professional learning engagement teams of Singapore schools. The researchers separated these teams into three, such as the high, moderate and low engaged learning teams in their study. The highly engaged learning teams were highly correlated with collaborative learning, reflective dialog and collective focus on learning and shared values and vision. Among these dimensions, collaborative learning was perceived strongly in the highly engaged teams. In contrast, the moderately and less engaged learning teams were strongly related to collective dedication for student learning but showed comparatively weak relation with reflective learning and collaborative learning.

The findings of Ning et al. (2016) were supported by Tooley, Dixon, and Stanfield (2008). Toole et al. (2008) mentioned that the establishment of a collaborative school-culture makes inclusive, ongoing, genuine, and focused on analytically examining practice to develop student outcomes. The researchers stated that teachers played a main role of the school community, since they shared a collective concept on viewing schools’ mission, focused on instructional approach, cooperation and involvement in a reflective dialog as well as feedback among colleagues for improving the teaching and student learning process.

A review of 5-year study involved eleven studies that focused on the impact of TPCP and suggested well-developed TPCP could positively improve teachers’ teaching practices and students’ learning activities (Lee et al., 2012). The authors assumed that district strategies and policies had an impact on TPCP practices. Another finding was that the level of the school has a direct effect on TPCP practices but TPCP practices have no
direct effect on student outcomes. But TPCP and focused instruction can act as a mediator of student achievement. These findings are supported by Pancucci (2008) who observed that TPCP improves teachers’ personal, interpersonal and organizational capacities and their level of commitment to professional development, as well as students’ achievements.

Mullen (2009) found that professional learning community is a precise prototype of organizational growth and learning for schools which has its definitive target for student learning. Professional learning community appeared to have shared perspective of interactive learning exercises among adults, established on the joint funding of school members, that purpose to augment knowledge and teaching practices, learning outcomes of students and school progress.

As Stoll et al. (2006) suggested, contemporary education can be progressed on collective capacity of individual teachers associated with developing school wide capacity for fostering student learning. This capacity of schools depend on several factors, such as teacher motivation, skill, positive learning environment, conditions of organization and supportive culture. Combining the common characteristics, it can be capable to promote an individual, consequently a group and the outcomes of individuals and groups have brought impact on the whole school. The capacity of schools acts as a power to develop a learning community for school improvement.

These findings by Stoll et al. (2006) are reinforced by Maloney and Konza (2011) who claimed that schools are required to be the key setting intended for professional learning where teachers have the chance to create knowledge about learning and teaching in a genuine framework. High-class professional learning may substitute collegial and a collaborative culture that allows teachers to absorb and learn from each other which
improves their teaching practices for student outcomes and occupy themselves for school development.

Lee, Zhang, and Yin (2011) examined the relationship among collective learning and supportive conditions, trust and collective efficacy of teachers in Chinese settings. The researchers used supportive and shared leadership, collective learning and applications and structures as the components of professional learning communities. The researchers found from multiple regression analysis that the two factors, supportive conditions-structures and collective learning and application of professional learning community have significant and positive effect on teacher commitment level in schools. Another surprising finding was that supportive and shared leadership was not indicated as a significant factor in these Chinese schools. Yet another finding showed that all factors of learning community were significant and positive correlation was observed between faculty trust of colleagues and collective efficacy of teachers for instructional process for classroom teaching practices in schools.

Vescio, Ross, and Adams (2008) reviewed ten American studies and found that professional community has great impact on teaching and learning practices. The collective results of this review showed that well-developed professional community practices develop teaching practices and student achievement. Ho, Lee, and Teng (2016) explored the relationship between teacher educational level and professional community practices in Hong Kong pre-schools. They examined teacher perceptions regarding shared responsibility, deprivatized practices, reflective dialog and organizational learning. Findings of this study suggested a significant relationship between teacher qualifications and professional community practices in these schools. Another finding was that increasing the level of education contributed to enhancing the level of professional community practices within schools. These findings showed a path for the policy makers
to pay attention to teachers’ level of education for well-developed professional community practices in schools. In addition, shared responsibility increases continuously with the teacher’s level of qualifications. Similarly, Hallinger and Lu’s (2014) quantitative research work in Hong Kong primary schools found that shared vision enhanced teacher commitment through teacher’s collaboration among staff.

Li et al. (2016) employed a cross-sectional and quantitative research approach in their study and data were collected from nine hundred and seventy Hong Kong primary teachers. This survey investigated teachers’ perception regarding leadership and key factors of schools. In this respect, the researchers used principal leadership and school capacity and teacher professional learning. Findings of this study showed that school based cooperative atmosphere, communication, trust, support for students, arrangement and unity and overall structure of schools have affected teacher professional learning. The positive workplace such as trusted, cooperative and communicative conditions are the basic requirements in fostering professional learning approach in these investigated schools.

These research findings are supported by Bogler and Somech (2004). The supportive and nurturing workplace culture can help to foster staff commitment levels through stimulating professional growth and development. Hausman and Goldring (2014) also suggested that constructing a collaborative environment can easily build up an environment for TPCP practices in a school that is a powerful strategy for enhancing teacher involvement in professional activities.

In the Malaysian context, some researchers focused on learning community practices in schools. Abdullah and Ghani (2014) found that teachers can be active in their learning and improve their schools to enhance student learning performance by shared values, goals, mission and vision. They used cluster sampling to select six hundred and seventy
six teachers from one hundred and seventy-seven secondary schools from eleven states of Malaysia. These dimensions play a vital role among teachers which shape the learning community in schools. The results showed that teachers gave a higher mean score regarding the perceptions of their professional learning community. Teachers in schools who adopted professional learning community practices not only work harder doing the things in a perfect way, but also ensure proper implementation for getting a better future for the students.

In addition, Ismail, Najdah, and Abdullah (2014) investigated the impact of professional learning communities (PLC) practices using quantitative method in low and high performing schools. The researchers found that the high performing schools experienced higher level of professional learning community practices than low performing schools. They recommended PLC as an active agent for enhancing teacher professionalism and school performance.

2.4.1 Measurement of teacher professional community practice

Many researchers have measured the teacher professional community practice in various ways. The concept of teacher professional community practice can be categorized as partaking three characteristics: shared responsibility, reflective dialog and de-privatized practices (Lee et al., 2012; Louis et al., 2010).

Moreover, some researchers have abstracted five interconnected components of TPCP, for example, deprivatized practice, reflective dialog, and shared sense of purpose, collaborative activity, and collective concentration on student learning; these emerged from various quantitative research studies (Kruse, Louis, & Bryk, 1995; Louis, Marks, & Kruse, 1996).
These dimensions of TPCP were conceptualized on the basis of Western countries. Therefore, Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) developed the instrument to measure TPCP based on the context of Asian countries, as some researchers found deprivatized are rarely practiced in this context. In addition, some researchers excluded the factor of deprivatized practice from the dimension of TPCP (Ho, 2010; Law, Galton, & Wan, 2007). This study adopted the instrument of Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) and used the six items that were combined with the construct of shared responsibility and reflective dialog.

Shared responsibility refers to the collective sense of teachers due to contribute to student learning and outcomes away from their own teaching in the classroom (Ho et al., 2016). Burgess and Bates (2009) designated that shared responsibility of teachers was constructed on the fundamental and cultural interdependence when carrying out their duties as staff members; hence, shared responsibility was noticed as the strength of leadership of teachers.

Reflective dialog had originally emerged from the perception of reflective practice which was practiced for assisting the interchange of ideas and information between several colleagues. The practice of reflective dialog involved teachers not only to share information regarding teaching and students but also to employ in deeper considerations on works and required demands to change due to progress student learning (Ho & Chen, 2013). It is reported that oral interaction allows an educator to scrutinize practices with others in the community. This is essential for developing reflective dialog for a learning community in schools.

2.4.2 Role of TPCP in school outcomes

Teacher professional community practice plays an important role in building teachers’ personal and collective capacities besides improving students’ achievements in school. Lee et al. (2012) found in their review work during five years from eleven studies that
well-developed TPCP focused positively on improving teaching and learning practices in schools. The findings of their study showed that TPCP focused on teacher instructional development through a mediator of student achievement. Pancucci (2008) observed that TPCP improved teachers’ interpersonal and organizational capacities, enhances their attachment in professional activities that generated student achievements in schools.

Moreover, contemporary education can be progressed on collective capacity of individual teachers that are associated with developing school wide capacity for fostering students’ learning practices that can act as a power to cultivate a learning community for school improvement (Stoll et al., 2006). Lee et al. (2011) who examined collective capacity of learning found a positive and significant effect on teacher commitment level in Chinese schools. Another important factor found by Hallinger and Lu’s (2014) quantitative study in Hong Kong primary schools was that shared vision of teacher professional community practice acts as a mediator to enhance teacher commitment and collaborative manner among staff. These findings were supported by Hausman and Goldring (2014) who suggested collaborative environment was a powerful strategy for improving teacher commitment in schools. Bogler and Somech (2004) also observed that teacher commitment to the organization cultivates the supportive and nurturing culture that stimulated their attachment toward the organization, resulting in effective professional activities in schools.

Similarly, the professional activities of teachers provide opportunities for professional growth (Dannetta, 2002; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007) that developed a school environment where teachers collaborated to find ways of addressing student learning, behavioral problems and motivation. The attachment of teachers was sustained because of loyalty of teachers for schools. According to Bullough (2007) who conducted an eight-year study,
TPCP had positive impact on teachers’ working approaches, enthusiasm, and commitment level. As the shared vision and collaborative culture had significantly related with job satisfaction, everyone took part in helping each other to produce a good result for student achievement.

Another review work by Vescio et al., (2008) concluded that professional community practice has great impact on teaching and learning practices in English and USA schools. This review, moreover, showed that well-developed professional community practices develop the teaching practices that simultaneously impact on student achievement. In addition, Ho et al. (2016) explored that shared responsibility of teachers in professional community practices increased continuous development in the level of qualifications of teachers in Hong Kong schools. The continuous development of teachers accomplish student learning, because TPCP build up a culture for promoting all educators to learn as a student.

As Eaker and DuFour (2015) stated, the construction of a learning culture within the school community create a collective atmosphere of principals, teachers, students, parents and school community members. Therefore, the school is able to create a cohesive atmosphere among the school population. Consequently, the sharing learning culture increases the learning of students that ensure effectiveness of the school. The creation of a learning culture practices shows the practitioners as lifelong learners (Hord, 2013) that is a vital factor for reforming the education system for any country. To sum up, it can be included that developing schools as a professional community has been advocated as a dominant factor to reform education due to its effective and systematic approach for the high quality of teaching and learning process in schools.
2.4.3 Summary of teacher professional community practice research

Mentioned various research work pointed out that teacher professional community practice have led them to do their work with teamwork, with critiques and adopt various considerations for implementing new practices to enhance their quality of teaching practices. Therefore TPCP has an impact on student learning outcomes that provided a positive influence on school effectiveness.

2.5 Relationship between women PILP, TOC, TPCP

This section focuses on the related literature and empirical studies pertaining to the relationship between the latent variables. This study is to investigate teacher organizational commitment (TOC) as the dependent variable with the relation of women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) as independent variable while teacher professional community practice (TPCP) act as mediating variable; teacher demographic variables refer as moderating variables as well (Figure 2.1). This is followed by argument on educational leadership in the Malaysian setting and a research gap underscoring the conducted study on the relationships among the variables, women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP), teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice (TPCP).

2.5.1 Relationship between women PILP and TOC

Women principals have been publicized widely for supporting and collaborative culture in schools as well as fostering their employees to show positive attitude toward the organization. For example Brinia (2012) proved that women principals were emotional, sensitive, expressive, cooperative, aware, tactful and responsive of other ideas in maintaining the relationship among students, teachers and staff in their leadership approaches. The researchers collected their data by open-ended and semi-structured interviews of twenty male and twenty female primary principals in Greek schools. They
revealed caring as the ethical perspectives of women principals that enhanced the level of commitment of students and teachers.

Noor (2007) did a research study in Johor Baru schools, Malaysia and found that women principals were rated higher in terms of instructional leadership practices by teachers. In addition, women principal instructional leadership practices had strong, positive correlation with teacher self-efficacy that fostered teaching quality of teachers in classrooms. The perception of teachers regarding their women leaders had established a positive relationship between teachers and principals which simultaneously increased teachers’ satisfaction in their profession.

In addition, Teh et al. (2014) did a quantitative survey in Malaysian secondary schools and found that principals’ gender was a positive moderator on teacher commitment. The supportive leadership practices of women principals had impact on continuance commitment. The findings showed that there was no moderating relationship effect between women principal leadership practices and affective commitment in these schools. The researchers used SmartPLS structural equation modeling technique in determining the moderator relationship between women principal leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment (TOC).

Teh et al. (2014) also found that the normative commitment expressed teachers’ sense of trustworthiness and sense of responsibility toward their organizations. In addition the normative commitment had a positive and significant moderating effect on gender of principals. These findings also revealed that the principal-teacher relationship was moderated by gender of principals. Among all relationships, only a few relationships are moderated by the gender of principal in this study. Therefore the researchers concluded that gender was not a significant moderating variable on the relationship between leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment.
Besides that, Lai and Cheung (2013) discovered that the positive perceptions of teachers regarding women principals might incline them to show positive work attitudes in the organization. They did a cross-sectional survey in seventy-seven Hong Kong secondary schools run by female principals and collected three hundred and four questionnaires for data analysis. The positive views of women leaders emphasized on human relationships and led to a set of clear instructions for overcoming organizational difficulties. The women principals created coalitions to encourage teaching improvement and professional development through instructional knowledge and information. In this way, teacher’s job satisfaction increased their commitment level within schools.

Moreover, in a comparative qualitative study, Morriss, Tin, and Coleman (1999) found that Singapore and England women principals acknowledged themselves as supportive and participatory leaders through their instructional knowledge. The principals exhibited their good relationship with their staff and enhanced teacher commitment toward schools. Teachers were stimulated to contribute to the decision making process. This study was supported by Kropiewnicki and Shapiro’s (2001) descriptive case-study of four women principals in the USA. They found that women principals had preserved ethical settings of care for emerging the relationship within the school community. Women principals, furthermore, followed instructional practices of teaching and learning to express their commitments to students and teachers. Thus, the principal’s positive attitude also helped teachers to stay willingly in their job which showed their psychological attachment toward schools.

Kropiewnicki and Shapiro’s (2001) work was supported by exploratory research work of Tamar, Arar, and Azaiza (2010) on Arab women principals. Women principals were found to have established as concern of loving characters with their instructional support and motivate others for their organizational responsibilities and also nurtured high quality
teaching in schools. The support and participation of principals develop the professional
development that had a positive and significant effect on student learning (Day et al.,
2010; Heck & Hallinger, 2011; Louis et al., 2010; Robinson et al., 2008).

Chan and Kaur (2009) revealed that woman principals applied various leadership
approaches in several circumstances to address daily dilemmas in schools. Yet, women
principals proved themselves as effective instructional leaders. They have strong
motivational skills, commanding figure and a “soft” approach in the case of their own
personality traits. This study shows a path that among all leadership approaches, it is
emergent to apply instructional leadership to enhance teacher’s willingness to stay within
the organization. Similarly, Zikhali and Perumal (2015) disclosed from their empirical
data that emale principals, after facing different challenges in disadvantaged schools had
overcome their dilemmas due to showing encouragement, sympathy and mysticism
characteristics in schools as well as ability to influence social respect within the
community. These special characteristics of women principals have positive effect on
employees’ commitment level in schools.

The findings of Kochan, Spencer, and Mathews (2000) were supported by Zikhali and
Perumal (2015). Women had capacity to perform their responsibilities very efficiently.
The researchers mentioned that women focused on developing employee skills and
ensured collaborative leadership which simultaneously affect employee’s commitment
levels for schools (Zikhali, & Perumal, 2015). These findings aligned with those of
another researcher, Alexander (2013) who found that supportive leadership practices of
women principals have a good strength for the organization to motivate teachers
intrinsically toward professional activities. These leadership practices led them to frame
the school goals as well as to communicate the school goals among all the staff.
Subsequently, these principals had positive impact on student outcomes. The leadership
practices of women principals should cultivate a culture of mutual trust, esteem and success within schools (Leithwood & Sun, 2012).

Adams and Hambright (2004) discovered that, as women had spent a long time in classroom teaching, organized instructional program, curriculum development have prepared them easily for the instructional leader role in schools. Hence, women principals have acted as resource providers and offered direct instruction in maintaining high quality of teaching practices in classrooms. Women principals played a vital role to encourage and to empower teachers for their professional growth that had heightened their level of organizational commitment. Many studies had supported that principals’ supportive attitude for staff growth was closely connected to goals for expanding the teaching and learning process in schools (Day et al., 2010; Heck & Hallinger, 2014).

Glass et al.’s (2001) quantitative findings proved that women were caring and child centered as well as skilled and knowledgeable in instructional activities facilitated for teaching and learning and curriculum for student achievement. Women principals were perceived as supporting, cooperative and collaborative working relationships, and tend to contribute to high levels of job satisfaction among staff. They had high expectations to empower others within the school community. Likewise, Grady and O’Connell (1993) found in a qualitative study that women principals always took care of children and teachers and worked with students and teachers in various programs that revealed them as communicators, supervisors, listeners, and problem solvers. It means that they carry out their jobs in maintaining the relationship as family members with colleagues and students. This school climate effortlessly motivate teachers toward their organization from ethical perspectives.

However, Atieno (2013) in a descriptive survey followed questionnaire and interviews from teachers and female primary head teachers from Kenyan schools. The researchers
found that female head teachers were effective instructional leaders through supervising and checking of students’ work and students’ records and delivery and provide resources to teachers for classroom activities. The interaction among teachers, students and school leaders furthered collaboration and a positive attitude regarding student learning. Therefore, the principals developed professional skills of teachers which increased teacher retention in schools. The women leaders furthermore, believed in building up a better world for the future generation. This perception was found from exploratory data from Leela and Brown’s (2003) stories of women leaders from nine different countries such as China, Indonesia, Gambia, Cyprus, Kuwait, Iraq, Commonwealth of Dominica, and Zambia. This moral obligation of women principals helped to sustain teacher’s development for generating high quality teaching besides enriching their commitment level toward their organizations.

It can be summarized from various research work and reviews regarding women principals instructional leadership practices (PILP) and teacher organizational commitment (TOC) that women exhibit a potential for intimacy and enhance the ability for nurturing and caring to empower others through exercising instructional leadership in order to enhance teacher commitment. Besides that, the relational based leadership through instruction develops a positive culture of high quality teaching and learning in schools. This research suggested that women share a desire to implement a consultative, collaborative work environment to foster an open, supportive atmosphere responsive to the needs and enhancing the commitment level of teachers to the organization. In other words, women principals are allied with all around them to benefit their schools.

2.5.2 Relationship between women PILP and TPCP

Lai and Cheung (2013) conducted a cross-sectional survey in 77 Hong Kong secondary schools administered by female principals. The researchers revealed that collaborative,
participative and supportive attitude through women PILP fostered teaching quality in schools. In addition, women principals were concerned regarding teacher professional development thus helping teachers to improve learning and student outcomes. A positive relationship among teachers, school administrators and principal had established a harmonious environment as well as supportive interdependence with colleagues. The positive work attitudes of teachers and other staff stimulated a professional community where everyone shared and collaborated for improving learning within schools.

Schein (2007) proved that women school leaders were committed to their careers as a social justice and their commitment was to motivate and to continue this mission for developing teaching and learning in schools. Their instructional approach established a community where all professionals showed collaboration to enhance their self-growth for school outcomes. Women school principals were concerned with teaching and learning thus ensuring their commitment to students and teachers. They also played a role as good listeners and problem solvers and aimed at creating a teacher professional community practice rs to enhance their professional growth (Kropiewnicki & Shapiro, 2001). The researchers, moreover, revealed in their descriptive case-study method in the USA that the principals had preserved ethical obligation for developing the relationship among students, teachers and staff. This work was supported by Brinia (2012) who conducted open-ended and semi-structured interviews of twenty male and twenty female primary principals. Greek women school leaders described themselves as sensitive, emotional, expressive, aware, cooperative, tactful and encouraged other ideas in order to create a collaborative culture.

Similar findings were underscored by Tallerico and Tingley (2001) who concluded in their study that American women emphasized teacher professional development which made for school success. This achievement of principals nurtures teacher commitment.
This great concern of women principals act as a strength for developing teaching and learning in schools. Hence, women principals’ collaborative nature in leadership practices impact on teacher behaviors. The teachers also create a collegial culture to develop student learning within schools. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) showed in their small essay from various insights of education scholars that women leaders are reported as entering into the education sectors because of their perception to change the position of education to an extraordinary level.

Glass et al. (2001) additionally proved that women leaders are child centered and generator of student success through collaborative culture in their workplace. This leadership approach led to applying democratic leadership styles and power, which translate into high levels of staff job satisfaction. The school community also established a supportive workplace with parents and other members in schools. Furthermore, all the school members had the opportunity to share their ideas and information and accepted new teaching techniques to improve teaching quality in schools. According to the teachers, the female principal was assessed significantly higher in supervising and evaluating instruction, communicating school goals, maintaining high visibility, coordinating curriculum, providing incentives for learning and promoting professional development which made them more effective instructional leaders than male principals. This type of leadership practice aimed at obtaining proper school goals and vision.

Women leaders’ planning and goal achievement had come close to others rather than through others. This relational approach of goal accomplishment increased the teaching and learning in schools. In addition, this culture cultivates the instructional knowledge of women leaders which developed the positive collaborative workplace in schools. Based on this, Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) recognized the potentials of relational leadership, spiritual leadership, leadership of social justice, balanced leadership and leadership for
learning as key departures from traditional leadership aspects. Relational leadership proposes relationships with others in a parallel rather than hierarchical way.

Hence, it can be concluded that that women leaders’ relational leadership establish a consultative, supportive atmosphere which foster to develop a shared, collaborative environment responsive to the needs and enhancing the teacher professional community practice (TPCP) in schools. Thapa and Cohen (2013) stated that the relationship, from a psychological point, means the path for the leaders which help to identify our feelings and make us aware of ourselves. Similarly, Higgins and Kram (2001) observed that the women leader’s success is profoundly dependent on relations with others. Women leaders have powered in association with others to build strong networks within the teacher professional community practice.

2.5.3 Relationship between TOC and TPCP

Student learning can be enhanced by the collective effort and collaborative activity in schools. Many researchers mentioned that the collaborative manner and collective efficacy of teachers resulted from their level of commitment. For instance, a qualitative study by Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) collected data from five hundred and fifty nine teachers from Hong Kong primary schools. They investigated teacher professional community practice showing cumulative power as an approach for promoting robust change in schools. The descriptive analysis of this study showed that TPCP obtained a higher level of mean than teacher commitment in these schools. They also found TPCP has direct effect on teacher commitment.

Other finding by Lee, Zhang, and Yin (2011) using multiple regression analysis in Chinese schools showed that collective learning and supportive conditions and trust among colleagues as well as collective teacher efficacy was positively significant for enhancing the level of teacher commitment. In addition, teachers’ collective efficacy
presents the shared beliefs of teachers within their school that could significantly and positively influence students’ learning achievements (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2004). In short, this learning outcome is the result of teacher commitment that enhanced the teaching quality in schools.

Hallinger and Lu’s (2014) quantitative research in Hong Kong primary schools found that shared vision enhanced teacher commitment through teacher’s collaboration among staff. The researchers mentioned that leadership practices had great impact in facilitating teacher professional community practice in schools. Similarly, Hausman and Goldring (2014) suggested that constructing a collaborative environment and building a TPCP for teachers in a school were powerful strategies for enhancing teachers’ commitment.

Research by Bogler and Somech (2004) showed that teachers improved their commitment to the profession and the organization if they believed that they were working in a supportive and nurturing culture that stimulated their professional growth and development. The professional growth increases teacher attachment for students as well as toward the organization. The same findings emerged in a quantitative research by Ning et al. (2016). They mentioned that the highly engaged learning teams were highly correlated with collaborative learning, reflective dialog, collective focus on learning and shared values and vision in Singapore schools. Reflective dialog might enhance the respect and trust among teachers that support the social network for enhancing teacher learning, progress as well upgrading their level of commitment (Baker-Doyle & Yoon, 2011).

Similarly, Dannetta’s (2002) study also supported that the opportunity for professional growth in a school was an important factor affecting teacher commitment to student learning. These findings indicated that TPCP was a significant forecaster of teacher commitment. A TPCP positively affected teachers’ efficacy. School teachers’ efficacies
could be improved in a school environment where teachers collaborated to find ways to address their students’ learning, behavioral problems, and motivation.

