

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

EXAMINING IN- SERVICE TRAINING AND EDUCATION FOR TEACHERS IN
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS OF THE ASHANTI
REGION

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Education and Communication Sciences, submitted to the School of Graduate
Studies, University Of Education, Winneba, in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for award of Master of Philosophy (Educational Leadership)
degree**

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DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, VIDA BEYUO, declare that this dissertation, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

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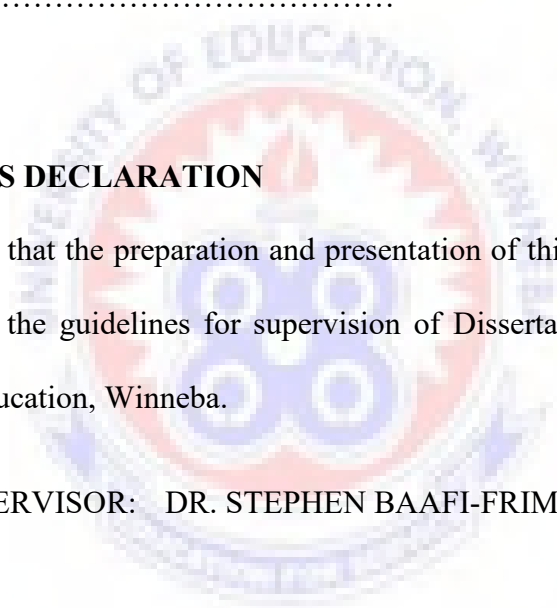
SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I, hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of Dissertation as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: DR. STEPHEN BAAFI-FRIMPONG

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DATE:



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DEDICATION

To my parents; J. B. Kuugbea (late) and Theresah B. Kuugbea who sowed in me the seed of perseverance.

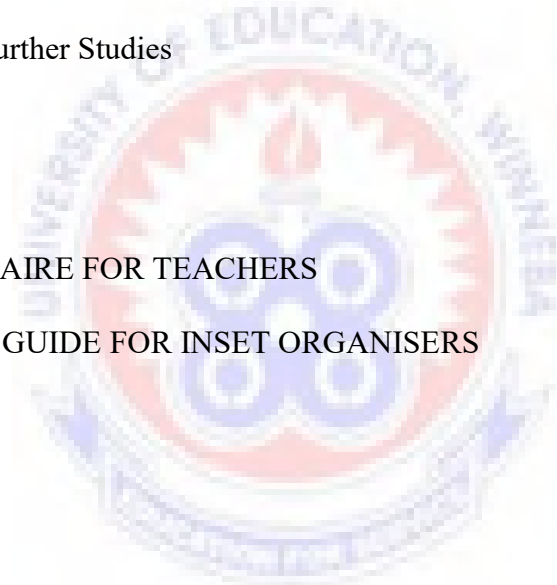


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ABSTRACT

The study assessed the extent to which INSET programmes organised for SHS teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis enhanced their performance. It specifically investigated the needs assessment that goes into the organisation of INSET, the impact of INSET on teacher performance, identified the feedback and evaluation programmes that are used to assess teachers after INSET and the challenges in organising and evaluating INSET. A mixed method approach using descriptive survey and interview was adopted. Simple random sampling was used to sample the ten schools out of the 19 schools in the Metropolis. Yamane's (1967) formula for sample size determination was used to determine the 273 respondents out of the 1907 teachers. Purposive sampling was used to sample the head teachers and organiser of INSET. Mean ratings, percentages, standard deviation and correlation were the statistical tools used to analyse the data. The interview was transcribed for interpretation. Findings of the study included; teachers' needs and interest were not assessed prior to INSET, there were almost no follow-ups and funding was a great challenge. The conclusions were; teachers were not likely to be interested in INSET programmes because their needs were not met, INSET were not organised effectively, INSET organisers are not able to ascertain whether what teachers are taught during INSET is practised since there was lack of effective evaluation of INSET, teachers may not get the needed assistance to implement what they were taught once there was lack of continuous follow-up and availability of funds, teaching learning resources and physical facilities are likely to improve the quality of INSET organised in the metropolis. The study recommends that the planning, implementation and evaluation of INSET be decentralised, continuous follow-up should be made part of the organisation of INSET programmes and long term funding sources be accessed.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the study is to assess the extent to which INSET programmes organised for Senior High Schools (SHS) teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis are able to enhance their performance. This chapter discusses the background and the motivation for the study. It also presents the statement of the problem, the research objectives and questions and the significance of the study. The limitations, delimitations and the organisation of the study are equally presented in this chapter.