Bullough, (2007) did an eight-year study and revealed that TPCP was sustained within school because of faithfulness among teachers. This trusting atmosphere then positively impacted on teachers’ working approaches, enthusiasm, and subsequently their level of commitment to working. Pancucci (2008) observed that TPCP improved teachers’ personal, interpersonal and organizational capacities and their level of commitment to professional development, as well as student achievement. Ware and Kitsantas’s (2007) quantitative research work found that teacher’s growth had been established to be associated with better commitment toward schools.

Pedder (2006) did a survey in England and found that teacher involvement in learning through sharing vision and collaborative culture had significantly related to student achievement. As Pedder (2006) mentioned:

If schools are to embody the conditions that optimize and sustain the quality of teachers' and pupils' learning, they need to develop the processes and practices of learning organizations (p. 175).

Therefore, the sharing culture had been significantly associated with job satisfaction, as everyone took part in helping each other to produce a good result.

These findings were supported by past researchers such as Louis, Marks, and Kruse (1996). They conducted a mixed-method case study and found that teacher professional community practices in a school are a major concern because of their contributions in enhancing school development. Teacher interaction within schools has a great strength on restructuring the education that can facilitate the consequences of teacher commitment for professional activities.
It can be summarized that teacher professional community practice is a dominant way of functioning together that overwhelmingly affects teaching performance. Yet, in sustaining the conception, it required the school to focus on teacher learning, work collaboratively related to learning, and grasp itself answerable for the efforts to fuel persistent development in schools. The escalation or reduction of teacher professional community concept rely not only on the virtues of itself, but also the most important component in enhancing any school - the persistence and the commitment of the teachers within it.

2.5.4 Relationship between women PILP, TOC and TPCP

Women principals have potential for student learning and teaching practice because they develop a positive learning culture in schools. In addition, woman principal instructional leadership practices have created a positive workplace where teachers are encouraged to share their knowledge especially to develop their learning and teaching practice. These findings are supported by many researchers in the educational leadership of women principals. Yet, there is a little knowledge in literature to identify the direct relationship among IL of woman principals, TOC and TPC practice.

Regarding this, Nichols and Nichols (2014) collected data from teachers, parents and students from elementary schools by using quantitative method. The data showed that the positive climates in schools have been demonstrated to endorse higher job retention of teachers which in itself stimulates greater student achievement. Women leaders focus on the school mission by assigning learning and instruction at the midpoint of their leadership practices. Women leaders take decision on the basis of the priorities of student learning. The emphasis on collaboration has paid great attention to advancing student progress and developing professional growth within schools. Consequently, women
leaders ensure teacher collaboration through instructional practice for teacher professional community practice in schools.

In terms of communicating, learning, and knowing, women leaders can easily interact with each other and increase teacher professional development to develop the school community. Concerning this topic, Addi-Raccah (2006) examined Arab and Jewish women principal leadership practices and found that the inclination of women leaders to mentor other women depends on their leadership approaches but it intertwines with the wider sociocultural features in the school environment. This practice of teachers highlights the attachment within schools that boost teacher commitment level toward the organization.

Grogan (2000) acknowledged the relational power as it is united to benefit others while power applied to control recompenses relationships. Women endorsed this relationship leadership practice to apply decision making process that allow them to acknowledge effort from others. Indeed, this instructional work is facilitating the duties of others who share the responsibilities in a collaborative manner to facilitate school outcomes and teacher organizational commitment.

Therefore, it can be noted that women principal instructional leadership practices have created a harmonious workplace where teachers are helpful, generous in sharing knowledge especially in the teaching and learning process. Thus, this unity among all has generated collegiality, shared responsibility and overall a collaborative manner in respect of improving teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice within schools.
2.6 Teacher demographic variables

Women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment are imperatives variables in school effectiveness, so the perceptions of teachers toward their organization and leadership practices could not be possible to obtain easily. Regarding this aspect many researchers claimed various demographic variables to find out their perspectives regarding women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment. The researcher in this study focused on gender, age, race, teaching experience, the level of education and years of service with respective principals.

2.6.1 Relationship between teacher demographic variables and TOC

Many factors influencing teacher organizational commitment (TOC) in schools. For example, Noordin et al. (2010) found that employees’ age was positively connected with affective and normative commitment, while age had no effect on continuance commitment. This data were collected by quantitative research work from primary schools in Malaysia. The researchers found in their study that the age in between thirty-one to forty-four showed positive and significant relationship with job satisfaction in the organization. Similar result was achieved by many researchers, such as Meyer and Allen (1991). On the other hand, research by Irving and Coleman (2003) showed that employees’ age had no significant relationship with organizational commitment.

Similarly, Bakar and Mustaffa (2013) revealed age and tenure of employees had no significant influence on the commitment level in a Malaysian organization. The researchers, furthermore, added that age and working a long time within an organization had no relationship with staff commitment. Likewise, Mathieu et al., (2016) found that their control variables, such as age, gender, education level of employees have no significant relationship with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and leader’s
behavior. They used quantitative approach using SEM analysis and collected the data from Canadian organizations.

Moreover, Madsen, Miller, and John (2013) examined the relationship among teacher organizational commitment, gender and age of teachers. Ling and Ibrahim (2013) collected their data from twenty-seven secondary schools, in Miri, Sarawak and proved a significant difference existed between commitments and teaching experience of teachers. They found that increase in teaching experience has a relationship with decreased teacher commitment levels in schools. Furthermore, Liu (2016) showed that a significant relationship existed between employees’ experience and organizational commitment.

Lee and Ahmad (2009) showed organizational commitment had significant relationship with education level of teachers, age and teaching experience. Goulet and Singh (2002) stated that organizational commitment was related to gender because women employees are more committed toward their organization compared to men but the commitment level was not associated to age in their findings.

Similarly, Yousef (2000) investigated how highly educated teachers had more expectations about their jobs. This proved their lower commitment toward the organization. The researcher also noted a relationship among employees’ organizational commitment, experience and gender. This finding was supported by Ali and Yangaiya, (2015) who informed of a positive correlation between organizational commitment and education level of employees.

Moreover, Malaysia is a multiracial country, so that the race of school teachers played a role in their job responsibilities (Fontaine, Richardson, & Foong, 2002). Teh et al. (2014) found in their quantitative research that there was no significant difference among
three races on commitment to students, commitment to teaching, commitment to the profession and overall commitment toward the organization. They distributed 1154 questionnaires in Penang primary schools to collect their data. Past researchers have reported age and job satisfaction had little influence on each other.

2.6.2 Relationship between teacher demographic variables and women PILP

Many researchers discovered principal instructional leadership practices rely on various factors within schools. Hallinger and McCary (1991) stated that factors such as level of school, staff composition, school locations, socioeconomic position and school resources can play a role in sustaining principal instructional leadership practices. Likewise, some scholars have conducted studies to elucidate the association between women principal instructional leadership practices and gender, race, age, educational background and teaching experience of teachers. Fackler and Malmberg (2016), for example, found gender had significant effect on principal instructional leadership practices in schools.

Atieno (2013), however, found no significant differences based on the gender of teachers about the perceptions of female school leaders. In contrast, other researchers showed that male teachers rated higher their female principals for supervising and evaluating instructional activities as compared to female teachers (Nogay & Beebe, 2008). Gumus and Akcaoglu’s (2013) quantitative study in Turkish primary schools found teachers’ gender to be significant in perceptions of their principal instructional leadership practices. In addition, gender was positively correlated with team work, instructional direction, sensitivity, judgment, and result orientation. The female teachers were rated lower than the males regarding the perceptions of male principal instructional leadership practices. As most of the Turkish primary school leaders were male, the female teachers might not be satisfied with the approach of male principals. They found that
teaching experience of teachers was not significant with principal instructional leadership practices.

Similarly, Noor (2007) found that the male teachers rated their women principal instructional leadership practices higher than did female teachers. The researchers did the quantitative study in eleven schools in Johor, Malaysia and collected the data from 276 teachers. Teh et al. (2014) mentioned that the education level (though most of school teachers have obtained bachelor degree), may have reduced their commitment level toward the organizations. In contrast the higher level of education may have decreased the stereotyping attitude toward gender. Since Malaysia is recognized as a Muslim country, Muslim respondents willingly admit women principals as their leaders from the views of leadership practices in schools. Additionally, Tabbodi (2009) noted leadership practices and teacher commitment as determining factors on followers’ age and gender.

2.7 Theoretical framework

Though a number of commitments of employees are described by many researchers since several years to date, this study has concentrated on teacher organizational commitment. As Meyer et al. (2002) stated, organizational commitment is comprised of trust in and acceptance of organizational values and goals; desire to employ strength on behalf of the organization and willingness to remain in the organization. In addition, Meyer and Allen (1991, 2004) referred employees’ psychological attachment as their commitment toward the organization. The attachment of employees has showed individual’s physical and mental relation for the organization. In fact, some who are emotionally attached, some are demonstratively and some feel obligation toward the organization. On the other hand, the lack of commitment can negatively affect a person’s comfort, self-confidence, and job satisfaction (Ali & Yangaiya, 2015).
Based on the significance of teacher organizational commitments, this study has used the three-component model (TCM) of Meyer et al. (1993). Meyer et al. (1993) described organizational commitment as desire-based, obligation-based and cost-based. Desire-based commitment is discussed as affective commitment as it has the relationship among employees’ attendance, performance, and organizational citizenship behavior and stress and work–family conflict outcomes (Allen & Meyer, 1997; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer et al., 2002). Cost-based commitment, moreover, is recognized as continuance commitment that shows employees’ wish to continue in the organization because of financial needs (Meyer et al., 2002). When employees want to remain in the organization because of their moral and desirable obligation, it refers to normative commitment or obligation-based commitment (Meyer et al., 2002).

Therefore, school leaders are responsible for creating a structure for developing teacher organizational commitment in schools. Literature demonstrated that the principals directly influence the level of teacher organizational commitment (Ling & Ibrahim, 2013). Effective leadership and favorable working place have motivated the teachers, increasing their commitments and encouraging them to stay in the organization (Shirzadi et al., 2013). Effective leaders have the ability to perform specific tasks and performances required for the organization (Northouse, 2013).

Principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) have a significant relationship with teacher organizational commitment (TOC) which has increased school effectiveness. The school principal must ensure job satisfaction of teachers through his or her effective instructions among teachers (Johnson, Kraft, & Papay, 2012). Hence, Sekhu (2011) identified that the teachers’ working attitude and organizational commitment have great impact on principal instructional leadership practice within schools.
The instructional leaders stimulate the teaching and learning practices in schools (Bush, 2014; Bush & Glover, 2016; Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Hallinger, 2015; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Robinson, 2007) such that this culture has influenced teacher organizational commitment (Premavathy, 2010). In general, principals undertake to do instructional responsibilities, likewise monitoring student learning, coordinating and supervising instruction, and supporting teacher development (Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Nonetheless, along the line of leadership, many researchers have focused on personal characteristics, above all gender is one of the imperative issues in leadership from several decades (Adams & Hambright, 2004; Brookfield, 2015). Therefore, many researchers have drawn attention to women principal instructional leadership practices in schools (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985; Hulpia et al., 2011). Regarding this aspect, the researcher in this study has investigated whether women principal instructional leadership practices have influenced the levels of commitment of teachers in Malaysia.

Thus, the central work such as collaboration for planning time, professional development, teacher decision making, shared goals, shared vision, teacher organizational commitment, and sense of collective responsibility of instructional leaders will set up the premise of teacher professional community practice within schools (Hallinger, Lee, & Ko, 2014). Teacher professional community practice, however, is defined as a school-wide community which has targeted for endless development of teaching practices by linking staff in in-depth, organized, collaborative activities of professional development at school level (Lee et al., 2012). Therefore, when the school has established a culture of TPCP it would spontaneously promote student learning through values, norms, and shared expectations among teachers.
Many researchers claimed various teacher demographic variables to find out their perspectives regarding women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment. Based on different studies and research work, the researcher has framed the theoretical framework (Figure 2.2) for this study to investigate whether women principal instructional leadership practices have a direct influence on teacher organizational commitment (TOC) or have an indirect influence which is mediated by teacher professional community practice (TPCP) and teacher demographic variables acts as a moderator on the relationship between women PILP and TOC in public secondary schools in Malaysia.

![Theoretical Framework](Image)

**Figure 2.2:** The theoretical framework of the study

### 2.8 Conceptual framework

Based on the theoretical aspects mentioned before, teacher organizational commitment (TOC) is the dependent (endogenous) variable in relation to women principal
instructional leadership practices (PILP) as the independent (exogenous) variable through the mediator of teacher professional community practice (TPCP). This study represents teacher demographic variables as moderating variables.

The researcher conceptualized the framework depending on leadership theories (Bush, 2014; Northouse, 2013; Robbins & Coulter, 2013; Yukl, 2013) subsequently emphasizing woman leaders as a mirror of empowerment other through relational attitude in the organization (Avolio, 2010; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Van Engen & Willemsen, 2004). Specially, the researcher found that the three dimensions of principal instructional leadership such as defining the school mission, managing the instructional program and developing a positive school learning climate (Hallinger, 2013; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985) are widely recognized as the characteristics of women principal instructional leadership practices in educational settings. Women have involvement in teaching profession from grass root-levels to top-levels, so that they can exhibit their potential for nurturing and caring for others through their empathy, caring, and participatory behavior by motivating their followers toward organizational success. Women principal instructional leadership practices were used to study the impact of principals’ behavior on followers’ commitment level and their engagement to build up a teacher professional community practice enthusiastically within schools.

Moreover, principal instructional leadership practices is to enhance teachers’ performance through commitment toward the organization (Hallinger, 2005). Thus, principals need to assist in terms of imparting required skills and proficiency to their followers to obtain perceived goals. Hence, this study measures the relationships between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment (TOC). This study focused Meyer et al.’s (1993) organizational commitment
as a dependent variable whereas affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment are the three dimensions of this commitment.

In addition, the researcher focused on the teacher demographic variables as moderating variables. Some research found that there was relationship existed between teacher demographic variables and principal instructional leadership practices (Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013). On the contrary, other researchers found no relationship between teachers demographic variables and women principal leadership practices (Atieno, 2013) and organizational commitment, job satisfaction and leader’s behavior (Mathieu et al., 2016). Therefore, the researcher focused teacher demographic variables for instance gender, age, race, education level, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals as the moderator variables in this study.

Based on empirical studies conducted by Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014), it was found that principal instructional leadership practices have an impact on teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice in Hong Kong primary schools but there is little evidence found to show the strength of the relationship in this context. Therefore, this study was carried out to examine the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice and teacher demographic variables in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools. According to this, the researcher put forward the following conceptual framework for this study in Figure 2.3.
2.9 Public secondary education system, Malaysia

Public secondary education is delivered by National Secondary Schools that is called in the Language of Malaysia ‘Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan (SMK)’. These secondary schools use mainly Malay language as a medium of instruction whereas English is mandatory for all students. In Malaysia secondary education refers to Form 1 to 5. Form 1 to 3 are recognized as lower secondary or ‘Menengah Rendah’ and Form 4 and Form 5 are acknowledged as Upper Secondary or ‘Menengah Atas’ (Ministry of Education, 2015).
Students, once completing primary education will gain admission into Form 1. In this level, the participation in co-curricular activities is obligatory for all students. Students at the end of Form 3 participate in the Lower Secondary Evaluation ‘Pentaksiran Tingkatan 3’ (PT3). On the basis of their Lower Secondary Evaluation, students are allowed to choose any one stream from three available streams; the academic stream such as science and art; technical and vocational and religious stream. The Malaysian Government in 2013 declared to substitute the Lower Certificate of Education (LCE) assessment system with new evaluation, ‘Penilaian Berasaskan Sekolah Menengah Rendah’ (PBSMR). At the last stage of Form 5, the students attend the examination named ‘Sijil Pelajaran Malaysia’ (SPM) or Malaysian Certificate of Education Examination before graduating from secondary schools. The SPM is evaluated on the basis of ‘British school Certificate’ Examination (Ministry of Education, 2015). This study only focused on the daily public secondary schools that are called ‘Sekolah Menengah Kebangsaan (SMK)’ in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

2.9.1 Organizational structure of secondary schools

The Ministry of Education (MOE), Malaysia covers overall accountability to develop and manage teachers from pre-school up to the secondary level. Regarding these perspectives, the Ministry of Education has several departments and divisions such as the Education Policy Planning and Research Division (EPPRD), Teacher Education Department (TED), Teacher Training Institutions (TTTs) and local public and the Human Resource Division (HRD) universities. At the secondary school level, principals are responsible for providing professional development and administrative leadership in schools. The school boards along with Parent-Teacher Associations (PTA) provide assistance in school management and support to foster collaboration between schools and communities. Principals enjoy support and services from federal, state, and district education officers. School principals will be given more authority through greater-school
based management (Ministry of Education, 2015). They will have active flexibility corresponding with their schools’ performances on subjects such as budget allocation and curriculum timetabling.

Principals will become instructional leaders and be responsible to make any changes within schools. School principals, assistant principals, subject and department heads will work together in schools with required services and have a condensed administrative burden so that they can involve their strength on instructional leadership practices (Ministry of Education, 2013). School principals will have to remain open to new procedures of working, to involve the community in school development, and to act as coaches and trainers to build capabilities in their staff along with other staff for different schools.

2.9.2 Gender distribution of teachers and administrators in secondary schools

According to the Ministry of Education (2015), the two-thirds (63%) of the teaching workforce in Malaysia consists of female teachers while half of the secondary schools (49%) are headed by women principals.

This corresponds to the intake of students in higher education in recent years, that is also dominated by females. In addition, female students achieve better academic results and therefore are capable to fulfill the entry requirements for higher education, including teacher training institutions.

2.9.3 Role of TPCP in secondary schools

In Malaysian secondary schools, teachers will have access to more school-based professional development facilities. Teachers contribute in constructive feedback discussions and dialog that emphasize not on fault and punishment, but on learning and improving the respective areas (Ministry of Education, 2013). Therefore, the vision of the
Ministry of Education is to provide the teaching profession as an energetic and rewarding profession of choice, and the procedures are being developed to deliver teachers with an incorporated solution in terms of workload, career progression, continuous professional development and performance management (Ministry of Education, 2015). The Ministry of Education also provides the training program that is a particularly important factor for enhancing the quality of teachers. Ongoing professional development also helps teachers to maintain and enhance their proficiency, including staying upgraded with the new teaching practices and school curriculum. This training program extents the spectrum of self-study and workshops for classroom observations and lesson planning. In this regard, the Ministry of Education emphasize on school-based learning program that is the best effective form of a learning community practice in schools (Ministry of education, 2013). According to the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025) (Ministry of Education, 2013), “The aspiration is to create peer-led culture of professional excellence wherein teachers mentor and inspire one another, share best practices and hold their peers accountable for meeting professional standards” (p. 5-11).

School principals, moreover, play a vital role in ensuring that all teacher in secondary schools in Malaysia have the ability to cultivate themselves through the learning process. International research reported that this learning process occurs through collaboration of teachers in tackling issues and sharing best practices, particularly those that focus on change and upgrading in classroom teaching and learning practices (Ho et al., 2016).

2.10 Research gap

The existing literature posed a view that women principal instructional leadership practices plays a vital role in improving teaching and learning practice in schools. Teacher professional community practice (TPCP) has the strength to upgrade the commitment level of teachers. Yet, Malaysian literature has little research work regarding the women
principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice (TPCP) and teacher organizational commitment (TOC). Besides, most of the literature regarding women leadership was conducted through qualitative research; this involved the perceptions from principals themselves all over the world, so that these circumstances could have created bias from the findings of women leaders.

Hence there is a requirement for quantitative investigation to find the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher professional community practice and teacher organizational commitment and demographic variables of teachers in Malaysia. In order to find out the level of teachers’ perceptions and relationship of these variables, the researchers used the non-experimental quantitative approach by using surveys. The three-component model (TCM) (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) was used because it is a leading model to find out perceptions of teachers toward their organizations. The principal instructional management rating scale (PIMRS) is the most distributed model among various models (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008) to assess the perceptions of teachers regarding their principal instructional leadership practices. Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) developed six items to find out the perceptions of teachers regarding TPCP and these items are used because their contents are consistent within this context.

Furthermore, the fundamental focus of this study is to find out the relationship among women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice and demographic variables of teachers in public secondary schools, Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia (see conceptual framework in Figure.2.3). Nevertheless, present literature did not provide any direct information concerning this model of this study in this context. Accordingly, this study
will be able to bridge the gap in knowledge about successful school leadership in Malaysia.
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research design briefly applied in this study. Subsequently, the description of the population, and applied sampling procedures, the development of the instruments, pilot study, and the data collection procedures, and data analysis methods are explained. Moreover, this chapter elaborates on the pilot study to confirm the validity and reliability test for the data collection instrument. At last, this chapter captures the techniques used to analyze the data as well to find out the answers to the ten research questions.

3.2 Research design

The research design shows the particulars on how a study was performed (Creswell, 2013). Overall, research design provides a guideline to support the researchers for collecting data, analyzing and interpreting the processes and to come out with the implications of the studied variables (Chua, 2012).

In Figure 3.1, the researcher described the research procedure for this study. The top of this figure explained on how to identify the research problem for this study. Research problems were identified from various studies, once the problems were structured in the shade of some theories and literature related to teacher organizational commitment (TOC), women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP), teacher professional community practice (TPCP) and teacher demographic variables. Based on several theories and studies, the researcher developed a conceptual framework for this study. The proposed framework was validated through a pilot study and the opinion of expert. At last, the final data were collected through the target population by a survey instrument and the next analyzed the data by using Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS).
This study used a non-experimental quantitative method. In the quantitative method, it is important issue to indicate the variables to find out the characteristics of individuals and to show their relationship or influence of each other for approaching the study (Creswell, 2012). In order to perform non-experimental quantitative research, researchers identified variables for this study. Variables are called as ‘attribute’ or ‘characteristics of individuals’ (Hair et al., 2010). Since this study aimed at finding out the relationship among the variables, therefore the researcher finds out the dependent variable,
independent variable and so on. Dependent variable is identified by the result or effect of the relationships of variables whereas the independent variable is the factor which exists before changes occurs in the dependent variable (Chua, 2013). In addition, Hair et al. (2010) stated, “dependent variable, to be predicted or explained by other variables known as independent variable” (p. 12).

Furthermore, non-experimental research is a systematic empirical inquiry in which the researcher does not have any direct influence on any variable (Hoy, Sweetland, & Smith, 2002). It is clear that there is no influence of the dependent variable over the respondents which is out of manipulation (Mcmillan, 2012). Creswell (2013) stated that a quantitative approach is quite suitable for the “identification of factors that influence an outcome” or “understanding the best predictors of an outcome” (p. 18). In addition, the researcher determined instruments which yielded highly reliable and valid scores for these variables.

Besides, the quantitative method allows applying data from a large population through a sample size (Babbie, 2015). Therefore quantitative study permits research on a data from a sample through a big population. The findings of the quantitative study can be generalized to the whole population (Creswell, 2009).

This study applied survey research which is administered through a survey instrument and collected data relating to the variables (Babbie, 2015). Survey research, nonetheless is a very familiar and popular method in different fields of study. Both social sciences (Chua, 2012) and educational sectors (Mcmillan, 2012) used this research technique a lot. According to survey research, Chua (2012) added that it is easier to collect data through questionnaires regarding many questions in an easy and short way and also possible to use a large sample to generalize the findings. Furthermore, Babbie (2015) mentioned surveys as an excellent vehicle to determine attitudes and alignments from a big population.
Since this research work demonstrated the relationship among the variables it is called an explanatory method in the research world. Thus, this study applied to examine how one variable affects or is related to each other (Creswell, 2012). This part applied the quantitative design that reveals that this study relies on numerical data and accuracy (Chua, 2013). Quantitative research is the collection and analysis of numerical data, which describe, predict or control phenomena of interest of research. It also describes to identify the current conditions and investigate among different variables of the study (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2011). The development and testing of hypothesis, generation of models and behavior related theories are concerned topics in quantitative research which are connoted by empirical observation and mathematical observation.

This study used questionnaires through a paper-pencil format so that it was gathered perceptions of teachers with respect to a large population using a small sample size (Chua, 2012). The researcher in this study used the teacher organizational commitment (TOC), women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) and teacher professional community practice (TPCP) and teacher demographic variables such as gender, race, age, education level, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals as moderator variables.

3.2.1 Research sample and population

Population indicates the whole group of people, events or things of interest which is investigated by the researchers (Chua, 2013). Additionally, Creswell (2009) stated, “A population is a group of individuals who have the same characteristic” (p. 142). The target population is the group of respondents who are participating in the study. Similarly, the targeted population in this study consists of all public secondary school teachers where principals’ positions are occupied by women in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. According to the District Education Office (Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, 2015),
there were 61 public secondary schools administered by women principals in this state (Appendix I) (Table 3.1). This state has been chosen because a good number of schools (74%) are represented by women principals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Number of Schools</th>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keramat</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pudu</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2811</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentul</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>5268</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source. District Education Office, Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, 2015*

The sample size is very important in performing quantitative research. Regarding this, Chua (2012) mentioned that sampling is the procedure for selecting a number of respondents from a population for any study. Therefore, for this study, there were 357 respondents needed as a sample size according to Krejcie and Morgan’s (1970) table where the confidence level was 95% and significance level, \( p = .05 \). The researcher used this table from Krejcie and Morgan (1970), as it is used widely to calculate sample size in social science research.

Regarding sample size, Bartlett, Kotrlik and Higgins (2001) cited, “using an adequate sample along with high quality data collection efforts will result in more reliable, valid, and generalizable results; it could also result in other resource savings” (p. 44). Moreover, Allison et al. (2016) added that efficiently selecting a sample is better than poorly selected samples in a research work. The researcher was aware about the sample size which is not a very small sample or very large because the sample size can be affected by the statistical data. Hence, Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2011) recommended 100-400 as the perfect sample size for research work.
At the first stage, proportional stratified sampling procedure was employed to select the number of teachers as samples. The teachers were divided into three groups based on three zones in this state. Then the least number of teachers are fixed from each group following the mathematical calculation (Table 3.2). The calculation is as follows:

\[
\text{Number of Teachers needed from each Zone} = \frac{\text{Number of teachers in such zone}}{\text{Total number of teachers}} \times \text{Total number of samples (Krejcie & Morgan)}
\]

Example,

\[
\text{Number of Teachers needed from Keramat} = \frac{1019}{5268} \times 357
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Number of schools</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Minimum Number of teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keramat</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1019</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pudu</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2811</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentul</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1438</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>5268</td>
<td>357</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Campbell and Stanley (2015) mentioned that a random selection of between 4 to 10 respondents in school is adequately representative of the feelings and perceptions of the entire school. According to this, the researcher decided to choose 10 teachers from each school as samples in this study. Hence, the number of schools needed from each district can be estimated based on the minimum number of teachers needed from each district.

The mathematical expression involves dividing the minimum number of teachers by 10 and the highest whole number is to be taken for the calculation. For example, if the minimum number of required teacher is 69, it should be divided by 10 (69/10 = 6.9), so that the highest whole number will be 7. But in order to cope with unavoidable circumstances, the researcher will add one more school for each district in case less than
full responses were received from all respondents. Sometimes the questionnaire might be not completely filled or wrongly filled. Table 3.3 shows the number of schools required from each district and the actual number of teachers selected as samples for this study.

Table 3.3: Number of schools required from each zones and actual number of teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Zone</th>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Min. No. of Teacher</th>
<th>Required schools</th>
<th>Required teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Keramat</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1019</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>7+1 = 8</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pudu</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2811</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>19+1 = 20</td>
<td>200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentul</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>1438</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>10+1 = 11</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>5268</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the second stage, simple random sampling was used to select a number of schools required from each district. In this process, the researcher selected schools as per sample so that all schools had the same probability and chance to be selected from the population (Chua, 2012). The intent of this sampling process was to have a sample representative of all the population. The assigned procedure of this process represented each school in each district. For example, there were 8 schools taken as a sample out of 12 schools in the district of Keramat, so that the researcher prepared 8 small pieces of paper where the paper number should be 1 to 8. Then these pieces would be put into a box and subsequently, one piece of paper would be taken away from the box. So the first number of respective piece of paper was recorded as the first sample and it was stored in another place. In this way, the pieces of paper taken away from the box as required for a specific school of that district. The same procedure was followed for each school zone repeatedly.

In the final stage, systematic random sampling was used to select teachers as respondents from each of the selected schools. A systematic random sample of 10 subjects was selected from each school to participate in this study. From Mertler’s (2008) point of view, systematic random sampling is often done when the teachers are listed as a master
staff of the school list. In this process, the teachers’ name list was taken from the school by getting the principal’s permission. Consequently, the total number of teachers of the respective school was divided by 10 which the samples needed from the each school are obtained as a lowest rounded whole number \( n \). Number \( n \) is the sampling interval which was the distance in the list between each of the individuals selected as samples (Babbie, 2015). For instance, if a school had 65 teachers, the number \( n \) was obtained by dividing 65 by 10 which is equal to 6.5 and the lowest whole number is 7. So, the \( n \) was equal to 7. Then the researcher chose a number randomly from number 1 to 7 by drawing a number from a box. The researcher took one piece of paper from the box. If the first number taken was 6 so the first sample should be chosen from the staff list number whose name is in number 6. In order to get the second sample, the researcher added 7 and 6 which would be 13. In this way, the researcher found out the respective number of samples for each school.

3.2.2 Research instrument

Creswell (2009) stated that “an instrument is a tool for measuring, observing, or documenting quantitative data” (p. 14). The instrument is designed to answer specific questions and possible response that are required for doing this study. This study selected the questionnaire as a research instrument. Moreover, the behavior of principals influence teachers’ perceptions; that is why it is a vital factor in evaluating the perception of teachers regarding women principal instructional leadership practices (Blasé & Kirby, 2009). The questionnaire is appropriate for use in educational research especially for teachers due to reducing the burden or any pressure during answering the items as well as covering up their free time.

The used instrument (Appendix B) in this study is designed to elicit the data corresponding to the four main variables. These four variables were (1) teacher
demographic variables (2) woman principal instructional leadership practices (3) teacher professional community practice (4) teacher organizational commitment.

On the basis of literature reviews, the researcher revealed six eliciting information, such as age, gender, race, the level of education and years of teaching experience as well as teaching experience with respective principals had influenced on women principal instructional leadership practices and TOC. However, the researcher analyzed how these variables affected secondary schools in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The data of teacher demographic variables were listed in Section A of the instrument. Information on demographic variables would be collected as nominal data (Creswell, 2013). These nominal data allowed the researcher to examine the various categories of demographic variables using frequency distribution (Hair et al., 2010).

The researcher adopted the instrument of principal instructional management rating scale (PIMRS) (Hallinger, 2013; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985); three-component model (TCM) (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993) and teacher professional community practice (Hallinger, Lee, & Ko, 2014). Along with their permission (Appendix C, D, E), the researcher used these items in this study which were listed in section B of the instrument.

Women principal instructional leadership practices was measured by three dimensions of the principal instructional management rating scale (PIMRS) by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) and Hallinger (2013). These consisted of 50 items, which referred to specific women principal instructional leadership practices identified for effective school research within the dimensions of defining school mission, managing the instructional program and developing a positive learning climate. This instrument has ten factors containing five items for measuring different leadership functions within each factors as mentioned in Table 3.4.
Table 3.4: Number of items and dimensions of women PILP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Items distribution</th>
<th>Total items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defining the school mission</td>
<td>Frame the school’s goals</td>
<td>1-5 (5)</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communicate the school’s goals</td>
<td>6-10 (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing instructional program</td>
<td>Supervise &amp; evaluate instruction</td>
<td>11-15 (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Coordinate the curriculum</td>
<td>16-20 (5)</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitor student progress</td>
<td>21-25 (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing learning climate</td>
<td>Protect instructional time</td>
<td>26-30 (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Maintain high visibility</td>
<td>31-35 (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide incentives for teachers</td>
<td>36-40 (5)</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Promote professional development</td>
<td>41-45 (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Provide incentives for learning</td>
<td>46-50 (5)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source. Hallinger (2013)

The researcher used the three-component model (TCM) which was revised by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) including three dimensions such as affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. There were 18 items designed to elicit information regarding teacher organizational commitment toward the organization. Table 3.5 shows the number of items and dimensions of teacher organizational commitment.

Table 3.5: Number of items and dimensions of TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Items distribution</th>
<th>Total items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>Affective commitment</td>
<td>51-56 (6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continuance commitment</td>
<td>57-62 (6)</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Normative commitment</td>
<td>63-68 (6)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source. Meyer et al. (1993)
The last six items in this instrument were adopted from Hallinger, Lee, and Ko’s (2014) developed instrument regarding teacher professional community practice (Table 3.6).

**Table 3.6:** Number of items of TPCP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Items distribution</th>
<th>Total items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TPCP</td>
<td>69-74</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source. Hallinger, Lee, & Ko (2014)*

### 3.2.2.1 Numerical rating scale

The PIMRS ratings by Hallinger and Murphy (1985) used a Likert rating scale from one to five intended to measure the level of teachers about principal instructional leadership practices (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Meyer and Allen (2004) applied a one to seven Likert rating scale for measuring employee perception regarding organizational commitment and used two end-points mentioning disagree and agree. In order to change the scales, Meyer and Allen (2004) stated in the TCM guidelines:

> It is possible to alter the scales without having a major impact on reliability and validity. The strength of the impact, however, will depend on the nature and extent of the revision (p. 5).

Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) used a 6-point Likert rating scale to measure the teacher professional community practice in Hong Kong schools. Based on various scales, this study used numerical rating scales to obtain the perception of teachers regarding the variables on a continuous 11-point scale in the questionnaire. Regarding this, Hair et al. (2010) stated:

> Ratio scales represent the highest form of measurement precision because they possess the advantage of all lower scales plus an absolute zero point. All mathematical operations are permissible with ratio-scale measurements (p. 8).
The 11-point scale is superior due to its ability to measure the perceptions of different response categories (Preston & Colman, 2000). Each variable is represented by the items on the same scale in this survey instrument. Regarding this issue, Bryk et al. (1999) used a “0” to “10” scale to find out the perceptions of teachers regarding professional community in schools. In Malaysia some researchers used a 10 point to 11 point scale to measure the perceptions of respondents. Likewise, Awang et al. (2010) used a 10 point scale to find out the job satisfaction and work commitment of university lecturers in their quantitative work.

The researcher in this study used an 11 point scale indicating two points starting and ending point in both sides. Moreover, Awang and Jusoff (2009) stated 1 to 10 point scale mentioning two point strongly disagree, “1” and strongly agree “10” can show no “fixed and forced choice” for the respondents. The PIMRS ratings intended to measure the perception of teachers about women principal instructional leadership practices (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). Teacher perceptions of women principal instructional leadership practices in this study were measured by a numerical rating scale. The scale was indicated from number 0 to 10 to measure the perceptions of women principal instructional leadership practices, where the first endpoint “0” referred to the words “not agree at all” and “10” referred to the words “strongly agree”.

Similarly, the numerical rating scale numbered from 0 to 10 was used to measure the perceptions of teachers regarding teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice. This numerical rating scale had two endpoints where the first endpoint “0” was referred by the words “strongly disagree” and “10” was indicated by the words “strongly agree”.
3.3 Pilot study

Once having prepared the instrument, the researcher had to ensure whether the questionnaire was accurate for measuring the variables of this study. Hence, the researcher assessed the “goodness” of the questionnaire developed by establishing the instrument validity and reliability (Sekaran, 2003). As Thabane et al. (2010) mentioned, pilot study is used for trial study or testing on a small group before administering the instrument on the actual sample, so that the researcher can ensure the feedback of the instrument to ascertain the actual study can meet the research objectives.

The pilot study was carried out on 41 teachers at secondary schools situated in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor. A cover letter was attached with the questionnaire (Appendix A). The respondents chosen in this pilot study were those who were similar to the sample in the final study. Hence, the pilot study has given clear information and confidence regarding the questionnaire for its relevancy and feasibility for the final study (Chua, 2012).

3.3.1 Validity

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2008), validity displays correctness, appropriateness, meaningfulness and usefulness for the specific study that can assist the researcher in collecting the data. In addition, Chua (2012) described that validity is the furthermost important idea in considering to prepare an instrument for application in the research. Moreover, validity tells whether the information as obtained by using the instrument fulfils the requirements (Johansson et al., 2015). Therefore, there were different types of instrument validity used in educational research. Hence, this study discussed in detail the content and construct validity for developing the instrument.

Content validity is to measure that the included variables were adequate and represent the items of the concept or how well the dimensions of a concept have been delineated
According to Muijs (2011), content validity shows whether the content of the variables are appropriate to measure the concept. In order to ensure content validity, the researcher met the panel of judges or experts who had identified whether the questionnaire was valid or not (Creswell, 2013). Therefore, the researcher was provided the evaluation regarding the instrument by a panel of experts for content and face validity (Appendix F). Expert Feedback was used for ensuring the scales of investigation are culturally and technically appropriate or not for this study. Then, the items were revised for consistency of terminology, specifically of questions and responses and the items rephrased as necessary before the instrument was administrated to the respondents.

Thus, those items not fit for the data collection were revised according to professional reviewers’ point of view (Appendix A). Hence, Expert-1 had approved all the dimensions of three variables: women PILP, TOC, and TPCP. He suggested some changes such as rephrasing various items which were belonging to the factors of women PILP. Similarly, items 2, 3, 10, 11, 16, 24, 34, 38, 40, 44, 45, 47 were rephrased according to the opinion of Expert-1. He modified some items based on the Malay Language of the instrument.

Subsequently, Expert-2 had approved all the dimensions of three variables women PILP, TOC and TPCP. He recommended rephrasing of some items of the factors of women PILP. Similarly, items 5, 9, 21, 22, 32, 37, 48 were rephrased according to the opinion of Expert-2. In addition, Expert-2 also suggested using “school” instead of “organization” for the items (51-68) of TOC. He revised some items regarding the Malay Language and modified some items based on the context.

Expert-3 had approved all the dimensions of three variables women PILP, TOC, and TPC. He further recommended rephrasing of some items of the factors of women PILP. Similarly, items 7, 10, 36, 42, 50 were rephrased based on the content of the Malaysian education system.
Based on experts’ comments, the researcher modified some items, rephrased some while keeping some unchanged. The attachment in Appendix A showed the amended items based on the experts’ comments.

Moreover, the researcher used construct validity which can be evaluated for the fit between the construct being measured and nature of the responses from individuals (Creswell, 2012). Muijs (2011) mentioned that the way a questionnaire was designed and questions worded would affect the responses given. Hence, the researcher pre-tested 5 questionnaires by distributing to the bilingual teachers as respondents. The pre-test of questionnaires can reveal ambiguities, poorly worded questions, easily misunderstood questions, and unclear choices; it can also identify whether the instructions for the respondents were clear or not. Consequently, the help of Bahasa Melayu and English teachers were required to do the face validation and ensure the translated instrument did not depart from the original instrument. Based on the valuable suggestions from the experts and pre-tested questionnaires the instrument was modified for the pilot test for establishing the reliability test.

3.3.2 Reliability

Reliability is thought of as consistency of variables which are intended to be measured (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008; Gay et al., 2011). The reliability is measured by different methods. Yet, the researcher used the internal consistency measurement which identified the homogeneity of the items in the construct (Chua, 2013). In other words, it can be shown the relationship of items or dimensions to one another. The most popular test of internal consistency reliability is the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (Creswell, 2013).

Cronbach’s alpha coefficient is highly applied to the estimate of reliability tests. This test shows the internal consistency of the items by keying values of correlation among the variables in the instrument. According to Sekaran (2003), if the reliabilities are less than
.60 it is referred as poor; that ranged between .60 to .70 is considered as acceptable while the ranged over .80 is considered as good. Chua (2013) suggested that the range of Cronbach’s alpha from .65 to .95 is sufficient. The following table 3.7 shows the yielded results of the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient.

**Table 3.7:** Cronbach’s coefficient alpha values of all dimensions (N=41)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Cronbach Alpha for pilot study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Principal instructional leadership practices</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Defining the school mission</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Frames the school’s goals</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Communicates the school’s goals</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Managing the instructional program</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Supervises and evaluates instruction</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Coordinates the curriculum</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Monitors student progress</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Developing the school learning climate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Protects instructional time</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Maintains high visibility</td>
<td>.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Provides incentives for teachers</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv. Promotes professional development</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v. Provides incentives for learning</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher organizational commitment</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Affective commitment</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii. Normative commitment</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii. Continuance commitment</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher professional community practice</td>
<td>.93</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Prior to the final data collection, the researcher conducted a pilot study in three secondary schools situated in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor in Malaysia to investigate the reliability, validity, and relevance of items of all variables of the instrument. For the pilot study, the instrument was prepared in two languages both in *Bahasa Melayu* and English.
so that the respondents do not face any difficulties in understanding the language. The questionnaires were distributed among 50 teachers in these three schools and 41 completed questionnaires were returned. The data gathered were analyzed using the Statistical packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 for internal consistency of the instrument.

Reliabilities based on (Table 3.7) Cronbach’s alpha coefficient ranged from .85 to .95 for all dimensions of the PIMRS (Hallinger, 2013), TCM (Meyer et al., 1993) and teacher professional community practice (Hallinger, Lee & Ko, 2014). These results suggested that the factors comprising women principal instructional leadership practice, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice achieved satisfactory standards of internal consistency.

3.4 Data collection procedure

First the researcher presented the research proposal through Seminar-1 in order to get the faculty’s permission through approval from an institutional review board. After obtaining approval from the respective panels of the Institute of Educational Leadership, University of Malaya, the approval letter was forwarded to the Educational planning and research division (EPRD), Ministry of Education (Appendix G) along with the research proposal as well as an instrument to seek for permission for conducting the research.

Upon getting the permission, the researcher obtained a permission letter from the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, District Education Office (Appendix H) by attaching the approved letter from the EPRD. Survey questionnaire and the standard instructions regarding the handling of a survey were attached along with the letter to them.

After obtaining these consents, the researcher contacted the respective principals along with the permission letter from EPRD and District Education Office, Federal Territory of
Kuala Lumpur seeking their co-operation for this study. The data collection was carried out by the direct administration and self-collection method.

The researcher, previously, received the appointment date and on the first day collected the teachers list from the principals. Using the systematic random sampling the respondents were picked for the study. The researcher informed the respondents to gather in one location to inform the purpose of this study, and mentioned their rights to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty. It was also mentioned that the participation was voluntary and confidentially was assured and that they could ask the researcher if they faced any query when filling the questionnaires. The researcher collected the final data from August through December 2015 from 39 Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools, Malaysia.

3.5 Research ethics

Since human beings were engaged in this study, the careful process should be taken to maintain their safety and ensure privacy regarding the data. During the study, the researcher clarified the aims of this study among the respondents. They decided to partake in this study after getting through the surveys. Yet, the researcher also confirmed that if they wanted to skip answering any question or wanted to drop out from this study, they could do so willingly during the data collection period.

3.6 Analysis of data

Data analysis means analyzing and interpreting the data which is conducted simultaneously. Analyzing information involves examining the ways that reveal the relationships, patterns, trends, and so forth that can be found within it. Quantitative data were analyzed using a computer program such as Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS). In addition, this data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistical methods to answer the ten
research questions of this study. Before proceeding on the data analysis, the researcher applied the test of normal distribution of data.

3.6.1 Descriptive statistics

Chua (2013) stated that descriptive statistics are to “describe the characteristics of the subjects in a population directly using the descriptive indices” (p. 109). According to Pallant (2013), the statistics are included in frequencies, measure of central tendency (means, modes and medians), measures of dispersal (range, interquartile range, and standard deviations), and cross-tabulations and standardized scores. Therefore, the researcher used frequency distribution and percentage for the profiles of respondents in terms of demographic variables, such as gender, age, race, education level of teacher, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals in these schools. The researcher used numerical rating scales in this study; subsequently mean ($M$) and standard deviation ($SD$) and item analysis were presented for answering the research questions one, two and three.

3.6.1.1 Measuring mean and standard deviation

Though the researcher used ratio scales’ data, therefore these data were presented as mean ($M$), and standard deviation ($SD$) scores (Chua, 2013). Mean ($M$) is an average number which represents a set of observed values for any study. Standard deviation shows “the average total of an individual’s score which deviates from the mean score in a distribution” (Chua, 2013, p. 11). Moreover, item analysis was described by mean and $SD$ of each item in the instrument. In order to answer the research questions one, two and three, the researcher used mean, standard deviation and item analysis. Thus these statistics helped the researcher to measure the perceptions of teacher organizational commitment, women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice of secondary school teachers in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur.
The researcher used the numerical rating scale to measure teacher perceptions. The starting point of this scale was “0” and the ending point was “10”. Since this was a numerical rating scale, the researcher divided this scale into three levels with an equal interval. The researcher used the following formula for measuring the equal interval:

\[
\text{Formula for equal interval} = \frac{\text{Largest value} - \text{smallest value}}{\text{No of Level}}
\]

\[
= \frac{10 - 0}{3} = 3.33
\]

Therefore, the interpreting level of mean for this study was 0 to 3.33 as low; 3.34 to 6.67 as Moderate; 6.68 to 10.00 as High (Leong, Chua, & Kannan, 2016).

3.6.2 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics are used to explain the relation between the variables. Chua (2013) stated the purpose of inferential statistics, “is to generalize the relationship between variables in the research sample to the research population” (p. 31). The researcher in the present study used inferential statistics to find out the relationship between independent variables, dependent variables, mediator and moderator variables. The inferential statistics also help in forming a conclusion regarding the relationship of different variables of this quantitative study. By this approach, the researcher could draw the generalization about the relationship of the variables of the research sample to its actual population. Inferential statistics are accompanied by statistical tests for instance the \(t\)-test, chi square test, Pearson correlation test, ANOVA test, Spearman rho correlation test, partial correlation test and so on (Chua, 2013).

Before proceeding with statistical analysis, one of the fundamental conditions is to check whether the data of the study were normally distributed or not. Normality of data is accepted by some statistics and graphs. In order to ascertain normality, the researcher used skewness and kurtosis (George & Mallery, 2016; Pallant, 2013) and histogram (Chua, 2013).
The skewness and kurtosis values display configuration of data distribution. When skewness shows a positive value it means the data is positively skewed and a negative value means the data is negatively skewed on the graph (Hair et al., 2010). Kurtosis displays the height such as low or high. A positive kurtosis value shows a high distribution which is called *leptokurtic*, in contrast, a negative kurtosis value shows a low distribution which is called *platykurtic* (Chua, 2013).

For normally distributed data, the range of skewness and kurtosis should be in the range of -1.96 and +1.96 (Chua, 2013). For the histogram, the normal distribution frequency shows the data were normally distributed because it displayed a high distribution in the middle and low distribution at both the left and right ends. Once ensuring the assumption that the data distribution was normal, the researcher used the Pearson product-moment correlation, multiple regression analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM) to find out the relationship between the variables.

### 3.6.2.1 Normality of the data

In order to do the normality test for this study data underwent Skewness and Kurtosis testing. The skewness and kurtosis values of three variables: the dimensions of TOC and women PILP, TPCP are within the normal distribution range +1.96 and -1.96 (Chua, 2013). The distribution frequency showed that the data were normally distributed and displayed a high distribution in the middle and low distribution at both the left and right ends in the histogram (Appendix K).

The following Table 3.8 showed the results for test of skewness and kurtosis for the variables of the study.
Table 3.8: Normality test for all dimensions of variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Skew.</th>
<th>Kurt.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>PILP</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining the school mission</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>-.228</td>
<td>.470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Frame the school’s goals</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>-.289</td>
<td>.284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Communicate the school’s goals</td>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>-.426</td>
<td>.346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing the instructional program</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>-.668</td>
<td>1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervise &amp; evaluate instruction</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>-.738</td>
<td>1.234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Coordinate the curriculum</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>-.340</td>
<td>.397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Monitor student progress</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>-.430</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing the school learning climate</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>-.175</td>
<td>.468</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Protect instructional time</td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>-.366</td>
<td>.119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Maintain high visibility</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td>-.226</td>
<td>.359</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Provide incentives for teachers</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>-.579</td>
<td>.935</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Promote professional development</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>-.444</td>
<td>.274</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Provide incentives for learning</td>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>-.236</td>
<td>.316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Affective commitment</td>
<td>6.99</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>-.567</td>
<td>.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Continuance commitment</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>-.015</td>
<td>.414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Normative commitment</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>-.250</td>
<td>.254</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>TPCP</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>-.165</td>
<td>.835</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Skew. = Skewness; Kurt. = Kurtosis

3.6.2.2 Pearson product-moment correlation

Pearson product-moment correlation is a part of inferential statistical analysis which is used to investigate the relationship between the variables (McMillan, 2012). Because this study used the numerical rating scale, and the data were normally distributed, therefore, the researcher used Pearson product-moment correlation to find out the relationship of three variables (Chua, 2013). Thus, Pearson product-moment correlation was computed to investigate the relationship for explaining the fourth to sixth research questions such as to examine the relationship of woman principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment (RQ 4); to examine the relationship between woman principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice (RQ 5); and to examine the relationship between teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice (RQ 6). The correlation coefficient ($r$) is a value that measures the direction and strength of a relationship between two variables.
The $r$ value ranges from +1.00 to -1.00 and the strength of correlation are based on Chua (2013) as depicted in Table 3.9.