Background to the Study

Critical factors in enhancing quality education capable of facilitating meaningful development are teacher preparation, mentoring and motivation. According to United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO, 2008), education is a condition for development and the teacher is the ultimate definer of its reality.

Various International Development Organisations have established the importance of education to personal and national development. The Millennium Development Goals (United Nations, 2009), thus make the achievement of universal basic education by the year 2015 a critical objective of global development agenda. For this reason member countries of the UN General Assembly have been tasked to achieve certain objectives on education in their sovereign countries.

These international educational objectives encourage governments to institute measures that will improve enrolment, on the demand side. On the supply side, it is necessary to improve the quality of teaching and educational delivery. This is aimed

at improving literacy and the quality of education in member countries of the UN General Assembly (Ryan & Cousins, 2009). Many countries have therefore encouraged their respective educational regulatory bodies to undertake programmes aimed at enhancing the delivery of education.

It is a fact that education is essential to bring about a desired change in the social and cultural life of a nation (Gautmen, 2001). He continues that the person who shapes this whole process of education and plays a vital role in the development of the society is the teacher. It is the teacher who creates interest in students to develop progress and achieve whatever aims they set for themselves. Thus, teaching is a challenging profession. Only those teachers who can shoulder this responsibility of nation building, are adequately prepared, well trained and have a positive attitude to carry the dignified role of a teacher. A teacher who has a broader vision delivers his lecture more effectively as compared to the one who restricts himself in a particular domain. For improving scientific methods and capabilities we need good teachers and for good teachers, effective training is compulsory (Gautmen, 2001).

The precept that no educational system can rise above the quality of its teachers is a clear demonstration of the key role that teachers and teacher education programmes play in the development of every nation. This realization enforces each country to make frantic efforts to come out with qualified persons to take up the teaching of her citizens seeing that teaching is a versatile field that requires at all times the right identification of indices of developments in the society (Adeosun, Oni & Olidipo, 2009). Its versatility makes it imperative that teachers be an embodiment of constant search for updated knowledge, latest information, skills and breakthroughs in various fields of life.

The relationship between improved education and national development is very strong. Many studies point to the fact that education has the potential to improve the social and economic development of nations of which China, Finland, United States of America, to mention but a few are great examples (Solman, 2005; Romanowski, MacCarthy & Mitchell, 2007; Addo, 2010). It is impossible for any nation to benefit from education if there are no good and qualified teachers who are willing to carry it out. Teachers are the key agents and crucial when it comes to education (Akyeampong, 2003; Cherian & Daniel, 2008; Mensah & Acquah, 2011). Keeping teachers in top shape for holistic education delivery is vital, and in-service training is one way of improving teacher competence and quality.

The education system in Ghana needs an in-service training strategy that is functional and sustainable. The state of in-service training in Ghana today may not be that different from what Zimmerman (2011) described as lacking the 3'Ms namely money, material and manpower. Money, material and manpower are imperatives for running any functional and sustainable in-service training programme that will equip teachers with current and best practices in teaching in the Ghanaian education system especially at the basic level. However, because of the insufficient or non-availability of money, materials, or manpower, in-service training of teachers is often not carried out as expected (Akyeampong, 2003; Riske, 2007). Lesson Study was therefore introduced as an alternative way of providing cost effective and sustainable in-service training strategy for Mathematics and Science teaching. According to Lewis and Tsuchida (1997), Lesson Study is an in-service strategy that is reflective and inquiry based, and has the potential of qualitative improvement in the teaching and learning of Mathematics and Science. The introduction of Lesson Study into the Ghanaian educational system was based on the collaboration between the Ghana Education

Service (GES) and Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA) under the GES/JICA Science Technology and Mathematics (STM) In-service training (INSET) project.