**Table 3.9:** The correlation coefficient and the strength of correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The correlation coefficient ($r$)</th>
<th>The strength of correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>.91 to 1.00 or -.91 to -1.00</td>
<td>Very strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.71 to .90 or -.71 to -.90</td>
<td>Strong</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.51 to .70 or -.51 to -.70</td>
<td>Average / Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.31 to .50 or -.31 to -.50</td>
<td>Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.01 to .30 or -.01 to -.30</td>
<td>Very Weak</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.00</td>
<td>No Correlation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source.* Chua (2013, p. 258)

### 3.6.2.3 Multiple regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis was used to answer research question seven. This statistical technique is used to find out the change in two or more dimensions or factors of independent variables that contribute to change in a dependent variable (Chua, 2013). In this analysis, the independent variable (X) is referred as the predictor variable and the dependent variable (Y) is used as the criterion variable. The criterion variable value is anticipated using $k$ predictor variables ($X_1$, $X_2$…$X_k$) (where $k>2$). The equation of multiple regression is presented as:

$$Y = b_1X_1+b_2X_2+……+b_kX_k+a \ [\text{where, } b= \text{Regression coefficient for each predictor variable, } a= \text{Regression constant}] \ (Chua, 2013, p. 287).$$

The researcher in this study used the stepwise method because this method is more efficient and the significant variable (predictor) comes into the regression only. From the perspectives of multiple regression analysis, the $F$ value and the significance level, and coefficient of determination, $R^2$ are required to be shown for reporting multiple regression analysis. In addition, the $R^2$ value shows the change in the criterion variable
(dependent variable) with change of predictor variable (independent variable). According to Cohen’s bench mark (1988), the value of $R^2$ is shown in Table 3.10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Standard effect size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt;.13</td>
<td>Small</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>.13-.26</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>&gt;.26</td>
<td>Large</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source. Cohen’s Benchmark (1988)*

3.6.2.4 Structural equation modeling

The Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) procedure with Analysis of Moments Structures (AMOS) was carried out for answering the research questions, eight, nine and ten. AMOS is the short form for Analysis of Moment Structures. AMOS has developed software for SEM, namely AMOS Graphic. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) is a statistical analysis that helps to get confirmatory approach for the analysis of structural theory relating to some phenomena, such as the casual process as represented by the series of structural equations and subsequently, these structural relations can be modelled pictorially to get clear concept of the theory under the study (Shipman, Byrne, & Mumford, 2010).

Hence, the basic technique was employed for analyzing the data in SEM due to validity and suitability for determining moderation, mediation and relationship among variables; and governing error estimation and model fitness in this study. SEM has some significant benefits which attracted the researcher to allow it in this study (Shipman et al., 2010):

1. SEM takes a confirmatory outlook rather than an exploratory outlook in data analysis. It leads better to analysis of the data for inferential statistics.

2. SEM provides explicit estimates or error variance parameters, and also incorporates both unobserved and observed variables.
3. SEM has many important features including modelling multivariate relationships, or for estimating direct and indirect effects.

The researcher used the mediation test in order to find out the answer of research question eighth. Mediating variable accounts for the relationship between the predictor (independent variable, IV) and the criterion or predicted variable (dependent variable, DV), explains how an external variable or mediator variable significantly change the effect of the independent variable (IV) on the dependent variable (DV). The test for mediation is to examine and analyse the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable, the relationship between the independent and the mediator variable and the relationship between the mediator and the dependent variable. Therefore, Direct effect = IV to DV; Indirect effect = IV to MV and MV to DV.

In this case if direct effect is greater than indirect effect it means that the mediation in the model is associated negatively with the relationship between the independent and dependent variable (Awang, 2014). On the other hand, the lower direct effect is comparing to indirect effect means that the mediation in the model is associated positively with the relationship between the independent and dependent variable (Awang, 2014).

Furthermore two types of mediation occurred in the model, namely “partial mediation” and “complete mediation”. When the mediator variable enters the model, the direct effect is reduced though some of the effect has shifted through the mediator. When the direct effect is reduced but still significant, the mediation effect is called “partial mediation”. On the other hand, if the direct effect is reduced while the $p$-value is not significant, in this circumstance, the mediation effect is called “complete mediation”.

The researcher used the moderation test to find out the answer to research question ninth. Moderating variable moderates the effects on the relationship of independent
variable and dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010). When a moderator enters the model, the casual effects change because of some “interaction effect” between independent variable and moderator variable which is entered into the model (Awang, 2014). The interaction between independent variable and moderator in the model could increase or decrease the effects on dependent variable. In order to test the moderation in a model, it is required to find out the significant level (p-value) that is existed in the interaction and dependent variable (Hair et al., 2010).

The researcher used the model fitness test to find out the answer of research question ten. For estimating model fitness, three stages apply, such as absolute fit, incremental fit and parsimonious fit (Hair et al., 2010) required to prove it. Absolute fit indices display how well this model fits with the sample data (McDonald & Ho, 2002) and determines which proposed model has the fittest for data (Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen, 2008). The measurement of absolute fit indices provides the basic indication regarding the fitness of the proposed theory. Incremental fit indices show the comparison (Miles & Shevlin, 2007) or relational fit indices (McDonald & Ho, 2002) in a group and determine the Chi-square value with a ‘baseline model’ (Hooper et al., 2008).

This category is included in chi-square test statistic, root-mean-square-error of approximation (RMSEA), Goodness-of-fit statistic (GFI), Comparative fit index (CFI). The value of Chi-square shows an overall model fit and “assesses the magnitude of discrepancy between the sample and fitted covariance matrices” (Hu & Bentler, 1999, p. 2). The Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is regarded as “one of the most informative fit indices” (Hair et al., 2010) because of its understanding of the number of valued parameters in the model. In parsimony indices, the RMSEA is favoured as “it will choose the model with the lesser number of parameters” (Hooper et al., 2008, p. 54). The GFI is an alternative test to the Chi-square test. It determines the proportion
of variance which is calculated by the estimated population covariance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The comparative fit index (CFI) is a well-known in all SEM programs due to its least impact by sample size (Hair et al., 2010). Based on various statistical techniques, researchers used the most popular tests indices in this study, such as GFI, CFI, RAMSEA and Chi-square/df ratio. This goodness of fit indices along with its threshold values are given in Table 3.11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fitness indices</th>
<th>Acceptable Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>GFI</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>≥ 0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>&lt;0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of Chi-square/df</td>
<td>&lt;5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cronbach alpha</td>
<td>≥ 0.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source. Hair et al. (2010)*

This is a relational study which consists of one dependent variable (teacher organizational commitment), one independent variable (women principal instructional leadership practices), one mediating variable (teacher professional community practice) and moderator variable (teacher demographic variables). Details are given in Table 3.12.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Research questions</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Data analysis techniques</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What are the perceptions of teachers regarding TOC?</td>
<td>TOC and dimensions of TOC such as AC, CC, NC</td>
<td>M, SD and item analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. What are the perceptions of teachers regarding women PILP?</td>
<td>PILP and factors of three dimensions such as DSM, MIP, DLC</td>
<td>M, SD and item analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. What are the perceptions of teachers regarding TPCP?</td>
<td>TPCP</td>
<td>M, SD and item analysis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Is there any significant relationship between women PILP and TOC?</td>
<td>IV: PILP, DV: TOC</td>
<td>Pearson $r$ Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Is there any significant relationship between women PILP and TPCP practices?</td>
<td>IV: PILP, MV: TPC</td>
<td>Pearson $r$ Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Is there any significant relationship between TOC and TPCP?</td>
<td>MV: TPC, DV: TOC</td>
<td>Pearson $r$ Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Which predicting dimension of women PILP has contributed as the predictor on TOC?</td>
<td>IV: PILP, DV: TOC</td>
<td>Multiple Linear Regression (Stepwise)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Does TPCP act as a mediator for the relationship between women PILP and TOC?</td>
<td>MV: TPC, IV: PILP, DV: TOC</td>
<td>SEM techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Do the teacher demographic variables such as gender, age, race, education level, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals act as moderator for the relationship between women PILP and TOC?</td>
<td>Mod.V: Teacher Demographic, IV: PILP, DV: TOC</td>
<td>SEM techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Do the data linking with women PILP, TOC and TPCP collected from Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools fit in the proposed model?</td>
<td>IV: PILP, DV: TOC, MV: TPC</td>
<td>SEM techniques</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.7 Summary

The chapter describes in detail the methodology of the study such as research design, population and sample selection, the development of an instrument to examine the perceptions of woman principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice and how to determine the instrument validity and reliability through a pilot study. It also mentioned how data collection and data analysis are required for answering the research questions. The respondents were chosen following probability sampling in several stages. Feedback from the experts and pilot study were obtained to further improve the content validity and reliability of the instrument. The research procedure involved getting approval from the IEL, EPRD, State Educational Department and respective schools. The data analysis was carried out using the Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) procedure with Analysis of Moments Structures (AMOS). The proposed research questions were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistical methods.
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter represents the results of research work consists of demographic information of teachers and subsequently descriptive analysis to find out the perceptions of teacher organizational commitment, women principal instructional leadership practices, and teacher professional community practice in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools, Malaysia. Inferential statistics and Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) were used to answer the research questions with the help of findings from the demographics of participants in this study. The study measured the perception of secondary school teachers regarding their women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice (TPCP). The researcher used non-experimental quantitative research and distributed survey questionnaires to 390 teachers in public secondary schools in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. Among the distributed 390 questionnaires, some 375 were returned (response rate 96%) and 357 (Krejie & Morgan, 1970) surveys were selected randomly for further analysis.

This study focused on ten research questions investigating the teacher perceptions regarding teacher organizational commitment, women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice and their relationship among each other. In addition, the researcher analyzed the predicting dimension of principal instructional leadership practices on teacher organizational commitment. The researchers also investigated whether teacher professional community practice act as a mediator between the relationship of women PILP and TOC. The researcher also examined to find out the role of moderator factors of teacher demographic variables such as gender, age, race, education level, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals.
Lastly, the researcher investigated the fitness of collecting data for the variables in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools.

The results of this study are organized in this chapter. This chapter provides quantitative analysis of the data mentioning descriptive statistics about teacher organizational commitment, women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice in public secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. It also describes the relationship among TOC, women PILP and TPCP and teacher demographic variables. Moreover, the predicting dimension of women principal instructional leadership practices on TOC are mentioned in this chapter. Then, the findings from structural equation modeling (SEM) are discussed.

4.2 Teacher Demographic profiles

The demographic profiles of the 357 teachers which includes gender, race, age, education level, teaching experience, and years of service with respective principals were represented in Table 4.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 4.1: Teacher demographic profile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demographic variable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education level</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of service with respective principals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 357
The graphical presentation was also attached (Appendix J). Among 357 respondents, sixty-seven (18.8%) teachers were males, while the remaining two hundred and ninety (81.2%) teachers were females. In terms of race, two hundred and sixty-one (73.5%) teachers were Malay, fifty-seven (18%) teachers were Chinese and the rest of thirty-nine teachers (10.9%) were Indians. As for age, ninety-five (26.6%) teachers were aged below 31 years, one hundred and seventeen (32.8%) teachers were aged between 31 to 40 years while eighty teachers (22.4%) were aged between 41 to 50 years, and the remaining sixty-five (18.2%) teachers were aged more than 51 years. In terms of education level, seventeen (4.8%) teachers had diploma, three hundred (84%) teachers possessed a bachelor degree, and another thirty-nine (10.7%) teachers had obtained master and only one had a Doctor of Philosophy degree. In terms of teaching experience, ninety (25.2%) teachers had less than 5 years’ experience in teaching, while one hundred (28.0%) teachers had experience in teaching between 5 to 10 years and one hundred and sixty-seven (46.8%) teachers had teaching experience exceeding 10 years. The last demographic part was working experience of teachers with the respective principals. While three hundred and ten (86.8%) teachers had less than 5 years’ working experience, one hundred and sixty-two (13.8%) teachers had working experience between 5 to 10 years with the respective school principals.

To summarize, with regard to teacher demographic background, the majority (81.2%) of respondents were females whereas only 18.8% respondents were males in schools. As Malaysia is a multi-racial country, so the researcher focused on race; whereas most of the respondents (73.1%) were Malay, a minority were Chinese (18.0%) and a small minority were Indian (10.9%). Besides this, most of the respondents were those who were aged in between below 31 years. Regarding teaching experience, most (46.8%) of the teachers had teaching experience exceeding 10 years. As for education level, 84.0% teachers had bachelor degree and 10.9% teachers had master degree. Looking at the duration of service
with the respective principals, the majority of respondents (86.8%) were those who had served with them for less than 5 years.

4.3 Data analysis

With respect to research questions, several techniques were employed to analyze the data.

4.3.1 Descriptive statistics

The researcher used descriptive statistics as a way to analyze the mean ($M$), standard deviations ($SD$) and other information of data. The main purpose of this section is to provide answers to the first, second and third research questions.

RQ. 1 What are the perceptions of teachers regarding their organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary school teachers rated their commitments levels using the three-component model (TCM) of Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) (Appendix D). The three-component model was consist of 18 items where a numerical rating scale 0 to 10 was used to measure teacher organizational commitment. The first endpoint “0” is indicated with the words “strongly disagree” and the other endpoint “10” is referred with the words “strongly agree”. Table 4.2 showed information for the teacher organizational commitment and its three dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Affective commitment</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Continuance commitment</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Normative commitment</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>6.50</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$N = 357$; (Mean 0 to 3.33 as Low; 3.34 to 6.67 as Moderate; 6.68 to 10.00 as High)
Based on Table 4.2, the overall mean score of teacher organizational commitment (TOC) was rated at $M = 6.50$, $SD = 1.24$. This could be interpreted as a moderate level of TOC in Federal territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools. Teacher organizational commitment had three dimensions: affective commitment, normative commitment and continuance commitment. The results of the analysis for each of the TOC dimensions indicated that only affective commitment had a high level mean score out of the three dimensions of TOC. Among these dimensions, affective commitment was interpreted as high level of mean score ($M = 6.76$, $SD = 1.52$). Hence, affective commitment also had the highest mean score than the overall mean score of TOC, while normative commitment ($M = 6.44$, $SD = 1.48$) and continuance commitment ($M = 6.31$, $SD = 1.43$) were rated as having moderate level of mean score. These two dimensions were rated the lowest mean score than the overall mean score of TOC. These findings showed that secondary school teachers perceived themselves as demonstrating moderate level of normative and continuance commitment but high level of affective commitment in these schools. Subsequently, the researcher discussed details of all the items of three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment (TOC). Table 4.3 showed the mean score and standard deviations for the six items of affective commitment.

**Table 4.3:** $M$ and $SD$ for each item of affective commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>feel as if this school’s problems are their own</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td>1.81</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
<td>has a great deal of personal meaning for them</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>53</td>
<td>feel a strong sense of “belonging” to school</td>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>very happy to spend the rest of career</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>54</td>
<td>feel emotionally attached to school</td>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55</td>
<td>feel like “part of the family” of school</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>1.52</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source.* Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993); $N = 357$
From the descriptive analysis for each of the items shown in Table 4.3, among six items of affective commitment, three items (52, 56, 53) had higher mean score than the overall mean score of affective commitment. These three items showed that the respondents rated themselves as being emotional toward their schools and felt the schools’ problems as their own. While the other three items (51, 54, 55) were interpreted as having lower mean score than the overall mean score of the affective commitment.

Continuance commitment was the second dimension of teacher organizational commitment and it had six items. The mean score and standard deviation for all the items of continuance commitment were described as in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of continuance commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teacher’s feeling about the school:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
<td>too few options to consider leaving this school</td>
<td>7.04</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>58</td>
<td>very hard for me to leave my school right now</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>staying in school is a matter of necessity as much as desire</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>59</td>
<td>too much of my life would be disrupted</td>
<td>6.15</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62</td>
<td>would be the scarcity of available alternatives</td>
<td>6.07</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>had not put so much, might consider working elsewhere</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source. Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993); N = 357

From the descriptive analysis for each of the items shown in Table 4.4, among six items, two items (57, 58) were interpreted higher mean score than the overall mean of continuance commitment. These two items were represented that teachers had no intention to leave the schools, as well it was a hard job for them to leave the schools right now; while the other four items (60, 59, 62, 61) had lower mean score than the overall mean score of continuance commitment. These items were indicated that the respondents considered to leave the schools and stayed in these schools out of necessity.
Normative commitment was third dimension of TOC and it had six items. The mean score and standard deviation for all the items were arranged in Table 4.5. From analysis the findings showed that among six items of normative commitment, two items (67, 66) had higher mean score than the overall mean score of normative commitment. These two items showed that teachers in these schools did not want to leave the school right now and stayed in school out of loyalty.

Table 4.5: \( M \) and \( SD \) for each item of normative commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>( M )</th>
<th>( SD )</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>would not leave school right now</td>
<td>6.91</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>school deserves my loyalty</td>
<td>6.83</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64</td>
<td>do not feel it would be right to leave school now</td>
<td>6.43</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>owe a great deal to school</td>
<td>6.19</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>feel guilty if I left my school now</td>
<td>6.18</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>feel no obligation to remain with current employer</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.44</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source. Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993); \( N = 357 \)

Table 4.5 shows that the four items (64, 68, 65, 63) had lower mean scores than the overall mean scores of the normative commitment. Hence, these items showed the moral obligation of teachers toward their schools.

From the descriptive analysis, it was shown that teachers perceived a moderate level of mean score of teacher organizational commitment (TOC) in this study. Moreover, affective commitment was rated as having the highest level of mean score as opposed to normative commitment and continuance commitment by teachers in these investigated schools.
RQ. 2: What are the perceptions of teachers regarding women principal instructional leadership practices in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

Public secondary school teachers in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur rated women principal instructional leadership practices using the principal instructional management rating scale (PIMRS) (Appendix B). Principal instructional management rating scale (PIMRS) consisted of 50 items where a numerical rating scale 0 to 10 was used to measure perception of teachers regarding women principal instructional leadership practices. The first endpoint “0” is referred with the words “not agree at all” and the other endpoint “10” is indicated with the words “strongly agree”. The information for the principal instructional management rating scale (PIMRS) for women principal instructional leadership practices was described in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Descriptive statistics of women PILP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Defining the school mission</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Managing the instructional program</td>
<td>6.51</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Developing the school learning climate</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 357; (Mean 0 to 3.33 as Low; 3.34 to 6.67 as Moderate; 6.68 to 10.00 as High)

The descriptive analysis yielded results was shown in Table 4.6, the overall mean score of women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) rated 6.64. This finding showed that the respondents perceived their women principal as demonstrated moderate level of mean score ($M = 6.64$, $SD = 1.04$) in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools. In addition, developing the school learning climate had higher mean score ($M = 6.82$, $SD = 1.43$) than the overall mean score of principal instructional leadership practices. Managing the instructional program ($M = 6.51$, $SD = 0.93$) and
defining the school mission ($M = 6.35$, $SD = 1.00$) were given lower mean score than the overall mean score of women principal instructional leadership practices. However, among these three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices, only developing a positive school learning climate was interpreted as having high level of mean score by the teachers.

For more in-depth analysis, the researcher moved into the details of all the items of all factors of three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices. The researcher next described the item analysis of the first dimension of PILP. Defining the school mission was the first dimension of PILP and it had two factors; framing the school’s goals and communicating the school’s goals.

Framing the school’s goals had five items. The means scores and standard deviations for the five items of framing the school’s goals were arranged in Table 4.7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>My principal develops goals that are easily understood by teachers</td>
<td>7.16</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>My principal uses data on student performance for academic goals</td>
<td>6.68</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>My principal frames the school’s goals in terms of staff responsibilities</td>
<td>6.09</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>My principal uses assessment to secure staff input on goal development</td>
<td>5.72</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>My principal develops a focused set of annual school-wide goals</td>
<td>5.47</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.22</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Mod. (Moderate) Source. Hallinger (2013); N = 357*

From the results of item analysis for each of the items shown in Table 4.7. Among the five items of this factor, two items (5, 4) were at a higher mean score than the overall mean score of framing school goals. These two items reflected that teachers rated highly their women principals for developing school goals which were easily understood by teachers in schools and used the data on student performance for developing the school’s
academic goals. The other three items (2, 3, 1) were rated lower mean score than the overall mean score of framing the school’s goals. These items displayed that women principals sometimes framed the school goals for distributing staff responsibilities and set up annual school-wide goals.

Next, the researcher described the mean scores and standard deviations for all the five items of communicating the school’s goals in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of communicating the school’s goals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My principal-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>communicates the school’s mission effectively</td>
<td>7.15</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>discusses school’s academic goals with teachers</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>refers to the school’s goals or mission in forums</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>school’s academic goals are reflected in school</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>refers to school’s academic goals for curricular decisions</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.48</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mod. = Moderate. Source. Hallinger (2013); N = 357

Communicating the school’s goals was the second factor of defining the school mission and it had five items. Analysis of responses showed that, among all the items of this factor, three items (6, 7, 10) were depicted as having higher mean scores than the overall mean scores of communicating school goals. These items showed that the respondents perceived that their women principals communicated the school mission effectively and discussed academic goals with teachers. Women principals were seen as referring the school’s goals in a forum as well as making it visible to others in schools.

The other two items (9, 8) were given lower mean scores than the overall mean scores of the communicating the school goals. These items indicated that women principals sometimes concentrated on academic goals for making curricular resolutions with teachers as observed by their teachers in these investigated schools.
The two dimension of defining the school mission had two factors; framing the school’s goals and communicating the school’s goals that had mean scores 6.22 and 6.48 respectively. The levels of mean scores of these two factors were interpreted at a moderate level by the respondents in these schools.

Managing the instructional programs was the second dimension of principal instructional leadership practices and it had three factors: supervise and evaluate instruction, coordinate the curriculum and monitor student progress. The first factor of managing instructional program was supervising and evaluating instruction that had also five items. The item analysis of supervising and evaluating instruction were arranged in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of supervising & evaluating instruction

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My principal-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>conducts informal observations in classrooms</td>
<td>6.79</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>points out specific strengths of teachers</td>
<td>6.78</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>ensures that classroom priorities of teachers</td>
<td>6.63</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>reviews student work products</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>points out specific weaknesses of teachers</td>
<td>6.33</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Mod.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Mod. (Moderate); Source: Hallinger (2013); N= 357

The item analysis of supervising and evaluating instruction were arranged in Table 4.9. Among all the items of this factor, two items (13, 14) were interpreted as having high level of mean scores whereas another three items (11, 12, 15) of supervising and evaluating instruction were at moderate level. Moreover all the items of this factor were rated higher mean scores than the overall mean scores of supervising and evaluating instruction by the respondents. These items showed that the teachers highly appreciated their principals as observing their classrooms regularly and pointing out teachers’ weakness and strengths.
Next, Table 4.10 displayed mean scores and standard deviations of coordinating the curriculum and this factor had also five items.

**Table 4.10: M and SD for each item of coordinating the curriculum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My principal-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>monitors the classroom curriculum</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>makes clear the responsibility among staff</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>draws upon the results of school-wide testing</td>
<td>6.38</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>participates actively of curricular materials</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>assesses the school’s objectives and achievement tests</td>
<td>6.09</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source. Hallinger (2013); N = 357*

Table 4.10 has shown that all the items of coordinating the curriculum were rated at moderate level by the respondents. Among the five items of this factor, the four items (18, 16, 17, 20) were given higher mean scores than the overall mean scores of coordinating the curriculum. These items indicated that women principals monitored the classroom curriculum and distributed the responsibility among staff. In addition, women principals strived to draw upon the results for school-wide improvement and assessed the school aims.

**Table 4.11: M and SD for each item of monitoring student progress**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My principal-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>informs teachers of school’s performance</td>
<td>6.82</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>meets with teachers to discuss student progress</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>discusses academic performance with the teachers</td>
<td>6.59</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>informs students of school's academic progress</td>
<td>6.58</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>uses tests and other performance for school goals</td>
<td>6.49</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overall</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.64</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source. Hallinger (2013); N = 357*

Monitoring student progress was the third factor of managing instructional program and it had five items. The means and standard deviations of this factor were described in
Table 4.11. Among all items of this factor, two items (24, 21) were depicted as having the high level of mean scores whereas another three items (22, 25, 23) were at moderate level. The two items (24, 21) achieved higher level of mean scores than the overall mean scores of monitoring student progress. The findings showed that the respondents highly appreciated that their women principals informed teachers regarding the school performance in a written way and concerned about the student progress. Women principals were rated at moderate level due to use test and other activities to develop school goals.

Managing the instructional program had three dimensions; among the three dimensions, monitoring student progress was interpreted at high level of mean scores by teachers in these investigated schools. The mean scores of supervising and evaluating instruction and coordinating the curriculum were interpreted at a moderate level by the respondents.

The third dimension of principal instructional leadership practices was developing the school learning climate that had five factors: protecting instructional time, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers, promoting professional development, and providing incentives learning. At first the means and standard deviations of protecting instructional time were displayed in the Table 4.12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>limits interruptions of instructional time</td>
<td>7.15</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>limits the intrusion of co-curricular activities</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>encourages teachers to use instructional time</td>
<td>7.07</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>ensures that tardy and truant students</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>ensures that students are not called to the office</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hallinger (2013); $N = 357$
Table 4.12, among the five items, three of the items (26, 30, 29) were depicted as having the higher level of mean scores than the overall mean scores of protecting instructional time. This proved that women principals were highly rated by their teachers because they limited interruptions of others when teachers prepared their instructional duties for classroom teaching. In addition, these school teachers perceived that their women principals encouraged them to use instructional time in a proper way.

Table 4.13 described the means and standard deviation of maintaining high visibility. This factor had five items.

Table 4.13: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of maintaining high visibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>takes time to talk informally with teachers</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>tutors students or provide direct instruction</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>visits classrooms occasionally</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>attends in extra- and co-curricular activities</td>
<td>6.12</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>covers classes for teachers until a substitute arrives</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source.* Hallinger (2013); N=357

Table 4.13 has shown that only two items (31, 35) of this factor having the higher level of mean scores. On the other hand, three items (32, 33, 34) were rated lower mean scores than the overall mean scores of maintaining high visibility. These items showed that school teachers rated their women principals at high level because they took time to talk with teachers during breaks and delivered direct instruction to classes. Yet, the respondents perceived that their women principals sometimes visited the classrooms and participated in co-curricular activities in schools in schools to a lesser extent.
Providing incentives for teachers was of the dimension of developing the school learning climate. This factor had five items. Subsequently Table 4.14 showed the mean scores and standard deviations for this factor.

**Table 4.14: M and SD for each item of providing incentives for teachers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>compliments teachers privately</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>reinforces superior performance</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>rewards special efforts by teachers</td>
<td>6.76</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>creates professional growth opportunities</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>acknowledges teachers’ exceptional performance</td>
<td>6.36</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.74</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source. Hallinger (2013); N = 357*

The descriptive analysis for each of the items of providing incentives for teachers was shown in Table 4.14. There were three items (37, 36, 39) out of five items rated at the higher mean scores than the overall mean scores of providing incentives for teachers. Besides this, most of the items were interpreted at high level by the respondents. From the item analysis, it was shown that these schools teachers rated higher their women principals because these principals complimented the teachers individually and recognized performance and accomplishments of teachers in meetings, memos and newsletters.

Promoting professional development had five items. The mean scores and standard deviations for all the five items were presented in Table 4.15. Based on Table 4.15, the overall mean of promoting professional development was perceived as having a high level of mean scores where four of the items (43, 42, 45, 41) were depicted at high level of mean scores by secondary school teachers.
**Table 4.15:** $M$ and $SD$ for each items of promoting professional development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My principal-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>obtains the participation in service activities</td>
<td>7.10</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>actively supports the use of skills</td>
<td>7.05</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>provides time for teachers to share ideas</td>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>in service activities are consistent with the goals</td>
<td>6.92</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>attends teachers in service activities</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source.* Hallinger (2013); N=357

Among the five items, the three items (43, 42, 45) had higher mean scores than the overall mean scores of this factor. The items analysis showed that women principals arranged the participation of all staff in service activities effectively. The important finding was that teachers highly rated their women principals for providing time to share the information obtained from different training programs. Women principals were highly rated by respondents for ensuring appropriate in service activities for teachers.

The fifth factor of developing the school learning climate was providing incentives for learning. The mean scores and standard deviations for five items were displayed in the following Table 4.16.

**Table 4.16:** $M$ and $SD$ for each item of providing incentives for learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My principal-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>uses assemblies to honor students</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>recognizes students for superior work</td>
<td>6.94</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>contacts parents to communicate improved student</td>
<td>6.93</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>recognizes superior student achievement</td>
<td>6.80</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>supports teachers actively in their recognition</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.97</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source.* Hallinger (2013); N = 357
Table 4.16 has shown that providing incentives for learning was perceived at a higher level mean score by teachers in these investigated schools. Among the five items, only one item (47) recorded a higher mean score than the overall mean score of providing incentives for learning. This item showed that teachers rated highly their women principals due to using assemblies to honor students. In addition, women principals were rated as having higher mean scores for recognizing students for academic achievements or noticeable success and progress. Besides, the respondents perceived that their women principals contacted parents to inform them about their children’s performance and accomplishment and recognized students inside the classroom as well as in front of the whole school.

The third dimension of principal instructional leadership practice was developing a positive learning climate that was rated high level of mean score by Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools teachers. Moreover, the respondents perceived their women principals demonstrated the highest practices in protecting instructional time, providing incentives for learning, promoting professional development, providing incentives for teachers and the lowest mean in maintaining high visibility.

Overall, the descriptive analysis of the findings showed that women principal instructional leadership practice were rated as having moderate level of mean by Federal territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary school teachers. Among the three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices, developing a positive school learning climate has the highest mean score compared to managing the instructional program and defining the school mission in these schools. In addition, protecting instructional time was perceived as having the highest mean score among all the factors of three dimensions of women PILP by the teachers in these investigated schools.
RQ. 3 What are the perceptions of teachers regarding teacher professional community practice in Federal territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

School teachers rated the items of teacher professional community practices using the survey questionnaire (Appendix B) in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools. Teacher professional community practice (TPCP) consisted of 6 items where a numerical rating scale from 0 to 10 was used to measure perception regarding teacher professional community practice. The first endpoint “0” was indicated with the words “strongly disagree” and the other endpoint “10” was referred with the words “strongly agree”. The items of teacher professional community practice (TPCP) were detailed in the Table 4.17.

Table 4.17: $M$ and $SD$ for each item of TPCP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Item description</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>74</td>
<td>regularly discuss to improve student performance</td>
<td>7.13</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>collaboration among teachers in the same subject panel</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>encouraged to develop and implement new practices</td>
<td>7.07</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>accomplish more through working in small teams</td>
<td>6.67</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>share our best practices with other colleagues</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69</td>
<td>collaboration among teachers in different subject panels</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>overall</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hallinger, Lee & Ko (2014); N = 357

From Table 4.17, it was seen that teachers perceived a high level of mean score ($M = 6.86$ $SD = 1.57$) about their professional community practice in secondary schools. Among the six items, three items (74, 71, 73) were represented by higher mean scores than the overall mean scores of TPCP. The items showed that teachers rated highly
themselves in discussing regularly for improving student outcomes. Besides, teachers were encouraged to develop and implement new teaching practices in these schools. The findings further indicated that the respondents worked in a small team and discussed student feedback on a regular basis.

Therefore, the descriptive analysis of teacher professional community practice proved that the respondents rated themselves as demonstrating high level of competency for all the six items of this variable in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools.

4.3.2 Pearson product moment correlation coefficient

As the data was normally distributed and the scale was interval, therefore the researcher used Pearson product moment correlation coefficient (Chua, 2013) to determine the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) measured by PIMRS and teacher organizational commitment (TOC) measured by TCM and teacher professional community practices measured by instrument of Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014). The type of the correlation was applied based on Chua’s (2013, p. 258) suggestions to describe the correlation and to answer the fourth, fifth and sixth research questions.

RQ. 4 Is there any significant relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices, and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices measured by PIMRS and teacher organizational commitment measured by TCM. Table 4.18 showed the result of correlation matrix for the variables.
Table 4.18: Relationship between women PILP and TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>TOC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PILP</td>
<td>.600**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Defining the school mission</td>
<td>.388**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Managing the instructional program</td>
<td>.475**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Developing the school learning climate</td>
<td>.617**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357

Table 4.18 displayed the Pearson product moment correlation for the relationship of women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) and teacher organizational commitment (TOC). There was a moderate, positive and significant relationship ($r = .60$, $p < .01$) between women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) and teacher organizational commitment (TOC).

The first dimension of principal instructional leadership practice was defining the school mission. There was a weak, positive and significant relationship ($r = .39$, $p < .01$) between define the school mission and TOC. The second dimension of principal instructional leadership practice was manage instructional program. Again, there was a weak, positive and significant relationship ($r = .48$, $p < .01$) between managing instructional program and TOC. The third dimension of principal instructional leadership practice was developing the school learning climate. There was a moderate, positive and significant relationship ($r = .62$, $p < .01$) between developing the school learning climate and teacher organizational commitment in these schools.

Subsequently, Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between all the factors of three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices and the dimensions of teacher organizational commitment. Principal instructional leadership practices consisted of three dimensions such as defining the school mission, managing the instructional program, developing the school learning
climate (Hallinger, 2013). On the other hand, teacher organizational commitment consisted of three dimensions such as, affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC) and normative commitment (NC) (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Table 4.19 showed the analysis between the relationships of two factors of defining the school mission and three dimensions of TOC.

**Table 4.19: Relationship between defining the school mission and TOC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>AC</th>
<th>CC</th>
<th>NC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defining the school mission</td>
<td>.309**</td>
<td>.343**</td>
<td>.330**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Frame the school’s goals</td>
<td>.254**</td>
<td>.293**</td>
<td>.272**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Communicate school’s goals</td>
<td>.272**</td>
<td>.293**</td>
<td>.291**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357**

Table 4.19 has shown the Pearson product correlation with two factors of defining school mission and three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment. Defining the school mission has two factors: frame the school’s goals and communicate the school’s goals. There was a weak, positive and significant relationship between framing the school goals and continuance commitment ($r = .34, p < .01$), normative commitment ($r = .33, p < .01$) and affective commitment ($r = .30, p < .01$). On the other hand, there was very weak, positive and significant relationship between communicating the school goals and continuance commitment ($r = .29, p < .01$), normative commitment ($r = .29, p < .01$) and affective commitment ($r = .27, p < .01$) (Chua, 2013).

Managing the instructional program was the second dimension of principal instructional leadership practices. The managing instructional program had three factors: supervise and evaluate instruction, coordinate the curriculum and monitor student progress. Table 4.20 showed the analysis for the relationship between three factors of manage instructional program of PILP and three dimensions of TOC.
Table 4.20: Relationship between managing instructional program and TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>AC</th>
<th>CC</th>
<th>NC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managing the instructional program</td>
<td>.421**</td>
<td>.397**</td>
<td>.383**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervise &amp; evaluate instruction</td>
<td>.345**</td>
<td>.328**</td>
<td>.353**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Coordinate the curriculum</td>
<td>.325**</td>
<td>.325**</td>
<td>.267**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Monitor student progress</td>
<td>.310**</td>
<td>.272**</td>
<td>.269**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357

Table 4.20 showed the Pearson product moment correlation between three factors of managing instructional program such as supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum and monitoring student progress and three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment: affective commitment (AC), continuance commitment (CC) and normative commitment (NC). There was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between managing instructional program and affective commitment ($r = .42, p < .01$), continuance commitment ($r = .40, p < .01$), and normative commitment ($r = .38, p < .01$).

On the contrary, there was a weak, positive and significant relationship between supervise and evaluate instruction and normative commitment ($r = .35, p < .01$), affective commitment ($r = .35, p < .01$) and continuance commitment ($r = .33, p < .01$). In addition, there was a weak, positive and significant relationship between coordinating the curriculum and affective commitment ($r = .33, p < .01$), continuance commitment ($r = .33, p < .01$). Moreover, the data indicated that there was very weak, positive and significant relationship between coordinating the curriculum and normative commitment ($r = .27, p < .01$). The findings also showed that there was a weak, positive and significant relationship between monitoring student progress and affective commitment ($r = .31, p < .01$) but very weak, positive and significant relationship between monitoring student progress and continuance commitment ($r = .27, p < .01$), normative commitment ($r = .27, p < .01$).
The third dimension of PILP was developing the school learning climate that had five factors: protect instructional time, maintain high visibility, provide incentives for teachers, promote professional development and provide incentives for learning. Table 4.21 showed the relationships between five factors of developing the school learning climate and three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment.

Table 4.21: Relationship between school learning climate and TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>AC</th>
<th>CC</th>
<th>NC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing the learning</td>
<td>.526**</td>
<td>.531**</td>
<td>.503**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>climate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Protect instructional</td>
<td>.433**</td>
<td>.378**</td>
<td>.364**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Maintain high</td>
<td>.473**</td>
<td>.484**</td>
<td>.510**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visibilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Provide incentives for</td>
<td>.468**</td>
<td>.431**</td>
<td>.453**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teachers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Promote professional</td>
<td>412**</td>
<td>.485**</td>
<td>.402**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Provide incentives for</td>
<td>.417**</td>
<td>.500**</td>
<td>.419**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357

Table 4.21 showed that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between developing the school learning climate and continuance commitment ($r = .53, p < .01$), affective commitment ($r = .53, p < .01$) and normative commitment ($r = .50, p < .01$). In addition, protecting instructional time had a weak, positive significant relationship with affective commitment ($r = .43, p < .01$), continuance commitment ($r = .37, p < .01$) and normative commitment ($r = .36, p < .01$). Moreover, there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between maintaining high visibility and normative commitment ($r = .43, p < .01$). On the other hand, there was a weak, positive and significant relationships between maintaining high visibility and continuance commitment ($r = .49, p < .01$) and affective commitment ($r = .47, p < .01$).

Providing incentives for teachers had weak, positive and significant relationships with affective commitment ($r = .47, p < .01$), normative commitment ($r = .45, p < .01$) and continuance commitment ($r = .43, p < .01$). Additionally, there was a weak, positive and
significant relationship between promoting professional development and continuance commitment \((r = .49, p < .01)\), affective commitment \((r = .41, p < .01)\) and normative commitment \((r = .40, p < .01)\).

Providing incentives for learning was the fifth factor of developing the school learning climate. The data indicated that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between providing incentives for learning and continuance commitment \((r = .50, p < .01)\); on the contrary, providing incentives for learning had a weak, positive and significant relationships with affective commitment \((r = .41, p < .01)\) and continuance commitment \((r = .41, p < .01)\).

It can be concluded that there was statistically significant and positive relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment (TOC). Moreover, it was found that there was a positive and significant relationships among all factors of women principal instructional leadership practices and three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment (TOC). There was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between providing incentives for learning and continuance commitment of teachers. In addition, maintaining high visibilities had a moderate, positive and significant relationship with normative commitment of teachers. The Pearson product moment correlation coefficient revealed a positive and significant relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment. This positive relationship displayed that if women principals practise at higher level of instructional leadership practices, the level of teacher organizational commitment will be increased accordingly in these schools.

**RQ 5: Is there any significant relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice in Federal territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?**
Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between all the factors of three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices measured by PIMRS and teacher professional community practice measured by six items. Table 4.22 showed the relationship between women PILP and TPCP.

**Table 4.22: Relationship with women PILP and TPCP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>TPCP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PILP</td>
<td>.603**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Defining the school mission</td>
<td>.445**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Managing the instructional program</td>
<td>.503**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Developing the school learning climate</td>
<td>.594**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357**

Table 4.22 showed Pearson product moment correlation between three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice. The data indicated that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship ($r = .60, p < .01$) between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice.

Moreover, defining the school mission was a weak, positive and significant relationships ($r = .45, p < .01$) with teacher professional community practice. In addition, there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship ($r = .50, p < .01$) between managing the instructional program and teacher professional community practice. Developing the school learning climate had a moderate, positive and significant relationship ($r = .59, p < .01$) with teacher professional community practice.

Subsequently the researcher focused on the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient used to determine between the relationship of all the factors of principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice. Table 4.23 showed the correlation matrix for defining school mission and TPCP.
Table 4.23: Relationship between defining school mission and TPCP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>TPCP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defining the school mission</td>
<td>.445**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Frames the school’s goals</td>
<td>.339**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Communicates the school’s goals</td>
<td>.416**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357

Table 4.23 showed the relationship between two factors of defining the school mission and teacher professional community practice. Defining the school mission had two factors: frames the school’s goals and communicates the school’s goals. There was a weak, positive and significant relationship between teacher professional community practice and communicating the school’s goals ($r = .42, p < .01$) and framing the school’s goals ($r = .34, p < .01$).

Table 4.24 showed the Pearson correlation between three factors of managing the instructional program of PILP and teacher professional community practice.

Table 4.24: Relationship between managing the instructional program and TPC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>TPCP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managing the instructional program</td>
<td>.503**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Supervises &amp; evaluates instruction</td>
<td>.421**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Coordinates the curriculum</td>
<td>.367**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Monitors student progress</td>
<td>.382**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357

Table 4.24 showed that there was a weak, positive and significant relationship ($r = .42, p < .01$) between supervising and evaluating instruction teacher professional community practice (TPCP) in these investigated schools. In addition, there was a weak, positive and significant relationship with teacher professional community practice (TPCP) and
monitoring student progress \( (r = .38, p < .01) \) and coordinating the curriculum \( (r = .38, p < .01) \) in these investigated schools.

The third dimension of principal instructional leadership practices was developing the school learning climate. This dimension had five factors such as protects instructional time, maintains high visibilities, provides incentives for teachers, promotes professional development and provides incentives for learning. Table 4.25 displayed Pearson correlation between five factors of developing the school learning climate and teacher professional community practice.

**Table 4.25: Relationships between developing the learning climate and TPCP**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>TPCP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Developing the school learning climate</td>
<td>.594**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Protects instructional time</td>
<td>.539**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Maintains high visibilities</td>
<td>.498**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Provides incentives for teachers</td>
<td>.492**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Promotes professional development</td>
<td>.531**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Provides incentives for learning</td>
<td>.500**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357**

Based on Table 4.25, there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between teacher professional community practice (TPCP) and protecting instructional time \( (r = .54, p < .01) \) and promoting professional development \( (r = .53, p < .01) \) in these investigated schools. On the other hand, there was a weak, positive and significant relationship between teacher professional community practice and maintaining high visibility \( (r = .50, p < .01) \), providing incentives for learning \( (r = .50, p < .01) \), and providing incentives for teachers \( (r = .49, p < .01) \) in these secondary schools.

From the analysis, it can be concluded that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and TPCP in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools. There was a
moderate, positive and significant relationship among all factors of principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) and TPCP. In addition, there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between teacher professional community practice and protecting instructional time, promoting professional development and providing incentives for learning in these investigated schools. These positive relationship showed that if women principal practise at a higher level of instructional leadership, the level of teacher professional community practice will be increased accordingly in schools.

RQ. 6 Is there any significant relationship between teacher professional community practice and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationship between teacher organizational commitment (TOC) measured by TCM and teacher professional community practice measured by six items.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>TPC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher organizational commitment</td>
<td>.580**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Affective commitment</td>
<td>.446**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Continuance commitment</td>
<td>.536**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Normative commitment</td>
<td>.488**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 357

Table 4.26 shows the Pearson correlation among three dimensions of TOC and TPCP. The analysis showed that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship ($r = .58, p < .01$) between teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice. In addition the data indicated that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship ($r = .54, p < .01$) between teacher professional community practice and continuance commitment ($r = .54, p < .01$). Similarly, there was a moderate,
positive and significant relationship between teacher professional community practice and normative commitment ($r = .49, p < .01$), and affective commitment ($r = .45, p < .01$) in these schools.

From the data analysis, it can be concluded that teacher organizational commitment (TOC) had a moderate, positive and significant relationship with teacher professional community practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools. Continuance commitment had a moderate, positive and significant relationship with teacher professional community practice. This positive correlation shows that if women principal implement a higher level of instructional leadership practices, the level of teacher professional community practice will also be increased accordingly in these schools.

4.3.3 Multiple regression analysis

To answer research question seven, the researcher applied a multiple regression analysis followed by a stepwise method. The multiple regression analysis was an extension of bivariate correlation to identify predictor dimensions of women PILP (independent variable) which have contributed to the changes on TOC (dependent variable). In regression analysis, the independent variable was recognized as the predicting variable whereas the dependent variable was known as the criterion variable (Chua, 2013). The step-wise method was applied to determine the significant predictor of women PILP and TOC in this study. Principal instructional leadership practices had three dimensions: defining the school mission, managing the instructional program and developing the school learning climate. Multiple regression analysis was used to find out the predictor of PILP on TOC. Subsequently the researcher used Cohen’s bench mark (1988) table for identifying the effect size on dependent variable due to change of predictor variable.
RQ. 7 Which predicting dimensions of women principal instructional leadership practices have contributed to teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

To answer research question seven, the researcher used the PIMRS for measuring women PILP and the TCM for teacher organizational commitment (TOC). Multiple regression analysis was carried out to investigate which dimensions act as a predictor on the dependent variable, TOC.

Table 4.27: Multiple regression (Stepwise) between women PILP and TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>(Unstand.) B</th>
<th>(Stand.) β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Contribution (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DSLC</td>
<td>.587</td>
<td>.619</td>
<td>14.855</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.383</td>
<td>38.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DCM</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.073</td>
<td>.942</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIP</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>.258</td>
<td>.796</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. DSLC = Developing school learning climate; DCM = Defining the school mission; MIP = Managing instructional program; Unstand. = Unstandardized co-efficient; Stand. = Standardized co-efficient

Predictor variable: Developing school learning climate; Dependent variable: TOC

Table 4.27 shows the results of stepwise multiple regression analysis for the sample size 357. There were three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices; among these dimensions, developing the school learning climate was the only significant predictor on teacher organizational commitment. In addition, there was correlation between the criterion variable, teacher organizational commitment and predictor variable, developing the school learning climate.

Developing the school learning climate of women PILP was the only significant predictor on TOC. Developing the school learning climate contributed 38.3% of the variance \( R^2 = .383 \) on teacher organizational commitment. This displayed that developing a positive school learning climate \( (β = .619; p < .05) \) was the main indicator for teacher organizational commitment in these investigated schools. According to
Cohen’s benchmark (1988), it revealed that developing the school learning climate had a larger effect on teacher organizational commitment since $R^2$ was more than 0.26. Based on the standardized beta value, when developing a positive learning climate dimension was increased by one unit of standard deviation, teacher organizational commitment was increased by 0.619 unit of standard deviation.

Table 4.28: Multiple regression (Stepwise) of ANOVA result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>247.387</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>247.387</td>
<td>255.437</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>401.921</td>
<td>355</td>
<td>.968</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>649.309</td>
<td>356</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Note._ Sig. = significant

Based on Table 4.28, the $F$-test result indicated that there was a positive and significant relationship between developing a positive learning climate and teacher organizational commitment [$F (1, 355) = 255.437, p = .000$] at the significance level of $p < .05$. The multiple regression analysis results showed that developing a positive learning climate of principal instructional leadership practices accounted for 38.3% of the variance in teacher organizational commitment. This displayed that as much as 61.7% of the variance on teacher organizational commitment was unable to be predicted by women principal instructional leadership practices as it might be instigated by other factors or variables not examined in this study.

In this case, the two dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices were defining the school mission and managing the instructional program that were not contributed to the change in teacher organizational commitment. Hence, the multiple regression model for this study is:

Teacher organizational commitment (TOC) = .619 (Developing a positive learning climate).
4.3.4 Structural equation modeling

Structural equation modeling (SEM) was applied to answer the research questions eight, nine and ten. The SEM is used for determination of moderation, mediation and relationship among variables; and model fitness in this study. In order to estimate the model fitness, the researcher used absolute fit, incremental fit and parsimonious fit (Hair et al., 2010).

RQ. 8 Does teacher professional community practice act as a mediator for the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?