According to Afe (1995), teacher education is that component of any educational system charged with the education and training of teachers to acquire the competencies and skills of teaching for improvement in the quality of teachers for the school system. However, the acquisition of such competencies and skills during teacher training alone is not adequate enough for one's professional development on the job. This is so because teachers must refresh their knowledge, competencies and skills and be abreast of time and technology to ensure quality of education. Thus, if this happens regularly, the work of teachers can eventually be in jeopardy. Tietaah (2011) observed that to remain relevant and responsive to one's profession, there is the need to engage in continuous human resource development (HRD). He argues further that training courses can boost continuous quality improvement of the human resource. Training therefore, is a powerful tool to develop the capacity of teachers. Similarly, how it is organized taking into account the needs of teachers cannot be overemphasized in this direction. According to Rowley and Jackson (2011), training often refers to the acquisition of knowledge and skills as a result of the teaching of vocational or practical skills and knowledge that relate to specific useful - competencies. Cole (2004) also sees training as any learning activity which is directed towards the acquisition of specific knowledge and skill for the purpose of an occupation or task. It can be the process to share skill and knowledge to extend and develop capabilities for better job performance. Training is thus, geared towards the acquisition of specific instructional activities or skills relating to one's current job. It therefore involves the process of investing in people so that they are equipped to

deliver or perform. Performance on the other hand is viewed by Byers and Rue (2004) as the degree of accomplishment of the task that makes up an employee's job. Performance is different from effort. The former is measured in terms of results. Therefore, training to enhance teacher performance calls for a continual quality professional development of teachers through on-the-job training. This would equip teachers to professionally discharge their duty diligently with the utmost pedagogical competence, skill and content knowledge.

In this era of intense global competition and fast change, organizations of all shapes and sizes are more concerned to make the best use of human resource capital. Training has increased its importance in today's environment where jobs are complex and change. Therefore, to have the best use of human resource, training must be provided to the employees. Measuring the impact of training on workplace performance and its contribution to organizational results is a matter of great concern for management in all types of organizations and much more in the educational sector where the effect of the final delivery is not very immediate yet long lasting. As a result of growing economic pressures, institutional leaders are becoming more cost conscious and they are more sensitive about the return on training investment. In the current declining level of education across public schools, such pressures have further increased. Human resource managers and training professionals have to justify training expenses by providing some evidence about the positive impact of training cost upon students results as business results in cooperate institutions. Consequently, the issue of measuring training effectiveness has gained lots of importance over the last few years. During the past four decades workplace learning and development professionals have done lots of work in the area of evaluating training effectiveness. Kirkpatrick (1976) did some pioneering work in this field and introduced the well-

known “four level evaluation model”, which is still widely used in training industry. Later, some other experts also made contributions in this direction and made modifications in the existing models.

Training is an integral part of human resource development. Training is increasingly viewed as a means of fostering the growth of the individual employee as well as the organization. Training is a process of learning a sequence of programmed behaviour. Training is the application of gained knowledge and experience. It gives people an awareness of rules and procedure to guide their behaviour. According to Flippo (1971), “training is an act of increasing the knowledge and skill of an employee for doing a particular job”. Similarly, Beach (1980) viewed that "training is an organised procedure by which people learn knowledge and/or skills for a definite purpose”. In fact it is the training that bridges the gap between job requirement and employee present specifications. A training programme is not complete until you have evaluated methods and results. A key to obtaining consistent success with training programmes is to have a systematic approach to measurement and evaluation. Recognition of the training methods and measurement techniques are crucial for the organization’s training success (Kalemci, 2005)”.

The degree, to which the training attains the desired objectives or immediately expected results, is presumed earlier from the training called ‘Training Effectiveness’. Kalemci (2005) writes that the best way to determine that training has been effective is to fully understand the reason why the training has been conducted. The reason to conduct and implement training is a key factor in determining that a training course or programme would be effective in achieving desired outcomes. If the training purpose was not clearly defined before the training, it could not lead to training as it is

planned. Defining and evaluating a valid need for training is the foundation upon which an organization can determine training effectiveness. Of course, the training is an important part of human resource function but more than that is the way in which training has been conducted so that it can be more effective. Training is expensive if it does not serve the purpose for which it is given. The training must be able to increase the capabilities of employee as well as the organization. If the training is not successful in making employee and organization more capable, then it will be loss of money and loss of reputation of organization. According to Tai (2006), training motivation of employees represents an important factor in improving the effectiveness of training outcomes.

All measures are devised to assess the difference between pre and post-training. There are no absolute measures. The measures compare the effect of training interventions with some other comparable data. Hence, the organization must obtain pre-training data or some benchmark on the same dimensions as expected from training interventions. According to Dayal (2001) the prime consideration is that the trainer has to be clear about two things, (i) that the objectives of training are specific, i.e. the outcome expected and (ii) that the training material and the methodology are capable of achieving the stated results. Measuring Training Effectiveness system can be applied to any training programme. Training effectiveness usually is determined by assessing some combination of the criteria presented in Kirkpatrick's (1976) hierarchical model of training outcomes. This hierarchy is composed of four levels of training outcomes: (a) trainees' reactions to the programme content and training process (reaction); (b) knowledge or skill acquisition (learning); (c) behaviour change (behaviour); and (d) improvements in tangible individual or organizational outcomes such as turn- over, accidents, or productivity (results of students).

In Ghana, the only governmental agency charged with the function of initial HRD of teachers is the Ghana Education Service (GES) according to Tietaah (2011). Municipal and District Education Directorates have the responsibility of ensuring that their human resource is furnished with the right knowledge, skills, training and expertise required to competently and effectively discharge their job responsibilities. Training is a continuous activity purported to increasing the level of competence and expertise of staff and also an effective means of helping the staff to gain a greater sense of ownership and responsibility on the job. Training and performance are components of human resource development in organizations (Tietaah, 2011). Therefore, organizations such as GES, owes its members an on-going on-the-job training and education. The GES should ensure that an on- the-job training is given to its staff to cover not only pedagogy and content but all aspects that would improve teacher efficiency. Similarly, it should ensure that supervision in the form of follow-up evaluation is conducted to identify the effectiveness or otherwise of the training or education given to participants and to ascertain whether or not further training is needed. However, organizers of INSETs are always quick to organize but not quick to follow-up on participants on the field.

For the organization of every in-service training to be successful, it must begin with needs assessment and end with an evaluation of the whole training process. Very often, organizers of INSETs fail to determine the training needs of teachers and participants when organizing training programmes. This eventually does not help to equip beneficiaries with the skills they actually need (Tietaah, 2011).

Statement of the Problem

The preparation of teachers for their jobs does not end with their pre-service professional training and education at college or the university. It is supposed to be a career-long affair (Adentwi & Baafi-Frimpong, 2010). On-the-job training or education otherwise known as in-service training and education (INSET) is therefore an indispensable aspect of the teacher's professional development. It should seek to equip the teacher with all aspects of teacher development including pedagogical competencies and skills as well as content knowledge. Asiedu-Akrofi is cited in a report edited by Greenland (1983) to have observed that most of the INSETs teachers have had over the years have no relevance as far as classroom situation is concerned hence, the poor performance of some teachers. Many in-service programmes according to Tietaah (2011) continue to use pre-service techniques for the training of teachers who require quite different methods to broaden their knowledge, skills and competency. Morant, as cited in Tietaah (2011, p.7) also observed that ' the time spent in training activities has been wasted when such programmes were not applicable to the classroom needs'.

According to the Ghana Education Service (2007), a baseline study which was conducted revealed that though in-service activities at the district and school levels have increased in the last few years, they do not reflect a change in teachers' and head teachers' performance and work output especially in instructional practices at the classroom level. Adentwi and Baafi-Frimpong (2010) confirm that as a result of improper supervision, many teachers who have profited from INSET go back to the schools to continue with the old ways of doing things. Fullan (1991) similarly identifies that INSETs usually fail because follow-up support for ideas and practices introduced during in-service programmes occurs in only a very small minority of

cases. In Ghana, it appears follow-up evaluation occurs infrequently and INSET programmes rarely address the individual needs and concerns. These defects inform this study to investigate how INSETs are organized for teachers and principally to find out whether prior needs assessment is done and whether proper supervision and monitoring in the form of follow-up evaluation on INSETs towards enhancing teacher performance is provided. The study is crucial since it appears not much has been done in terms of scientific research in the field, particularly in the Kumasi Metropolis.