Knowing that all three variables (women PILP, TPCP and TOC) are significantly correlated in the bivariate manner (Pearson product moment correlation), therefore this significant correlation allowed the researcher to do a mediator test. For this purpose SEM-AMOS was used. The direct effect of the women PILP (Exogenous variable) on the TOC (Endogenous variable) was shown in the Table 4.29.

| Table 4.29: Standardized regression weights & significance for variable |
|-----------------------------|------------------|-----------------|-------------|---------|--------|------|-----|
| Const. Path  Const. Beta estimate | Beta coefficient | S.E. | C.R. | p | Result |
| TOC PILP 0.652 | 0.71 | 0.052 | 12.5 | 0.00 | Sig. |

Note. Const. = Constant; Sig. = significant

Table 4.29 showed the analysis of women PILP and TOC. It showed the direct effect measured through beta coefficient. Direct effect of women PILP (Exogenous variable) and TOC (Endogenous variable) were positive and significant in Figure 4.1.
Note. PILP = Principal instructional leadership practices; DSM = Define school mission; MIP = Manage instructional program; DLC = Develop learning climate; TOC = Teacher organizational commitment; AC = Affective commitment; CC = Continuance commitment; NC = Normative commitment

Figure 4.1: The results show the direct effect of women PILP on TOC

Figure 4.1 has shown that the fitness indices of this structure achieved the required level of fitness for RMSEA, GFI and Ratio Chisq/df. Subsequently, when teacher professional community practice (TPCP) was inserted in the whole model then, the depicted result was shown in Table 4.30.

Table 4.30: Standardized regression weights & significance for variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Beta Estimates</th>
<th>Beta-coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>PILP</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.451</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>0.059</td>
<td>7.697</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TPCP</td>
<td>PILP</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.796</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>14.361</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>TPCP</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.253</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>5.943</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Const. = Construct; Sig. = Significant

Table 4.30 showed the relationship among TPCP, women PILP and TOC. Here, TPCP was modelled as a mediator variable in AMOS graphic. When the mediator variable, TPCP entered the model, the direct effect, beta co-efficient 0.70 was reduced to beta co-efficient .49 since some of the effect shifted through the mediator. Though the direct effect was reduced of women PILP to TOC and it was still significant. Therefore the
mediation, teacher professional community practice was entered as a mediator in this model.

Subsequently, when teacher professional community practice (TPCP) was inserted in the whole model then, the depicted result was shown in the following Figure 4.2.

![Figure 4.2: The standard regression weights for every path in the proposed model](image)

**Table 4.31: Standard regression weights & its effects for each path**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Effect</th>
<th>Independent variable (IV)</th>
<th>Mediator (MV)</th>
<th>Dependent Variable (DV)</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>PILP</td>
<td>TPCP</td>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td>PILP</td>
<td>TPCP</td>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>0.64 x 0.34 = 0.217</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Total effect</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 4.31 it found that the direct effect, women PILP to TOC was 0.49, while the indirect effect, women PILP to TPCP and TPCP to TOC was 0.217. The indirect effect 0.217 was lower comparing to the direct effect, 0.49. This represented that teacher professional community practice in this model was associated negatively with the relationship between the independent variable, women principal instructional leadership practices and dependent variable, teacher organizational commitment (Awang, 2014).

Moreover, the type of effect here was “partial mediation”, since the direct effect of women PILP on TOC was still significant after TPCP was entered the model. In addition, the beta coefficient for women PILP on TOC was reduced from 0.70 to 0.49 (Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2). Based on Table 4.31, there was positive and significant indirect effect between women PILP to TPCP and TPCP to TOC. Moreover, the data also showed that there was a positive and significant direct effect between women PILP to TOC. The indirect and direct effect both were significant after entering the mediator variable, TPCP in this model. Therefore it was shown that TPCP when entered into the model, functioned here as “partial mediator”.

The analysis suggested that teacher professional community practice was a partial mediator to make a link between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

RQ. 9 Do teacher demographic variables, such as gender, age, race, education level, teaching experience and service of years with respective principals act as moderator for the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools?
For the analysis of teacher demographic variables (gender, race, age, education level, teaching experience, years of service with respective principals), SEM analysis technique was performed. The value of \( p (p < 0.05) \) was determined whether the assigned teacher demographic variables were acted as moderator or not. A moderator played a role in either strengthening or weakening the relationship between the independent variable (predictor) and dependent variable (outcome/criterion). In this regard, the predictor was women principal instructional leadership practices whereas outcome was teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

(a) *Race as a moderator between women PILP and TOC*

When the moderator, race, was inserted in the model as shown in Figure 4.3, the subsequent results were found in Table 4.32.

![Figure 4.3: The AMOS output showing when race was inserted in the model](Image)
Table 4.32: Testing the moderating effects of women PILP × race on TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Const. Path</th>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Beta estimate</th>
<th>Beta coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← PILP</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.486</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>0.111</td>
<td>4.379</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← Race</td>
<td></td>
<td>-1.160</td>
<td>-0.61</td>
<td>0.498</td>
<td>-2.331</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← PILP race</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.170</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>0.073</td>
<td>2.324</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Const. = Construct; Sig. = Significant*

Table 4.32 showed the moderating effect of the demographic variable. In this case, race was one of the teacher demographic variable. The analysis displayed that there was a positive and significant relationship between women PILP and TOC whereas the beta co-efficient was 0.41. When race was entered into the model, the effect of race was significant on TOC but showing negative influence on TOC with a beta - coefficient of 0.61. On the contrary, the moderating effect of teachers’ race was a positive and significant relationship between women PILP and TOC and it changed the beta – value from moderate effect (.41) to large effect (0.66). In addition, the main effect was still significant after entering the moderator of teachers’ race into the model, so the type of moderation was depicted here as positive and significant.

From the line graph in Figure 4.4, it was evident that race played a significant role of moderator in the relationship between women PILP and TOC. It also observed that Malay teachers perceived a higher level of teacher organizational commitment compared to Indian and Chinese teachers at the first stage. Besides, teacher organizational commitment increased with increasing women principal instructional leadership practices. It was also evident from the graph that both of the races, Chinese and Indian teachers perceived the same level of teacher organizational commitment at initial level.
Figure 4.4: The line graph showing the effect of different races

Moreover, the level of teacher organizational commitment of Indian and Chinese teachers increased than that of Malay teachers due to women principal instructional leadership practices in these schools. In addition, it was noted that teacher organizational commitment of Indian teachers was perceived at the highest rank by the influence of women principal instructional leadership practices in Federal territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

(b) Gender as a moderator between women PILP and TOC

When the moderator, gender, was inserted in the model as shown in Figure 4.5, the subsequent results were shown in Table 4.33.
Table 4.33: Testing the moderating effects of women PILP \times gender on TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Const. Path</th>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Beta estimate</th>
<th>Beta coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOC \leftarrow PILP</td>
<td>0.422</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>1.964</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC \leftarrow gender</td>
<td>-1.161</td>
<td>-0.37</td>
<td>0.766</td>
<td>-1.515</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC \leftarrow PILPgender</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>1.431</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Const. = Construct; Sig. = Significant

Table 4.33 showed the moderating effect of the teachers’ gender and the causal effects on women PILP and TOC in this model. In this case, there was a positive and significant relationship between women PILP and TOC where the beta – coefficient was 0.35. In addition, there was no significant effect between teachers’ gender and TOC. In this case, teachers’ gender changed the relationship from significant to not significant between women PILP and TOC. From this analysis, it can be concluded that teachers’ gender was
a moderator on the relationship between women PILP and TOC in these secondary schools.

(c) **Age as moderator between women PILP and TOC**

When the moderator, age, was inserted in the model as shown in Figure 4.6, the subsequent results were obtained as shown in Table 4.34.

![Figure 4.6: The AMOS output showing when age was inserted in the model](image)

**Table 4.34: Testing the moderating effects of women PILP × age on TOC**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Const. Path</th>
<th>Const. Beta estimate</th>
<th>Beta coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← PILP</td>
<td>0.606</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>0.119</td>
<td>5.073</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← age</td>
<td>-0.054</td>
<td>-0.05</td>
<td>0.298</td>
<td>-1.81</td>
<td>0.857</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← PILPage</td>
<td>0.032</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.044</td>
<td>0.723</td>
<td>0.470</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Const. = Construct; Sig. = Significant

Table 4.34 showed the moderating effect of the teachers’ age in the relationship between on women PILP and TOC in this model. In this case there was a significant
relationship between PILP and TOC. In addition, the effects of age had no significant relationship with TOC because \( p = 0.857 \) was greater than 0.05. On the contrary, teachers’ age changed the relationship from significant to not significant. In addition, it reduced the beta – values from larger effect (.51) to small effect (.21). From this analysis, it can be concluded that teachers’ age was a moderator on the relationship between women PILP and TOC in these schools.

(d) Education level of teachers as moderator between women PILP and TOC

When the education level of teachers was inserted in the model as shown in Figure 4.7, the subsequent results were found in Table 4.35.

---

**Figure 4.7:** The AMOS output showing when education level was inserted in the model


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Beta estimate</th>
<th>Beta coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← PILP</td>
<td>PILP</td>
<td>.707</td>
<td>0.59</td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>5.407</td>
<td>0.016</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← Lev_edu</td>
<td>Lev_edu</td>
<td>.095</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.913</td>
<td>.104</td>
<td>0.917</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← PILPedu</td>
<td>PILPedu</td>
<td>0.004</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.140</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td>0.976</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Const. = Construct; Sig. = Significant*

Table 4.35 showed the moderating effect of education level of teachers in the relationship between women PILP and TOC in this model. The data indicated that there was a causal effects on women PILP and TOC. There was a significant relationship between women PILP and TOC. On the other hand, the effects of education level had no significant influence on TOC because the value of *p* (0.917) is greater than 0.05. Yet, the education level of teachers changed the relationship from significant to not significant and reduced the beta value from large effect (.59) to small effect (.01). From this analysis, it can be concluded that education level of teachers was a moderator on the relationship between women PILP and TOC in these schools.

(e) Teaching Experience as moderator between women PILP and TOC

When the teaching experience of teachers was inserted in the model as shown in Figure 4.8, the subsequent results were found in Table 4.36.
**Figure 4.8:** The AMOS output showing when teaching experience was inserted in the model

**Table 4.36:** Testing moderating effects of women PILP $\times$ exp. of teacher on TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Path</th>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Beta estimate</th>
<th>Beta coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>PILP</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.459</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>0.166</td>
<td>2.758</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>exp_teach</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.377</td>
<td>-.25</td>
<td>0.430</td>
<td>-.876</td>
<td>0.381</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC</td>
<td>PILPexp</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.091</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>0.065</td>
<td>1.400</td>
<td>0.162</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Const. = Construct; Sig. = Significant*

Table 4.36 showed the moderating effect of the teaching experience of teachers in the relationship between women PILP and TOC in this model. This analysis displayed the effects on women PILP and TOC. There was a significant relationship between women PILP and TOC. In this case, the teaching experience of teacher had no significant relationship with TOC because $p$ (0.162) is greater than 0.05. However, teaching experience of teacher changed the relationship from significant to not significant and it increased the beta values from .38 to .47. From this analysis, it can be concluded that teaching experience of teachers was a moderator in the relationship between women PILP and TOC.
(f) **Years of service of teachers with respective principals as moderator between women PILP and TOC**

![Diagram showing the AMOS output]

**Figure 4.9:** The AMOS output showing when years of service with respective principals was inserted in the model

Figure 4.9 showed the moderating effect of the years of service of teachers with respective principals on women PILP and TOC in this model.

**Table 4.37:** Testing moderating effects of women PILP × yrs of service on TOC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Const. Path</th>
<th>Const.</th>
<th>Beta estimate</th>
<th>Beta coefficient</th>
<th>S.E.</th>
<th>C.R.</th>
<th>p</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← PILP</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0.687</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>0.060</td>
<td>11.445</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td><strong>Sig.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← yrs_teaprin</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.266</td>
<td>-0.026</td>
<td>0.979</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOC ← PILPyrs_prin</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.034</td>
<td>1.107</td>
<td>0.268</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Const. = Construct; Sig. = Significant

Based on Table 4.37, it was noted that women PILP had causal effects on TOC. Besides that, there was a significant relationship between women PILP and TOC. In this case, years of service of teachers with respective principals had no significant relationship.
with TOC because \( p \) (0.979) is greater than 0.05. In addition, years of service of teachers changed the relationship from significant to not significant, and it reduced the beta-value from moderate effect (.57) to small effect (.08). From this analysis, it could be concluded that years of service of teachers with respective principals was a moderator on the relationship between women PILP and TOC in these secondary schools.

For the SEM analysis of teacher demographic variables such as gender, race, age, education level of teachers, teaching experience, years of service with respective principals were the moderator in the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

**RQ. 10** Do the data linking with women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice collected from Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools fit in the proposed model?

This study was to examine the correlations among women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP), teacher organizational commitment (TOC) with teacher professional community practice (TPCP) that act as a mediator for this relationship of these variables.

**Table 4.38: Model fitness**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Fitness index</th>
<th>Critical value</th>
<th>Test value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absolute fit</td>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>&lt; 0.10</td>
<td>.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incremental fit</td>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>&gt; 0.95</td>
<td>.988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parsimonious fit</td>
<td>ChiSq/df</td>
<td>&lt; 5</td>
<td>2.389</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source:* Hair et al. (2010)
Table 4.38 showed the indices for model fitness. The bivariate correlation between women PILP and TOC (Table: 4.18) and women PILP and TPCP (Table: 4.22) and TPCP and TOC (Table: 4.26) suggested strong indication between women PILP, TOC and TPCP. Furthermore, the analysis showed that there was a “partial mediation” by TPCP upon the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) and teacher organizational commitment (TOC).

Along with that, SEM-AMOS was measured to validate the results and check whether the proposed model fits for the data collected. Hair et al. (2010) recommended three types of fitness of model: Absolute fit, incremental fit and parsimonious fit. All these three fitness tests have their own indices. Hence, this study took one index from each test to verify the proposed model. To find the increment fit purpose, the value of comparative fit index (CFI) was checked. In order to get absolute fit index, the value of root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was checked, and for parsimonious fit, the value of chi-sq/df was checked as shown in Table 4.38. Along with its critical and threshold values, the proposed model was acceptable due to reaching model fitness indices: GFI = .980; CFI = .988; RMSEA = .058, and Chi-sq/df = 2.389.

When the three variables: women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP), teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice (TPCP) were inserted in the model as shown in Figure 4.10, the subsequent results were obtained as shown in Table 4.38.
The squared multiple correlation for women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher professional community practice, teacher organizational commitment was 0.56 (Figure 4.10). This showed that 56% of the variance in teacher organizational commitment could be predicted by women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice. This also displayed that as much as 44% of the variance in teacher organizational commitment was unable to be predicted by women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

**Figure 4.10:** The proposed model
4.3.5 Summary of the results

This study has ten research questions based on research objectives. First this chapter identified the demographic statistics of respondents. The first three questions were analyzed using descriptive methods and the level of mean scores. The three subsequent questions were on relationship among three variables, so Pearson product moment correlation was measured to find out the relationship of these variables. The seventh question was regarding the predicting dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices and multiple regression technique was used to answer it. The eighth, ninth and tenth questions were analyzed followed by SEM. Teacher professional community practice was found as “partial mediator” in this model. Teacher demographic variables such as gender, age, race, education level, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals were a moderator between the relationship of women principal instructional leadership practices and TOC. The last question was on fitness of the model and the analysis obtained the threshold values. Therefore, it was proved that the model was fit for collecting the data from Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

This chapter contains a brief problem statement, research questions, and the discussions on the results obtained from this study. Similarly, this chapter also states results of this study by comparing with related research works. The final segment of this chapter points out recommendations for future research. To sum up, this chapter provides an understanding for the audiences to evaluate the current consequences of women principal instructional leadership practices and its effect on teacher organizational commitment in public secondary schools in Malaysia. Hence, this chapter highlights that instituting teacher professional community practice (TPCP) within schools can partially enhance teacher organizational commitment (TOC) whereas teacher demographic variables act as a moderator between the relationship of women PILP and TOC in these investigated schools.

From chapter 1, the researcher underlines the fundamental character of the school principals. In order to establish an effective school, the fundamental prerequisite is effective leadership (Hallinger et al., 2015; Sharma, 2011). The principal, overall, is accountable to convert any challenging schools into successful and effective schools. There is, still, a dearth of literature examining the direct effect of principals on school improvement and outcome (Urick, 2016); on the contrary, the extant literature has focused on indirect effect on teaching and learning process in schools (DuFour & Marzano, 2015). It was revealed that teachers are the vehicles responsible for coping with the challenges; simultaneously school principals are required to support teachers effectively to overcome the obstacles (Ministry of Education, 2013).

In the case of leadership, women principal instructional leadership practices is an important issue in an education sector, especially in developing countries such
as Malaysia. Besides this, some research work found some lack of women leadership practices. For example, Arar and Oplatka (2016) revealed that women principals have to apply their competency for motivating their staff for the teaching and learning process within schools. Regarding this, women principals’ collaborative, caring, participatory approach on instructional leadership practices helped to overcome various dilemmas that may arise in day to day routine work to advance the schools efficiently. With the help of instructional leadership practices, women principals can enhance teacher organizational commitment for improving the teaching and learning process in schools.

This study focused on the level of women principal instructional leadership practices in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools, Malaysia. If women principals possessed this kind of leadership, how do they put on these leadership practices for upgrading teacher organizational commitment in these schools? Thus Hallinger, Lee and Ko (2014) stated that when the instructional leaders developed the quality of teaching and learning in schools, this culture established a TPCP which may augment teacher organizational commitment within schools. As TPCP can assist and foster each other, convey various concerns, attempts to arrive at solutions, and adopt new teaching techniques. Even if the principals are busy with some administration work, still it would benefit each other’s experience, motivate each other and enhance their commitment levels to influence teaching and learning directly. Based on various features of women principal instructional leadership practices, this study was conducted to find out the clear picture of perceptions of teachers in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia including the ten research questions. Therefore, the aim of this study was to identify and analyze whether women principal instructional leadership practices influence teacher organizational commitment in schools directly or through the mediation of teacher professional community practice, and whether teacher demographic variables act as a moderator in the relationship of women PILP and TOC.
This study assumed a quantitative research method to arrive at the most appropriate answers for the said questions. Quantitative methods as for example, descriptive statistics, multiple regression analysis, correlation and SEM that are relevant to find out the answers of mentioned objectives. Furthermore, the quantitative data can be generalized for a large population. In addition, this quantitative methodology is “generalizing the results” by applying the results from a small number to a large number of population (Creswell, 2009, p. 13).

5.2 Summary of the findings

Key findings of the study showed that Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary school teachers perceived a moderate level of teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and women principal instructional leadership practices. In addition, Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary school teachers perceived a higher level of teacher professional community practice in these schools.

Major findings from the Pearson product moment correlational analysis showed a positive and significant relationships among women PILP, teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and TPCP in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools. In addition, there was a positive and significant level of correlation (value of $r$) among three dimensions of women principal instructional leadership practices, three dimensions of TOC and teacher professional community practice.

To find out the expected predictor (independent variable) due to the changes of criterion variable (dependent variable), the stepwise multiple regression analyses was conducted. Among the three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices, only developing a positive learning climate was the predicting dimension on TOC.
Because there were a positive and significant relationship among the variables (women PILP, TPCP, and TOC), the researcher did the test for mediator variable. The analysis showed that TPCP was a mediator in the relationship between women PILP and TOC. In this case, the type of mediation was observed as “partial mediation” by using SEM-AMOS analysis. In addition teacher demographic variables such as gender, race, age, and education level of teachers, teaching experience, and years of service with respective principals were the moderator for the relationship between women PILP and TOC.

Figure 5.1: The proposed model linking women PILP, TOC, TPCP and teacher demographic variables
The proposed model in this study involving women PILP, TPCP and TOC and teacher demographic variables (gender, age, race, and education level, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals) was shown in Figure 5.1.

From the model fitness involving women PILP, TPCP and TOC, the data indicated that TPCP was the mediator for the relationship between women PILP and TOC. The results showed the model was accepted for collecting the data through the survey instrument in this study. The squared multiple correlation for women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher professional community practice, teacher organizational commitment was 0.56. This indicated that 56% of the variance in teacher organizational commitment could be predicted by women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice. This proved that as much as 44% of the variance in teacher organizational commitment was unable to be predicted by women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice.

5.3 Discussion

5.3.1 Teacher organizational commitment

The findings of the study showed that teacher organizational commitment was perceived at moderate level by secondary school teachers in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. Teacher organizational commitment has three dimensions: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Among the three dimensions, only affective commitment achieved a higher level mean score whereas continuance and normative commitment had moderate level of mean scores. These findings were supported by Hamid et al. (2013), Nazarudin et al. (2008), Noordin et al. (2010) indicating a moderate level of teacher organizational commitment of Malaysian teachers. The moderate level of teacher organizational commitment proves their lack of
concentration in teaching practices in schools that have been also been reported in the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025) (Ministry of Education, 2013). Similar findings were reported by Ebrahimi and Mohamadkhani (2014), who found lack of commitment has brought bad impact on student outcomes.

On the other hand, committed teachers show their full concentration in schools and can play a crucial role in school success. Findings by other studies (Raman et al., 2015; Selamat et al., 2013) proved that the highly committed teachers acquire school mission and goals by nurturing the environment of student learning hence contributing to school effectiveness. Likewise, other studies (Han et al., 2016; Hussein & da Costa, 2008) proved a higher level of teacher organizational commitment not only brings school success but also has good impact on the education system of any country.

The findings suggest that school management requires to inspire and nurture the culture to enhance teacher commitment level. Hence school management must develop strategies to shape human resources to generate human capital. This is because a favorable workplace, such as recognition of achievement, support from administrators are vital factors for enhancing teacher organizational commitment (Hallinger, Heck, & Murphy, 2014).

Among three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment, affective commitment was perceived at a higher level mean score whereas normative and continuance commitment were rated at a moderate level by secondary school teachers in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. In terms of item analysis of affective commitment, the result of this study showed that the majority of the school teachers in the investigated schools perceived their schools as their own organizations. Moreover, they perceived the schools’ problems as their own problems and were attached emotionally with these schools. These perceptions of teachers are in line with findings by Malaysian researchers.
such as Nazarudin et al. (2008) and Hamid et al. (2013) who mentioned the higher levels of affective commitment as a good pointer for any schools. In addition, affective commitment can positively foster the quality of teaching practices and decrease teacher attrition (Han, Yin, & Wang, 2016).

The higher level of affective commitment expresses employees’ feelings and emotional attachment toward the organization (Govaerts, Kyndt, Dochy, & Baert, 2011). This appreciated approach has shown willingness of employees to maintain their job responsibilities, organizational citizenship behavior, and job performance within the organization. It simultaneously reflects on their job satisfaction and allows them to move forward for the organization beyond any personal affairs such as stress and work-family conflict (Meyer et al., 2002). In other words, affective commitment expresses the impression and attitude of employees. Therefore, the policy makers can take some steps to enhance teachers’ consistency level regarding this issue.

The second dimension of teacher organizational commitment is continuance commitment that was also perceived at a moderate level. In addition, this dimension was rated as having lower mean score by these secondary school teachers among three dimensions of TOC. Item analysis of this study showed some teachers remained in these schools as a matter of necessity and some did not feel any reasons to leave these schools. The reason behind the findings might be raised due to other factors influencing the level of teacher organizational commitment. This study suggests carrying out further research to find out the internal variables that influence continuance commitment in the education sector.

The third dimension of teacher organizational commitment is normative commitment that was perceived at a moderate level by teachers in schools. The results of item analysis found that most of the teachers showed their attachment within the schools and expressed
their dedication to the schools, but some of them did not show their feelings of obligation toward their organizations. The reasons behind these feelings may develop from stress on an individual before and after joining these schools. Regarding this issue, school management needs to employ some strategies such as arranging training programs to enhance the staff commitment level. These types of training program can help the staff to feel for the organization from their moral obligation and focus on the job. Another study showed that employee with greater normative commitment can express their job satisfaction toward the organization (Raman et al., 2015).

It can be concluded that teacher organizational commitment provides a clear portrait about the performance of any organization. Among all three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment, affective commitment of teachers might benefit teaching practices which ultimately impact on school effectiveness. Therefore, it is necessary to take some steps to upgrade both the level of normative and continuance commitment for school development.