The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine how INSET programmes organised for SHS teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis are able to enhance their performance.

Objectives of the Study

To achieve the overall purpose of the study, the following specific objectives would be addressed;

1. to establish the needs assessment that goes into the organisation of INSET for teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis;
2. to assess the impact INSET on teacher performance in the Kumasi Metropolis;
3. to identify the feedback and evaluation programmes used to assess teachers after INSETs programmes in the Kumasi Metropolis and
4. to assess the challenges in organising and evaluating INSET in the GES in the Kumasi Metropolis. .

Research Questions

The following research questions were formulated to guide the study:

1. How are the needs of SHS teachers assessed prior to the organization of INSETS in the Kumasi Metropolis?
2. What is the impact of INSET on SHS teachers' performance in the Kumasi Metropolis?
3. What feedback and evaluation programmes are used to evaluate SHS teachers after INSET programmes in the Kumasi Metropolis?
4. What are the challenges in organizing and evaluating INSET programmes for SHS teachers in the GES in the Kumasi Metropolis?

Significance of the Study

The study will not only add to existing literature on In-Service-Training but will serve as a guide as to what needs to be considered in organizing INSET programmes for teachers at the second cycle level. Furthermore, the results of this study would provide the appropriate authorities and stakeholders in the field of education useful information that would enhance the organization of INSET programmes aimed at improving teacher performance. The study would be of enormous benefit to organizers of INSET programmes as it identifies the relevance of prior needs assessment and follow-up evaluation of INSETs. It would also be a source of reference for those who seek knowledge or wish to conduct further research in the area.

Delimitation of the Study

The study would be limited to Senior High School teachers and head teachers within the Kumasi Metropolis. The study would be restricted to finding out whether or not needs of teachers are assessed before INSET programmes are organised, how effectively such training meet the needs of teachers as well as the impact of INSET on

the performance of teachers. The study would as well cover issues of follow-up evaluation after INSET programmes and some challenges organisers face in organizing and evaluating INSET programmes.

Limitations of the study

The research study was limited by time, funding and the research design adopted. The cross-sectional survey only allowed for a one time data collection which is likely to affect the outcomes of the results. Because majority of the respondents responded to closed-ended questionnaire, it limited their responses and very likely to affect the outcomes.

Acronyms and their meanings

Association for Training of European Teachers (ATET)

Comprehensive, Competency-Based In-service Training (CCBIT)

Competency-Based Teacher Education (CBTE)

Continuing Professional Development (CPD)

Context, Input, Process, Product (CIPP model)

Cooperative Action to Restore our Environment (CARE)

Cooperative Action to Restore our Environment (CARE)

Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA)

Field-Based-Training (FBT)

Ghana Education Service (GES)

Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT)

Human Resource Development (HRD)

Information and Communications Technology (ICT)

Input, Process, Output (IPO model)

In-service training (INSET)

International Labour Organisation (ILO)

International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET)

International Federations of Teachers Unions (IFTU)

Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA)

Ministry of Education (MOE)

National Education Association Division (NEAD)

Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)

Parent Teacher Association (PTA)

Performance-Based Teacher Education (PBTE)

Programme for Effective Teaching (PET)

Professional Development (PD)

Readiness, Planning, Training, Implementation and. Maintenance (RPTIM)

Senior High Schools (SHS)

Science Technology and Mathematics (STM)

Skill, Knowledge or Attitude (SKA)

Staff Development for School Improvement (SDSI).

Trainer of Trainers (ToT)

Training and Visit (T&V)

Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS)

Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS)

United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)

World Confederation of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP)

Organisation of the Study

The research was organized into five chapters. Chapter one included, background to the study, statement of problem, objectives, research questions, significance of the study, limitations, and delimitation. Chapter two looks at review of relevant literature related to the topic. Chapter three discusses the methodology which would be used in the study. Chapter four deals with the presentation and analysis of the results of the study as well as the discussion of the findings. Finally chapter five focuses on the summary, conclusions and recommendations with areas for further research suggested.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of the study is to assess the extent to which INSET programmes organised for Senior High School (SHS) teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis are able to enhance their performance. This chapter reviews literature relevant to the concept and themes of the study. Theoretical, conceptual review and empirical evidence are reviewed along the following themes: definitions of training ,concept and meaning of in-service education and training – INSET, Purpose of INSET, INSET and teachers’ professional needs in Ghana, INSET of teachers and the agencies/bodies that organise INSET, challenges to INSET of teachers and measures that can make in-service training programmes effective.

The Concept of Professional Development

Every educational process must have qualified teachers as a portion of the ingredients essential for the goals of the process to be measured and achieved. The teachers responsible for the process must equally be accorded a very high priority. The nature of the teaching profession makes it expedient and imperative for all teachers to engage in continuing career long professional training (Essel, Badu, Owusu-Boateng, & Saah, 2009).

At certain moments in a teacher's career, a coherent set of changes takes place in both the teacher's thinking about the profession and ways of practice. These changes are both qualitative and quantitative in nature. Such a development is not a simple, spontaneous process, but the outcome of a complex interaction between the individual and the various environments in which the teacher operates. Therefore, the

nature of the teacher's professional development is located in the interaction between the teacher's own personal environment and the professional environment of the teacher (Vonk, 1989).

As observe by Tsotetsi and Mahlomaholo (2015), professional development of teachers is a cornerstone of the provision of quality of teaching and learning in a country's education system, affirmed by the literature, with programmes central to proposals for improving the quality of teaching and transforming education. According to Essel et al (2009), teachers should instill in their students the drive for lifelong learning as this could go a long way to build the appropriate human resources for the nation. With this in mind, there is the need for all teachers to show commitment in their job and enthusiasm for continuing professional development. It would also enable them to have an awareness of the curricula and instructional modes.

One reason for teacher attrition is that a gap exists between pre-service teacher preparation and in-service teacher development, in that most novice teachers suddenly have no further contact with their teacher educators, and from the very first day on the job, must face the same challenges as their more experienced colleagues, often without much guidance from the new school/institution (Farrell, 2012). He notes further that these challenges include lesson planning, lesson delivery, classroom management and identity development

Professional Development Defined

The concept of continuing professional development (CPD) in education is often ill-defined, with the separate notions of formal training and on-the job learning serving to confuse the issue further. However, Day's (1999) definition of CPD

encompasses all behaviours which are intended to effect change in the classroom. He asserts that Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school which contribute through these to the quality of education in the classroom. He explains further that, it is the process by which alone and with other teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives. Professional development deals with the changes which teachers experience throughout their careers with respect to their function in practice (job skills, knowledge, and behaviours), their attitudes, expectations, job satisfaction and concerns and career perspectives (Vonk, 1989). To Essel et al (2009), professional development includes, among other things, learning from experience, becoming competent and developing in classrooms and schools. It also includes the more formal accelerated learning opportunities available through internally and externally generated in-service education and training activities. Professional development is again defined as the process of improving staff skills and competencies needed to produce outstanding educational results for students (Hassel, 1999).

The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) adopts a broad definition of teacher professional development (PD) as activities that develop an individual's skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher (OECD, 2009). Commenting further, they believe that professional development should aim to develop teachers' professional thinking and practice and

enhance the quality of teaching and learning. This they said is achieved through a wide range of activities and practices that support on-going and evidence-based reflective practice. Professional development they maintain is sometimes narrowly used to refer to training provided for teachers to improve their practice but training is just one of the wide ranges of activities teachers can undertake as part of their professional development.

The concept of professional development can be said to be very important if the effective performance of teachers is central to teaching and learning.

The Need for Professional Development

In principle, effective professional development leads to improved teaching and in turn, improved learning. According to Hattie (2009), out of 150 factors which influence learning, professional development is ranked 19th. He however states that reviews of professional development tend to look at impact on teachers rather than on learner outcomes, although he refers to a positive meta-study on learner outcomes by Timperley et al (2007).