5.3.2 Women principal instructional leadership practices

The current findings revealed that school teachers perceived a moderate level of women principal instructional leadership practices in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools, Malaysia. Principal instructional leadership practices have three dimensions: defining the school mission, managing instructional program developing a positive school learning climate. Among the three dimensions, teachers rated developing a positive school learning climate at a higher level of mean score whereas defining the school mission and managing instructional program were rated at a moderate level by teachers in these schools. These findings of this study were aligned with Nichols and Nichols (2014) who found women principals were rated at a moderate level for their instructional leadership practices in USA schools.
On the contrary, some studies have rated women principals as being more instructional than male leaders from the perceptions of teachers (Adams & Hambright, 2004; Burton & Weiner, 2016; Newton et al., 2003). Besides this, women principals practised more instructional leadership practices than male leaders when they were rated by their followers by quantitative studies (Atieno, 2013; Nogay & Beebe, 2008). A Malaysian study, Chua et al. (2014) found no significant difference between male and female principals in their leadership skills. In addition both of the leaders rated themselves as being at a higher level of instructional leaders. These inconsistencies are required to be explored by further studies in this context.

Findings of the study showed that women principals in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools realized their roles as instructional leaders but they were required to practise their leadership role in their daily routine to frame school mission and instructional activities as perceived by their teachers. Noor (2007) reported that women principals’ effective instructional leadership practices can be enhanced to upgrade the level of teachers’ competency in Malaysian schools.

The first dimension of instructional leadership practices was defining the school’s mission that was perceived at a moderate level by the teachers in these schools. This dimension had two factors, one is framing the school goals and another one is communicating the school goals. Among the two factors, communicating the school goals was given a higher mean score compared to framing the school goals in this study. The lower mean score of framing school goals was revealed as the reason for a moderate level of defining school mission in these secondary schools.

The item analysis of framing the school’s goals showed that women principals focused on developing school goals. The analysis indicated that women principals supported to understand school goals among teachers and used the data on student performance for
developing the schools’ academic goals. These steps of women principals in these secondary schools were very crucial which involved them in determining performance goals (Davies, Ellison, & Bowring-Carr, 2005; Robinson et al., 2008). Another item analysis showed that women principals often frame school goals for distributing staff tasks properly. Underlining these findings, the researcher suggested that it is not possible for principals to set up goals individually within schools but they are required to frame school goals with others. Principals need to set up the collaborative approach to fulfill the school goals. Women principals must have vibrant academic goals which are incorporated by staff into their daily routines. In this way, these activities are portrayed as goal-oriented and academically focused for school outcomes. Another study by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) endorsed that principals should be clear, tangible, and visible and supervise school academic goals frequently. Regarding the school goal, DuFour and Eaker (2013) suggested that principals have to emphasize on academic goals to run steadiness of aims and direction of schools. Regarding this issue, there is necessity to fix significant academic goals among other goals in schools due to avoid confusion among teachers.

Defining the school mission had another factor such as communicating school goals. In terms of item analysis of communicating school goals, it found from teachers’ perceptions that women principals communicated school goals within the community, but sometimes applied staff evaluation for developing school goals and concentrated on academic goals for making curricular resolutions with teachers in these schools. The item analysis of this factor revealed the reason of a moderate level of mean score in these secondary schools. Hence women principals needed to highlight on fewer goals for staff dynamism and school properties in an organized way. In addition, principals were required to communicate the school goals in staff bulletins, articles, newsletters, handbooks, and also in parent conferences, teacher conferences and other discussions.
with staff (Robinson et al., 2008; Sun & Leithwood, 2015). In this respect, the policy makers can reshape the accountability of school principals to communicate school goals for better school outcomes.

The second dimension of PILP was managing the instructional program that was perceived at a moderate level by the teachers in these schools. Managing instructional program had three factors: supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum and monitoring student progress. Among these three factors, monitoring student progress was rated at a higher level of mean score by these teachers. The moderate level of mean score of two factors depicted this dimension at a moderate level. This result was supported by other researchers such as Nogay and Beebe (2008) indicating women principals’ ability in managing instructional programs.

The first factor of managing the instructional program was supervising and evaluating instruction that was rated at a moderate level by secondary school teachers. The results of item analysis displayed that the teachers have rated highly their women principals for casual observations in classrooms on a daily basis. Another study found that this factor was a vital issue for developing classroom instruction which can be enhanced to certify school goals (Hallinger, Heck, & Murphy, 2014). In the light of these findings, it can be added that women principals are aware about the instructional activities of teachers that can maintain the relationship among teachers, students and principals.

The second factor of managing the instructional program was coordinating the curriculum. Item analysis of this factor showed that women principals were perceived at a moderate level mean score for observing the consistency of classroom practices with curricular objectives of schools. Emphasizing this issue, the researcher along with other researchers suggests to maintain the high level of continuity in the curricular sequences through collaboration among teachers and principals (Ho, 2010; Robinson et al., 2008).
Principals must be up-to-date and well informed in the consistency between classroom activities with the curriculum. Furthermore, the policy makers can take some steps to overcome this issue to acquire student outcomes.

The third factor of managing the instructional program was monitoring student progress that was rated a higher level of mean score, additionally the two items were rated at a higher level by secondary school teachers in this study. The item analysis showed that women principals were rated at a high level for informing teachers regarding school’s success in written form. In addition, women principals met with teachers on a regular basis for discussing student progress in these schools. These practices reveal their caring and co-operative nature. Furthermore, monitoring student progress can help women principals to organize tasks on the basis of students’ strengths and weaknesses. The practices of monitoring student progress within schools are very important for establishing an instructionally effective school (Hallinger & Lee, 2013; Heck & Hallinger, 2014). Other studies found that women principals have ability to develop and monitor student progress in schools in an effective way (Atieno, 2013; Nogay & Beebe, 2008).

The third dimension of principal instructional leadership practices was developing the school learning climate that was rated at a higher level of mean score by the teachers in these secondary schools. This dimension has five factors: protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, providing incentives for learning and providing incentives for teachers, and maintaining high visibility. Among these five factors, protecting instructional time was perceived as having the highest mean score followed by providing incentives for learning, promoting professional development, providing incentives for learning, and maintaining high visibility by the teachers in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools. The reasons behind the higher level of developing
a positive school learning climate might be because the four factors of this dimension were perceived at a higher level of mean score by these teachers.

Women principals were perceived as deserving a higher level of mean score of developing the school learning climate by secondary school teachers and these findings were supported by many researchers (Newton et al., 2003; Nogay & Beebe, 2008; Shakeshaft, Nowell, & Perry, 1992). Women principals foster the continuous development of teaching and learning process; in this way they are able to generate a climate which developed an “academic press” within schools (Hallinger, 2013). This culture nurtures the expansion of high values and expectations that raises the rewards of ceaseless learning in these schools (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Heck & Hallinger, 2011; Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Walker et al., 2014). The higher level of perceptions of teachers in the Federal Territory in Kuala Lumpur regarding developing a positive school learning climate showed the ideal values of women leaders which are cultivated to enhance the practices of continuous upgrading of learning and teaching practices in schools.

Protecting instructional time is the first factor of developing a positive school learning climate. The five items of this factor were rated at a higher level of mean score by secondary school teachers. The findings of the study showed that women principals were rated highly for allocating the time with teachers for improving their classroom instruction. This time will help the teachers to foster instructional skills and classroom management without being interrupted by any official and classroom works. Another important finding showed that the teachers in these schools were encouraged to apply instructional time for improving new skills and concepts during their teaching practices. As instructional leaders, the principals should always lead their followers especially the teachers to gather knowledge for improving continuous development of students. These findings reveal that women principals in these investigated schools have shown their
guidance for improving the teaching and learning practices in schools. The researcher along with other researchers suggests to develop and enforce school-wide strategies in organizing instructional time for student progress (Hendriks & Scheerens, 2013).

The second factor of developing the school learning climate was maintaining high visibility that was perceived as having relatively lower moderate level of mean compared to other factors of this dimension. The item analysis of this factor showed that women principals were rated at a higher level of mean score by these school teachers. Teachers mentioned that their principals took time to talk informally with them during breaks and also provided the direct instruction to classes. Since the other three items of this factor were rated at a moderate level, so this factor was depicted at a moderate level of mean score in developing a positive school learning climate. Regarding this, Malaysian researchers mentioned that principals occupied themselves with administrative and managerial work apart from instructional duties in schools (Tahir et al., 2015). Although some job responsibilities of the principal’s time are out of their control, principals must be firm in resolving how the remaining time is to be expended. Besides this, visibility in classrooms accelerate the relationship among the principal, students and teachers which will be positively influenced the classroom instruction and student manners (Leithwood & Sun, 2012). In this concern, the school management needs to take some initiatives for reducing administrative work for school principals.

The third factor of developing the school learning climate was providing incentives for teachers that was observed at a high level of mean score in this study. This factor had five items; among the five items, the four items were perceived as having a higher level of mean score by teachers in these secondary schools. The item analysis of this factor showed that women principals acknowledged their teachers’ accomplishments individually and credited the teachers for their great performance in staff meetings,
memos and newsletters. Women principals in these schools also rewarded their teachers for their special efforts and arranged opportunities for their professional growth as a reward for special achievements. In the light of these results, women principals in the Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur nurture the dominant process of both informal and formal ways to ensure commitment from their teachers and yield values on the basis of mutual trust, success and esteem.

The fourth factor of developing the school learning climate was promoting professional development. The five items of this factor were highly rated by secondary school teachers in this study. These findings were also obtained by Nogay and Beebe (2008) who collected data using the PIMRS questionnaire from seventy-six Ohio schools and found women principals were perceived as more effective leaders than male principals in promoting teacher professional development. Women principals in this study arranged the participation of all staff in service activities effectively which were strongly supported for improving their instructional skills. The data indicated that teachers rated highly their women principals because of providing time to share among teachers information obtaining from different training programs. This finding also reflected a very important outlook of women principal instructional leadership practices. In addition, women principals focused to ensure appropriate in service activities due to developing the school’s goals in these schools. These findings were supported by other researchers (Day et al., 2010; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Heck & Hallinger, 2011; Louis et al., 2010) who revealed that these leadership practices can help to develop teacher professional community practice in schools.

Promoting professional development of teachers correspondingly moves on instructional practices of teachers. In addition, the development of teachers directly impact on student performance. It can be proved that students’ achievement depend on
teachers’ competency and teachers’ success that ultimately recognized the competency of principals (Ghavifekr et al., 2015).

The fifth factor of developing the school learning climate was providing incentives for learning that was perceived at a high level of mean score. Most of the items in this factor were perceived as having a higher level of mean score. From the item analysis of this factor, it found that teachers rated highly their women principals for using assemblies and rewarding accomplished students for academic achievements or noticeable success and progress. Another finding was that women principals in these schools contacted parents for informing on student performance and accomplishment and recognized students for their performance inside the classroom as well as in front the whole school. This data proves that women principals always keep themselves up to date in constructing a learning climate for high academic achievement. It is suggested that the successful leaders have to set up the directions for developing the learning community and reshape the organization as well (Aas, Brandmo, & Bryant, 2016; Bormann, 2015).

The mentioned factors of women principal instructional leadership practices designate the opportunity of the women principals to lead a team in school along with learning. In addition, women principals in this context have the potential to set up accountabilities into the wider circumstances to attain its possessions within schools. Women principal instructional leadership practices sustain the effort over the medium to long term results (Donaldson, 2006). As a result most studies argued that the active, skillful, instructional principals increase teachers’ role in the instructional process in order to foster school sustainable development (Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013; Hallinger, 2011; Hallinger & Heck, 2010).
5.3.3 Teacher professional community practice

The current findings displayed a higher level of mean score of teacher professional community practice in these schools. The reasons behind this might be attributed to most of the items in this dimension being rated with a high level of mean score. These findings were consistent with many researchers. For example, Abdullah and Ghani (2014) found that professional learning community was actively engaged in student learning and improving the school outcomes through shared values, goals, mission and vision in Malaysia. The same results were depicted by Ismail et al. (2014) who found that high performing schools have the higher level of professional learning community than low performing schools because of teacher’s higher level of professionalism regarding their responsibilities.

Similarly Li et al.’s (2016) cross-sectional quantitative approach analyzed the higher level of professional learning of Hong Kong primary school teachers. The professional learning practices of teachers have high and significant correlations among the cooperation, alignment and trust of teachers. Park and Lee (2015) used a quantitative approach of hierarchical linear modeling in lower secondary schools and collected their data from Finland, South Korea, England and the USA. They also found that the professional collaboration and coordination of teaching practices in the professional community enhance collegial interaction within schools.

The item analysis of teacher professional community practice showed that teachers highly perceived that a collaborative culture can be created by discussion among the teachers regularly in order to improve student performance in these schools. These findings were supported by many researchers those who found that this was the best technique for improving teaching practices through examining students’ work with collaboration culture (Bolam & Deal, 2014; Darling-Hammond, 2015). The findings
support that higher level of teacher collaboration enhance the collegial and collaborative culture. This culture allows teachers to absorb and learn from each other for improving their teaching practices for student outcomes and occupy themselves for school development. The collaborative manner of teachers helps them to cultivate quality teaching practices. Teacher professional community practice can establish the chance to create knowledge about learning and teaching in a genuine framework.

Moreover, teacher professional community practices have generated shared perspective of interactive learning exercises among adults which is established on the joint funding of school members. Such attitudes of school teachers have boosted knowledge and teaching practices that impact on overall learning outcomes for students besides bringing success in schools (Stoll & Louis, 2007). The shared responsibility of teachers is constructed as the fundamental and cultural interdependence when carrying out their duties as staff members (Burgess & Bates, 2009). Hence, the shared responsibility is noticed as the strength of teacher leadership.

The item analysis of teacher professional community practice showed that teachers perceived women principals highly because they encouraged developing and implementing new teaching practices in these schools. These findings in these schools are very important for the quality of teaching practices. Teaching is a continuous process (Eaker & DuFour, 2015; Hord & Sommers, 2008) therefore the learning process can be ahead in developing habits of searching for new ideas and information. Subsequently, the obtaining new information and techniques are needed to transfer, incorporate and evaluate with others and to generate ideas within the schools as well as introducing them from outside. Teacher professional community practice have originally emerged from the perception of reflective practices. This is because reflective dialog involves teachers not only in sharing information regarding teaching and students but also to employ deeper
considerations on work and progress of student learning. Along with other researchers, this study suggests that this practice is essential for developing reflective dialog for a teacher professional community (Collin & Karsenti, 2011).

Furthermore, the findings of item analysis of teacher professional community practice showed that teachers had to be aware about an ongoing collaboration in different subject panels in these schools. The findings might be explained by the fact that teachers needed to emphasize collaboration within different subject panels to improve student progress. The collective capacities of teachers can play an important role in building teachers’ personal goals and in improving students’ progress in schools (Lee et al., 2012). Thus, TPCP improved teachers’ personal, interpersonal and organizational capacities and their level of commitment to professional development (Pancucci, 2008) that significantly improved the common characteristics in order to promote group and individual learning process (Lee et al., 2011). The demand for collective capacity of teachers is noteworthy whereas other researchers have also mentioned that teachers’ collective capacity have significantly and positively influenced student learning achievement (Goddard et al., 2004).

The findings of teacher professional community practice revealed that teaching quality is the most significant factor in the student learning process, thus, teacher professional community practice within schools can reshape a culture where all staff in this community can learn as a student. In other words, individuals in the school community can play their role and responsibility toward each other to learn as well as to ensure the well-being of the school community. As stated by Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014), constructing a learning culture within the school community requires a collective effort from principals, teachers, students, parents and members of the school community. Therefore, the school is able to create a cohesive atmosphere among the school population. Developing schools
as a professional community is being strongly advocated by education reformers and researchers as a systematic and effective way to improve quality of teaching. Regarding this aspect, the policy makers and school management should take some initiatives to maintain the consistency of teacher professional community practices in secondary schools as an emergent issue.

5.3.4 Relationship between women PILP and TOC

The current findings showed that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP) and teacher organizational commitment (TOC) in these secondary schools. Moreover, the findings of this study showed positive and significant relationship among three dimensions of principal instructional leadership practices and three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment (TOC). The relationship existing between principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment were supported by many leadership theories (Bass, 1990; Bush & Glover, 2016; Northouse, 2013; Vroom & Jago, 2007; Yukl, 2013). They stated leadership as a process of influencing and motivating followers toward common goals.

Furthermore, Bush and Glover (2014) illustrated that “leadership as influence” is reputed to cause followers to be more accomplished in their job responsibilities. Similarly, principal instructional leadership practices support the teachers and to commit the teachers to their organization as well as attain common goals as a powerful agent due to shaping the role of teachers (Goldring, Huff, May, & Camburn, 2008). In this respect, women principal instructional leadership practices require to enhance teacher organizational commitment so that they can concentrate in classroom activities for learning and teaching practices. Similarly, these findings were further supported by some empirical studies such as Noor (2007), Teh et al. (2014), Lai and Cheung (2013), who
found that women principal instructional leadership practices had a strong positive relationship with teacher’s job satisfaction and commitment level within schools.

The findings of this study displayed women principals’ supportive and participatory leadership practices enhanced teacher organizational commitment in secondary schools. Women principal instructional leadership practices can influence teaching and learning practices through ethical settings of care for emerging the relationship within the school community. Likewise, Kropiewnicki and Shapiro (2001) revealed women principals’ loving characters support and motivate others for their organizational responsibilities and also nurture high quality of teaching in schools. These especial characteristics of women principals have positive effect on employee commitment level in schools (Kochan et al., 2014).

However, women principal instructional leadership practices consequently can develop professional skills of teachers and enhance teacher commitment, resulting in a better environment for the future generation in these schools. These align with findings by Atieno (2013), Leela and Brown (2003) who proved that women principals work as a ladder of teacher’s growth for producing a high-quality of teaching practices besides enriching their commitment toward the organization. Therefore, women principals maintain a positive relationship with their collaborative manner. Consequently women principals encourage others’ professional skills development and this can increase teacher retention in schools. Similarly, Chan and Kaur (2009) have revealed woman principal leadership approaches have influenced teachers’ willingness to stay within an organization.

Women principals play a vital role in providing resources and to offer direct instruction in maintaining high quality of teaching practices in classrooms. The findings showed that women principal instructional leadership practice encouraged and could
empower teachers for their professions which had impact on their normative commitment toward organizations (Adams & Hambright, 2004). Likewise, Celikten (2005) scrutinized that Turkish women principals expressed themselves as communicators, supervisors, listeners, and problem solvers who carried out their jobs in maintaining the relationship as family members with colleagues and students. This climate effortlessly motivates teachers toward their organization from ethical perspectives.

On the whole, the key findings of the current study showed that incentives for learning of principals have a moderate, positive and significant relationship with teacher continuance commitment. This current finding was congruent with various studies which familiarized women as good leaders for followers and organizational outcomes (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003). Women principal instructional leadership practices can support teachers to overlook their financial needs, yet inspiring them to do their work in a proper way.

Many studies described women leaders as more relation oriented; more interested in followers; more devoted to followers’ progress and more socially sensitive than their male counterparts (Singh, Nadim, & Ezzedeen, 2012). Similarly, this study found that women principal have potential to excel as instructional leaders and noted their passionate characters and commitment to deliver a democratic environment concerned with caring culture. Additionally, women leaders have a willingness and tend to be people concerned with emphasis on fairness and show respect for their relational abilities which are more associated to enhancing teacher organizational commitment.

5.3.5 Relationship between women PILP and TPCP

The results of this study showed that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary
schools. The relationship between principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice were supported by other instructional research in educational settings (Hallinger, Lee, & Ko, 2014; Hallinger & Lee, 2013; Li et al., 2016; Robinson, 2007). These findings of this study suggested that principal instructional leadership practices can increased the quality of teaching practices. The data indicated that women principals gather the feedback of teacher’s daily work that can play a vital role in building teacher professional community practice within schools.

These findings were in line with Lai and Cheung (2013) which indicated a positive and significant relationship between women principals’ work attitudes and teacher professional community practice in Hong Kong secondary schools. In addition, teacher professional community practice in schools create an environment where everyone can share and collaborate for improving student learning. Besides this, the relationship among teachers and principal have established a harmonious and supportive interdependence with colleagues.

The findings of this study showed that there was a positive and significant relationship among ten factors of principal instructional leadership practices and TPCP where protecting instructional time, promoting professional development and providing incentives for learning had a moderate, positive and significant relationship with TPCP in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

The factor of developing the school learning climate was protecting instructional time that had a moderate, positive and significant relationsip with TPCP in these secondary schools. In this study, women principals allocated some instructional time for upgrading classroom teaching and classroom management. The support of principals acted to endorse and develop a teacher professional community practice, since the support allowed
teachers to discuss with each other to advance their ideas and information related to student outcomes.

Moreover, promoting professional development had a moderate, positive and significant relationship with TPCP in schools. The current findings were supported by Nogay and Beebe (2008). Women principals always exhibited themselves as a supporter for developing the professional learning of followers that have influence on student learning. The principals were concerned as resource providers to enhance classroom instruction and encouraged teachers to gather new ideas and techniques for improving quality of teaching practices.

Providing incentives for learning was one of the factor of developing the school learning climate. This factor had a moderate, positive and significant relationship with TPCP in schools. The findings open a path for principals to show the accomplishment regarding the high academic achievement of students. Emphasizing this finding, principals must arrange rewards and recognition for students for their academic success and progress. The researcher suggests that it is important for the principals to appreciate accomplishments of the students inside the classroom or in school assembly whether great achievement in academic or co-curricular activities. Women principal instructional leadership practices lead a strong professional community for developing teaching and learning in schools. Similarly, Saunders and Kashubeck-West (2006) found principal instructional leadership practices develop the learning and teaching through a teacher professional community practice.

It can be claimed that women school leaders’ sensitive, emotional, expressiveness, and awareness, cooperative behavior have inspired other ideas in community to cultivate the professionals within schools. In this regard, Tallerico and Tingley (2001) noted that American women principals had power of teaching and learning in schools and were
concerned with teacher professional development for school success. The principals have established a collegial culture where teachers have shared their responsibilities, conversed and adopted new teaching techniques among each other.

Women principal instructional leadership practices was a moderate, positive and significant relationship with developing collaborative culture in schools. Additionally, women leaders have capacity to share their ideas and information and to accept new teaching techniques to improve the teaching quality in schools. Similarly, women leaders succeeded in building strong networks within the community. In other words, women school leaders have the potential to generate changes in the education sectors at an extraordinary level (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010).

The findings of this study suggest that policymakers are required to pay attention to school-based teacher professional community practice for student outcomes. Regarding this aspect, they can arrange some training programs or workshops to illustrate the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools.

5.3.6 Relationship between TOC and TPCP

The findings of the study showed that there was a moderate, positive and significant relationship between teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice in public secondary schools. These findings were obtained by many researchers, for example, Lee et al. (2011) as well as Hallinger and Lu (2014) who revealed a positive and significant relationship among teacher commitment and professional community practice in schools.
Like other researchers such as Hausman and Goldring (2014) and the researcher of this proved TPCP as a powerful approach for enhancing teacher organizational commitment. TPCP showed the expression of the faithfulness of teachers toward the organization. In addition, this trusting atmosphere has positively influenced teachers’ working attitudes as well as their commitment level toward schools. Correspondingly, the working attitude of teachers through TPCP has enhanced their professional growth which simultaneously is positively associated to their commitment toward the organization (Ware & Kitsantas, 2007).

This study found an important finding that continuance commitment has a moderate, positive and significant relationship with teacher professional community practice (TPCP). As TPCP practice has a positive and significant relationship with teacher professional growth, teacher’s efficacies, teacher organizational commitment, therefore, teacher’s collective collaboration found the ways to kindle student learning, overcome behavioral problems and adopt techniques to motivate the students for better school outcomes (Skalli, Theodossiou, & Vasileiou, 2008). Thus, this attachment of teachers has enhanced their consistency toward their job responsibilities and teacher organizational commitment in schools.

On the contrary, normative commitment and affective commitment have a weak, positive and significant relationship with teacher professional community practice (TPCP). These contradictory findings in this context are required to further exploration. Hence, Pedder (2006) discovered that teacher involvement in learning was required to strengthen from their feelings toward the organization.

This result demonstrates that teacher professional community practice is the escalation concept rely not only on the virtues of itself, but also the most important component in enhancing any school-the persistence and the commitment of the teachers within it.
Therefore, policy makers must take some initiatives to move on the learning process through teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice.