According to the 2008 Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) from the OECD (2008), the concept of a school as a learning organisation is gaining popularity in education. Teachers who use more diverse teaching practices and who participate more actively in professional learning communities also report higher levels of self-efficacy, receive more feedback and appraisal on their instruction and report being more involved in professional development activities outside the schools. Continuous Professional Development (CPD) as it is sometimes called is essential because it can help maintain and enhance the quality of teachers and the tasks that are performed by the heads of the various institutions (Essel, et al, 2009).

In terms of professional development, in-service training of teachers can be enhanced through collaborations with other stakeholders. Individually and collectively, teachers adopt new concepts in their classrooms and monitor the success of their efforts by jointly reviewing their work, considering outcomes and reflecting upon their teaching efforts (Lau, 2013, Liu, Tsai and Huang, 2015). However, even when teachers schedule regular meetings, the lack of effective cooperation procedures may impede collaboration (Pawan & Ortlof, 2011). They observe finally that consequently, collaboration focuses solely on information exchanges rather than instructional observation, deep discussion and reflection.

Many government policies and actions have a bearing on the likelihood of teachers having successful interactions with their pupils. For example the present determination to rebuild or update all school buildings, the creation and appointment of many more and different sorts of support staff, the availability to this generation of teachers of an increasingly higher ICT equipment-all directly help the teachers in their task (Brighthouse, 2008). The reasons for this impact vary individually both for the teacher and the students.

As opine by Manu (1993), INSET programmes in Ghana mostly focus on implementation and helping participants to pass their promotion examinations. Such programmes are mostly organised by the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT) Teacher Education Division, the Institute of Education, the Institute of Educational Planning and Administration and the District and Regional Education Office.

Meanwhile, teachers should be provided with growth opportunities if they are to be encouraged to meet learning needs effectively. If teachers are to develop,

attention must be paid to their thinking, moral purposes and skills as change agents as well as their pedagogical and management skills and the leadership and cultural contexts in which they work. Again, if schools are to be part of the lifelong learning community, they have to be concerned with the lifelong development of all their members. The provision of time and opportunity as well as the dispositions and abilities of teachers to learn from and with one another inside the workplace and from others outside the school are key factors in continuous professional development.

Concept and meaning of In-Service Education and Training (INSET)

According to Paudel (2014), in theory, in-service teacher training is training taken by a teacher after he has begun to teach. The training aims at enhancing the skills, knowledge and performance of the working teachers. Gnawali (2001) is also of the view that in-service teacher training is important for a teacher because the working conditions and the demands from the society are always changing for professionals like teachers. Thus, in-service training is necessary to meet the demand of time and demands of the society.

In relation to this, Bhan (2006) identifies the following as key objectives of teacher training: to upgrade the qualification of a teacher, to upgrade the professional competence of serving teachers, to prepare teachers for new roles, to provide knowledge and skills relating to emerging curricular change, to make teachers aware of critical areas and issues and to overcome gaps and deficiencies of pre-service education. These objectives of in-service teacher training are equally relevant to the context of Nepali education system. In this light, Bista (2011) mentions that untrained teachers may not be as innovative as their trained counterparts. Therefore, training is

important for teachers to upgrade, enhance professional competence and raise awareness in critical issues and areas.

According to McGhee and Thayer (1961), on the job training is a formal or informal training done at the employee's work place. It is the most frequently used method of employee training in organisations. In this type of training, employees learn new procedures or improve their skills while performing their normal job duties. The training may occur formally by assigning a new employee to an experienced employee (mentoring).

Marrant (1981) cites Cane (1969) that, "In-service training is taken to include all those activities and courses in which a serving teacher may participate for the purpose of extending his professional knowledge, interest or skill preparation for a degree, diploma or other qualification subsequent to initial training is included within this definition". (p.97)

Commenting on Cane's definition, Marrant (1981) indicates that Cane wrote about teachers' in-service training rather than their education. Marrant (1981) states that there is little doubt about a distinction between education and training though the difference is not important. Training is concerned with the acquisition of skills and techniques using standardised procedures and sequences. In contrast, in-service education aims at bringing about teacher's professional, academic and personal development through the provision of a whole series of study experiences and activities of which training should be related as...but one aspect. He continues that, it is probably safer to employ the phrase, 'In-service education' which by implication is inclusive of its training. On the other hand, most people would like to use the term, "in-service education and training" (INSET).