5.3.7 **Role of predicting dimension of women PILP on TOC**

Principal instructional leadership practices had three dimensions: defining the school mission, managing the instructional program and developing the school learning climate. Data analysis indicated that among three dimension, only developing the school learning climate of principal instructional leadership practices predicted on TOC. The findings showed that developing the school learning climate referred to scheduling and planning teacher’s instructional time and maintaining high visibility of principals so that resources were used properly. Therefore, women principals increased the professional development of teachers and provided incentives for teaching and learning in schools.

The findings showed that women principals in these schools allowed the teachers to protect instructional time for improving their classroom instruction. In addition, the findings suggest that women principals organized the timing for planning instructional practices of teachers without interruption by tardy students, announcements, and requests from the office. Besides, women principals in this study maintained relationship by taking the time to talk with teachers during breaks and delivered direct instruction to classes. In this respect, the descriptive data showed that visibility of women principals was required to achieve the schools’ academic goals.

This study found that developing the school culture also had positive effect on classroom instruction and student manners in these schools. These similarities were found by other research work on principal instructional leadership practices in schools (Leithwood & Sun, 2012; Leithwood et al., 2008). The findings of this research were generally aligned with findings of previous work in Malaysia. However, another study by
Tahir et al. (2015) mentioned that principals are busy with administrative responsibilities hence being away from instructional leadership practices. These inconsistent findings are required exploration in this context using the mixed method.

Furthermore, women principal instructional leadership practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools promoted teacher professional development to upgrade student learning in schools. Teacher professional development is an imperative factor for school success when it is maintained as an ongoing route, so that it created a modification for new considerations within schools to make the revolution in education sectors (Anderson & Cohen, 2015). Teacher professional development has enhanced the quality of teaching and is able to strengthen and augment subject matter knowledge, create responsibility as well as commitment with collecting latest materials to prepare students according to current demands (Hoque, Alam, & Abdullah, 2011). Women principals provide and inspire teachers of related prospects closely linked to school learning climate.

The findings reported women principals’ active involvement in arranging incentives for teachers to accomplish for student achievement. These leadership practices reflect a culture of mutual trust, confidence and success. Along with other researchers, this study can be added that this culture can enhance teachers’ consistency toward their jobs and prove their satisfaction toward their organizations (Bryk et al., 2010; Leithwood & Sun, 2012).

The findings of this study suggested that women principal instructional leadership practices were concerned regarding the incentives for student learning. In this respect, principals have established a climate for providing various rewards and recognition for students’ academic success and progress. Student accomplishment help will teachers to acquire more concentration in instructional practices in classroom teaching, as students’
success directly rely on teachers’ competency. In this way, teachers feel more obligation to do better in future.

The factors of principal instructional leadership practices have designated greater responsibility that foster a learning climate in secondary schools along with a team. Nevertheless, these accountabilities of women principals have set up into the wider circumstances of instructional leadership practices that attained the effort over the medium to long term results (Lumby, 2012). The current findings have proven that the active, skillful, supportive instructional principals have increased teacher’s commitment level toward organizations in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools. These findings were supported by Ingersoll and Strong (2011) who found that novice teachers have improved their job performance and job retention in order to develop a supportive culture in school.

5.3.8 Role of TPCP as a mediator between women PILP and TOC

Since positive and significant relationship were found among the variables of women PILP, TPCP, and TOC, the researcher did the test to find out the role of mediator variable in the relationship between women PILP and TOC. The analysis showed that TPCP was a mediator in the relationship between women PILP and TOC. The findings of this study suggested that the impact of women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment was mediated by other variables within schools. More precisely, the researcher found that “direct effect” of women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment are less considerable than mediated effects operating through teacher professional community practice. Furthermore, the “total effects of instructional leadership” on teacher organizational commitment were increased marginally when the independent variable, principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practices were
deliberated in jointly for student learning. Thus it was considered that TPCP was a mediating variable for the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment (TOC). In addition, the type of mediation was observed here as “partial mediation” (Awang, 2014).

The finding stated that teacher professional community practice had negative effect in the relationship between teacher organizational commitment and women principal instructional leadership practices. When a mediator TPCP was introduced on the direct effect of women principal instructional leadership practices and TOC, there was still positive and significant relationship of indirect effect such as women principal instructional leadership practices to teacher professional community practice (TPC) and teacher professional community practice to teacher organizational commitment (TOC). These findings showed the importance of TPCP for developing teacher organizational commitment level in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools, Malaysia. The findings proved that although there was some lack of women principal instructional leadership practice due to their involvement in administrative work, TPCP in schools can help to foster the quality of teaching as well as student learning. In this case, when women PILP reduced to TOC, at that time TPCP played a mediating role in linking women PILP and TOC indirectly.

In the current world, student learning is a vital factor in education sectors. Therefore, these important findings reinforce the clear picture of principal instructional leadership practices by shaping their situations that influence both teacher and student learning. As various research works have discovered, women principals’ effects seem to accumulate through creating the learning of teachers and students to motivate the teachers toward organizational commitment (Brinia, 2012; Nichols & Nichols, 2014). This finding showed an incremental improvement in understanding of the paths associated with
women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment in schools.

The findings of this study revealed the association of women principal instructional leadership practices to enhance teacher organizational commitment through teacher professional community practice which resulted in improvement of teaching and learning in secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The education sector, in future, relies not only on in-service training of teachers or leadership role of principals, but also relies on people and their collaborative relationship to upgrade teacher professional community practice for student learning. Since TPCP is an informal attitude of teachers among their colleagues, teachers can easily build up this community. For example, they can exchange their point of view, learn from each other and be helpful and generous in sharing knowledge especially in the teaching and learning process. Accordingly, this unity among all can has generate collegiality, shared responsibility and overall a collaborative manner in respect of refining teacher organizational commitment.

This current study and Lee et al’s (2012) findings have conveyed the same message that TPCP as a mediator has potential to enhance student learning in schools. Lee et al. (2012) did secondary analysis in North America includes some other countries and collected the data during a 5-year study. The researchers used the local districts, student learning, and teacher professional community as variables. They assumed teacher professional community practice as a mediator and that the local district had an indirect effect on student learning generally, and the quality of instruction is an imperative factor for student learning.

Hallinger, Lee, and Ko (2014) focused on some variables in their study, for instance, principal quality, organizational trust, principal leadership, and teacher commitment and teacher professional community. The researchers examined how principal quality,
leadership practices, and organizational trust had impacted the teacher professional community practice in thirty-two Hong Kong primary schools. They found principals as crucial for improving teacher professional community practice in schools. They also added that education reform is an ongoing process, so the system policies increased school-level ability to stimulate teacher professional community practice in schools.

Nichols and Nichols (2014) discovered that women leaders ensured teachers’ collaboration through instructional practices and created the culture where everyone easily interacted with each other to become adjusted in the school community. In this way, the findings prove that TPCP highlights the attachment of teachers within schools and enhanced teacher organizational commitment. This study acknowledges that the relational power of women principals is united to encourage others to strengthen and inflame the TPCP as a mediator to share the responsibilities, to converse and to adopt new teaching techniques in a collaborative way for improving school outcomes.

In terms of establishing TPCP in schools, women principal instructional leadership practices in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur can increase the level of teacher organizational commitment as it is proved in this study that there is a positive significant relationship among TPCP, TOC, and women PILP. The schools’ capacity and principal leadership have the ability to develop and improve the nurturing of professional learning communities in schools (Li, Hallinger, & Ko, 2016) where not only are teachers committed to share learning but also a school-based professional community can be built up by teacher leadership (Hallinger et al., 2015; Ho, Lee & Teng, 2016; Louis et al., 2010). By inspiring teachers to undertake leadership responsibilities, their self-worth and job satisfaction will be increased; their performance levels which in turn express their higher level of teacher organizational commitment.
5.3.9 Relationship between teacher demographic variables, women PILP, TOC

The findings of the study showed that teacher demographic variables, such as gender, race, age, education level of teachers, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals were moderator in the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment. These findings were consistent with some researchers. For example, Noordin et al. (2010) in quantitative research work in a public university in Malaysia found a positive relationship between age and employees’ job satisfaction toward their organization. These findings aligned with those by Meyer and Allen (1991), and Madsen et al. (2013). Besides, Madsen et al. (2013) examined with marginally related to organizational commitment, gender and age of teachers. While Ling and Ibrahim (2013) found increasing of teaching experience had decreased teacher commitment levels in twenty-seven secondary schools in Miri, Sarawak. Liu (2016), however, showed a positive relationship between employees’ experience and organizational commitment.

These findings are inconsistent with that of some researchers. Irving and Coleman (2003), for example, showed no significant relationship of age and organizational commitment. In addition, Bakar and Mustaffa (2013) found no significant relationship among age, employee tenure, and organizational commitment in Malaysia. The same findings were revealed by Mathieu et al. (2016) who used quantitative approach using SEM analysis and revealed that employee age, gender and education level have no relationship with organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and leaders’ behavior in Canadian organizations.

Since Malaysia is a multiracial country, the race of school teachers played a role in their job responsibilities (Fontaine et al., 2002). Though the commitment has a multifaceted behavior in nature, therefore, it is imperative factor to determine the levels
of commitments depending on social backgrounds. This study focused on race as a demographic variable. The findings of the study showed that race played a significant role as a moderator for the relationship between women PILP and TOC. This finding is inconsistent with Teh et al. (2014) from their quantitative research in Penang primary schools. They found that no significant difference existed among three races on commitment to students, commitment to teaching, commitment to the profession and overall commitment toward the organization.

The data revealed at the first stage, Malay teachers have perceived the higher level of teacher organizational commitment compared to Indian and Chinese teachers in secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. Furthermore, teacher organizational commitment increased with women principal instructional leadership practices. Besides, Chinese and Indians perceived the same level of teacher organizational commitment at an initial level, but due to women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment of Indian and Chinese teachers increased more than that of Malay teachers. The findings also revealed that teacher organizational commitment of Indian teachers has the highest rank in order to influence of women principal instructional leadership practices in secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. These findings need to be explored further in this context.

5.3.10 Fitness of conceptual model

This study collected the data through a survey instrument consisting of 74 items for three variables: women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP), teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice (TPCP). The first 50 items represented three dimensions of women principal instructional leadership practices (PILP); subsequently, 18 items were demonstrated as three dimensions of teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and the remaining 6 items
consisted of 6 items of teacher professional community practice (TPCP). The proposed conceptual model showed that women principal instructional leadership practices act as an independent variable while teacher organizational commitment was the dependent variable and teacher professional community practice act as a mediator in this study.

Though the three variables women PILP, TPC and TOC had a positive and significant relationship with each other, the impact of women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment were mediated by other variables within schools. Women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment were mediated by the effects of teacher professional community practice. Thus the relationship was considered that TPCP was a mediating variable for the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practice (PILP) and teacher organizational commitment (TOC). In addition, the type of mediation was observed here as “partial mediation” (Awang, 2014). Teacher professional community practice had a larger effect and significant relationship between teacher organizational commitment and women principal instructional leadership practices in this model.

This study employed structural equation modeling (SEM) to find out model fitness of this conceptual framework. Hair et al. (2010) has described three types of fitness are recommended, such as absolute fit, incremental fit, and parsimonious fit. Hence, in order to find the increment fit purpose, the value of the comparative fit index (CFI) was checked, to check absolute fit index, the value of root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) was checked while for parsimonious fit the value of chi-sq/df was examined. Along with its critical and threshold values, the proposed model was validated for collecting the data from the sample.

The findings of this study might be a vital step toward improving principal instructional leadership practices in Malaysia. It is noted that there is a need to cultivate
intellectual professionals to establish inquisitive communities within schools. Therefore, the findings have investigated TPCP as the appropriate dimension of successful principal instructional leadership practices in schools. It is proved that sometimes principals need to play administrative roles imparting away their instructional roles, since in these circumstances teacher professional community practice can take the initiatives to foster student learning in schools. Hence, teacher’s skills in supporting colleagues, in communicating student progress through sharing can fulfil the expectations of achieving positive outcomes. The findings have also proved that teacher professional community practice is a good pointer to enhance teacher organizational commitment in secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

5.4 Conclusion

The Malaysian Government, however, has funded noticeably in education sectors since independence to date. Underscoring to attain superiority in educational sectors, liberalization, globalization and improvements prepared in information knowledge have driven policy makers to nurture development in the education system. Hence, School-Based Assessment (SBA) has been announced in a determination to heighten the quality of teaching and learning processes in schools (Ministry of Education, 2013). As evidenced, teaching and learning process are linked to teacher quality which is established by teacher organizational commitment within schools. Although schools are having several facets to enhance teacher organizational commitment, the professional learning community practice is a new born baby in the Malaysian context.

The findings show a scenario of the Malaysian educational system. It has forwarded to shed light on the secondary education besides providing a lack of information on literature also. Thus to raise the quality of teaching and learning, there is an emergent issue for skilled leadership and skilled teachers. Along with that, literature widely
supported that school principals must follow instructional leadership practices for teaching and learning quality in schools. Emphasizing these emergent consequences of the Malaysian education system, the researcher investigated whether women principals who are heading Federal Territory in Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools possess instructional leadership practices or apply these practices for fostering TPCP and TOC within schools. Furthermore, this study also has discovered the relationships among women principal instructional leadership practices, TPCP and TOC. Besides, the researcher has intended to reveal the level of women principal instructional leadership practices, TPCP and TOC as well as the proposed model which enhanced the teaching and learning process in schools. This study showed that most of the secondary school teachers have perceived at a higher level of affective commitment rather than normative commitment and continuance commitment.

There is a background to trust that women principals in this study have shown their involvement to establish positive learning climate in these schools. This positive learning climate has proved women principals’ capability of instructional leadership practices in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools. Since school is a social organization, so it is required to establish assets to develop smooth running within schools.

Since teachers are precious possessions to create and cultivate today’s children for future national growth, hence, the teacher quality directly depends on school progress along with quality of education for any nation (Hanushek & Rivkin, 2007). Moreover, the findings highlight that collective approaches of teachers have enabled them to solve this complex dilemma in managing vague work and developing new ideas and information through teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice. The findings revealed a moderate level of teacher organizational commitment
and women principal instructional leadership practices. In addition teacher professional community practice acts as a mediator between the relationships of women PILP and TOC.

There was a positive and significant relationships found among all dimensions of women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice offering the prominence of principals using instructional leadership practices. This study underscores that principals, as instructional leaders, can build up a positive and supportive school culture. By supporting teachers’ collective leadership through shared vision and responsibilities, principals can develop teacher organizational commitment for contributing this positive culture within schools.

Hence, women principals may undertake some steps for deliberating teachers with common instructional planning for teamwork, and a culture of lifetime learning and believing relationships to inaugurate a positive teacher professional community in schools. The findings indicate that women principal instructional leadership practices have a positive and significant influence on TOC. Yet, on the basis of stepwise multiple regression, the predicting dimension was developing a positive learning climate of instructional leadership practice was only significant predictor of TOC. In making instructional leadership practices, women principals may consider the robust influence that developing a positive school learning climate has over teacher organizational commitment in schools.

This study found that the influence of women principal instructional leadership practices on teacher organizational commitment was mediated by alterable circumstances present within schools. Especially, the current findings have shown that the “direct effects” of women principal instructional leadership practices on teacher organizational
commitment were less considerable than mediated variables operating through the teacher professional community practice. Overall, women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment, and teacher professional community practice have a positive and significant relationship with each other. Therefore, these findings have shown teacher professional community practice as “partially mediated” in these schools (Li, Hallinger, & Ko, 2016; Preacher, 2015).

Teacher professional community practice is achieving results by sharing knowledge, sharing work responsibilities and discussing new teaching techniques that impact both on teaching and student learning. The culture of teaching and learning may function for developing and fostering teacher organizational commitment in secondary schools.

The findings of this study showed teacher demographic variables such as gender, race, age, education level of teachers, teaching experience and years of service with respective principals were moderator in the relationship between women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment. These findings are furthermore interesting and important findings in this context.

Moreover, the conceptual model is acceptable to collect the data in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur public secondary schools. This model explains the firm integration of these three variables, women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice. Hence, it is an imperative contribution for further research and the education system can apply this model for improving the schools in Malaysia.

5.5 Implications

This section represents the implications of the findings based on three variables, women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational
commitment and teacher professional community practice. As mentioned in the Malaysia Education Blueprint (2013-2025), education is the basis of the nation’s growth while quality of education is a potential concern in this context. The findings of the present study enable a move to advance teaching and learning for school development.

5.5.1 Implications for teacher organizational commitment

The outcomes of this research work have implications for the enhancement of secondary school teacher organizational commitment and reveals some features of Malaysian secondary school teachers regarding that. First, it illuminates the imprecise relationship between teacher organizational commitment and their psychological attachment toward the organization. Secondary school teachers’ psychological attachment has been recognized as a weighty factor of teacher organizational commitment. Hence, these relations offer policy makers in education sectors with grander appreciative work-related contributions and approaches of teachers toward their teaching quality though in general, teaching quality and student learning are extremely reliant on school improvement. Since effective way for secondary school teachers to be further committed, hence, it is a proficient inevitability to reinforce their intrinsic inspiration by smoothing mastery and capability for attaining collective goals.

Second, it also supports to frame practical approaches to boost up the level of teacher organizational commitment towards upgraded positive learning climate which are fostered to obtain predictable educational goals. The collective approach among teachers should focus on assisting teacher professional community practice and professional growth and not comparing teachers to reveal their weakness in teaching.

Therefore, this imperative finding is useful for school administrators to practice organizational and personal involvements to enhance teachers into being further emotionally committed, motivating and stimulating them to exert more energy for
improving their teaching quality. This would be consequently a vital factor not only for teachers who are concerned about their professional community practice but also assume to exert minimum strength in their teaching.

5.5.2 Implications for women principal instructional leadership practices

The outcomes of this study have implications for enhancing women principal instructional leadership practices in Malaysian secondary schools. The finding has contributed to the Malaysian education system for understanding women principal instructional leadership practices for enhancing teacher organizational commitment as a vehicle for school learning and teaching quality. Women principals in these secondary schools communicate and develop the school goals and schools mission among the teachers that can provide a good direction for student outcomes. Women principals are highly appreciated by their teachers to observe the classrooms regularly and accomplishing the strengths of teaching quality in classrooms. The results suggest insights into how the dimensions women principal instructional leadership practices interact to influence teacher organizational commitment.

This study also found that teacher organizational commitment should also appear from other sources in the school. In the Malaysian context, this would include other members of the school management team, such as vice principals, or a curriculum leader or head of different committee or team leader of teachers. Thus it would be easier to overcome some modest effects of women principal instructional leadership practices and act as a potential to subsidize profoundly for the augmentation of different suggestions from other sources of leadership.

Indeed, women principal instructional leadership practices have applied to develop a positive learning climate in schools which are expected to assist and implement a process to develop teacher professional community practice. Women principals strive to draw
upon the results for school-wide improvement and assess the school’s aims. Principals inform teachers regarding the school performance in a written way and are concerned about student progress. Principals also allocate some uninterrupted time for teachers to prepare their instructional duties for classroom teaching.

This study developed a concept regarding the understanding of how principal instructional leadership practice shapes teacher professional community practice as a hierarchy for school improvement. The “pattern mediated leadership effects” on teacher organizational commitment through teacher professional community practice strengthens the assumption that instructional leadership practices should purpose their leadership efforts to enhance teacher and student learning in schools (Li et al., 2016). Nevertheless, principal instructional leadership practices need to emphasize finding the way to seek direct influence for student achievements (Hallinger, 2015).

As Ho, Lee, and Teng (2016) pointed out, principal instructional leadership practices is a strong tool for building a successful school-based learning community. In this respect, openness and collaborative nature between the principal, other leaders and teachers are vital factors to a culture that supports teacher motivation toward their commitment. These findings underscore the belief that women principal instructional leadership practices can contribute meaningfully to enhancing processes that support teacher organizational commitment.

5.5.3 Implications for teacher professional community practice

The findings of the study on teacher professional community practice is an imperative implication to the field of research in Malaysia. Based on various studies of research on school development, the teaching quality of teachers is the most vital factor impelling student learning. These findings suggest two inter-related factors restructuring teaching quality and learning in schools. On the one hand, this study provides a message that
teacher learning can be continuously promoted through school-based teacher professional community and alternatively teacher organizational commitment can enhance student learning for school success. Finally, the findings of TPCP note the budding issue due to the practice of teacher leadership in secondary schools as another imperative factor in Malaysia.

This study underscores the main features of teacher leadership. Hence this leadership practice impact on learning practices, reflective practices and teacher involvement in a continuous collaborative manner to establish TPCP within schools. A sizeable body of research has indicated teacher leadership as an aspect of shared leadership that is connected with school improvement (Yırıcı, Özdemir, Kartal, & Kocabaş, 2014). Many countries in Asia have pursued to boost up teacher leadership as part of the contemporary education system (Hallinger et al., 2013). By permitting teachers to undertake leadership practices, their self-confidence and job satisfaction will increase, which consecutively enhances teacher organizational commitment. The implication of this study may be to open the door for educators and policy makers to pay great concentration to the positive relationship among women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment, and teacher professional community practice.

5.6 Recommendations for future research

The overall purpose of this study is to ascertain the relationship among women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment (TOC) and teacher professional community practice using a survey questionnaire from the perspectives of teachers in Federal Territory Kuala Lumpur secondary schools, Malaysia. Hence, the findings of this research have brought a theoretical along with empirical model to show the impact of teacher organizational commitment and women principal instructional leadership practices that teacher demographic variables impact on TOC and
women PILP through the mediation of teacher professional community practice within schools. Yet, there are indeed some areas required to be explored in Malaysia. Therefore, the researcher of this study offers some suggestions for future research:

a) Aminuddin Baki Institute (IAB) has developed various training programs for improving the competency of leadership practices of school leaders in this context. The results of this study found that women principals have to take some initiatives due to frame and communicate school goals and mission effectively. Therefore, further research might preferably address the effectiveness of alternative leadership training programs and instructional leadership practices.

b) The findings of this study suggest that women principal instructional leadership practices have an influence on teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice. This is a new step in reconnoitering the relationship between this model of leadership and its impact on teachers in Malaysia. Future research might add other leadership models on the impact of TOC and TPC to substantiate the current models.

c) The sample of this study only focused on secondary school teachers. Further research might investigate whether this proposed model has the same impact on other levels, such as primary or elementary schools or male administered secondary schools.

d) Given the importance of teacher organizational commitment and teacher professional community practice, further research might encourage to set up a mechanism that has an influence on these variables in determining effective women leadership practices in schools.

e) Future study might focus on measuring the effect of women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice on student
performance. This type of research might observe thoroughly variations in student achievement, for instance test scores, position of schools according to the band.

f) The study has only performed non-experimental quantitative research in approaching to determine the relationship among teacher organizational commitment, women principal instructional leadership practices and teacher professional community practice in secondary schools. One advance path of investigation could comprise more qualitative research work along with in-depth interviews with teachers and principals and observations of principal leadership practices which would provide more understanding regarding the findings. Another approach might explore comparative case studies in schools using instructional leadership practices and teacher organizational commitment and the consequential effect on learning.

g) Most of the present studies on educational leadership in Malaysia have originated from the concepts of research work in the United States. Hence, the future research might encompass a comparative study of the United States and Malaysian schools to acquire better information how these models are being adapted in the Malaysian context.

h) Finally, duplication of this study might be conducted on a national scale to cover a sufficient number of women principals in Malaysia and contribute to generalizability of the findings.
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LIST OF PUBLICATIONS AND PAPERS PRESENTED


**Teacher Organizational Commitment: Evidence from Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur Secondary Schools**

*Komitmen Guru Dalam Organisasi: Bukti Daripada Wilayah Persekutuan Kuala Lumpur Sekolah Menengah*

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**Abstract**

The quality of teaching and teacher organizational commitment determines the success in educational institutions. This study aims to examine the factors influencing teacher organizational commitment among secondary schools in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur. This is a non-experimental quantitative research using survey technique through the administration of a set of questionnaire. A total of 337 surveys were randomly selected as samples. The data was analyzed by following descriptive and inferential statistics with Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences. The results exhibited that teachers' organizational commitment was perceived as a moderate level, and there was a positive inter-relationship among the dimensions of teacher organizational commitment. In addition, the age of the teacher was the only statistically significant predictor of teacher organizational commitment. As implication from this study, the researcher recommends the policy makers for taking initiatives to enhance the level of commitment of teachers.

**Keywords:** Teacher organizational commitment, age of teacher, secondary schools


Title: Women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment, teacher professional community practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools.

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Title: Women principal instructional leadership practices, teacher organizational commitment, teacher professional community practice in Federal Territory of Kuala Lumpur secondary schools.