Farrant (1982) defines In-service Education and Training as a lifelong process in which the teacher is constantly learning and adapting to new challenges of the job. He continues that much of this training is self-directed and is carried out by reading books and articles on education, by discussing with colleagues and supervisors matters concerning teaching, by attending courses and conferences on education.

According to Jarvis (1990), in-service education is continuing education given to employees during the course of their working-lives, which may be in the house. It may also take the form of block release or even secondment. This training is normally conducted by employing agencies within the organisation itself without recourse to formal education.

Another definition of in-service training and education by United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) (1975) states that in-service training is training designed for teachers who are already in professional practice and which they receive in the context of or during periods of varying length when their normal duties are suspended.

From the definitions above, in-service education and training is intended to support and assist the professional development that teachers need to experience throughout their career. This could either be voluntary or involuntary. Greenland as cited by Adentwi (2000), suggests that in-service training programmes for teachers in English speaking African countries are of four main types:

- In-service training programme for unqualified teachers was observed in countries like Nigeria, Zimbabwe, Sierra Leone and Liberia;
- In-service training programme for upgrading. This was designed to move pupil-teachers who have been given some form of training to higher grades;

- In-service training for new roles. It is intended for already qualified teachers to retrain to serve as trainer of trainers (ToT) or given specialized areas of training in areas of school life; and
- Curriculum related in-service training designed to introduce teachers to innovations taking place in the curriculum of schools or to help implement educational reforms.

Clearly, from the foregoing it can be inferred that, in-service Education and Training can be seen as training that is conducted at any time after an individual has been employed as a full time teacher.

Definitions of Training

In order to better understand the need for teacher training, it is necessary to make a brief overview of the meaning of training in general. “*Training*,” as expressed by Hamblin (1974), is defined as “any activity which deliberately attempts to improve a person’s skill in a job [and] includes any type of experience designed to facilitate learning which will aid performance in a present or future job”. A similar definition is, as mentioned in the previous chapter, by Kaplan-Leiserson in Green (2004), a process which aims at improving knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours in people to accomplish certain jobs, tasks or goals. On his part, (Kirkpatrick, 1976) sees training to include development. He states that training course and programmes are “designed to increase knowledge, improve skills, and change attitudes”.

As can be seen, training is the form of gaining knowledge in order to perform better at a particular job. Teacher training, therefore, can be said to be the act of aiding teachers to acquire the knowledge necessary to carry out the teaching profession more effectively.

Bramley (1991) has also dealt with the definition of training in that he has cited two very diverse definitions: A British definition offered by the Department of Employment Glossary of Training Terms (1971) says, “The systematic development of the attitude / knowledge / skill / behavior pattern required by an individual to perform adequately a given task or job” (p. xiv). An American definition offered by Hinrichs (1976) also goes “Any organizationally initiated procedures which are intended to foster learning among organizational members in a direction contributing to organizational effectiveness”.

Bramley (1991) states that each definition has different key concepts and put forward his own views about what training should entail: Training should be a systematic process with some planning and control rather than random learning from experience, it should be concerned with changing concepts, skills and attitudes of people treated both as individuals and as groups and it is intended to improve performance in both the present and the following job and through this should enhance the effectiveness of the part of the organization in which the individual or group works.

Nadler and Nadler (1994) also put forward a definition of training under the name of human resource development (HRD), which they refer to as “organized learning experiences provided by employers within a specified period of time to improve performance and/or promote personal growth.” They state that training is an area of learning activity within HRD such that it “involves learning that relates to the current job of the learner”.

According to Laird (1985), training is defined as “an experience, a discipline, or a regimen which causes people to acquire new, predetermined behaviors.” That is,

the activities designed to improve human performance on the job. He also states that when there is a need for “new” behaviors, there is always a need for a training department. This is also the case for the situation in the departments in the School of Foreign Languages that this study was conducted at since there was a current study on the renewal of the whole curriculum and instructors working at both departments (DML and DBE) needed the training in order to become competent and familiar with the new curriculum.

What is important in training is that there should be some kind of planning of a programme with the intention to change behaviours, attitudes and skills of individuals, which will in turn, prove to be beneficial for the organization in which these individuals work.

Types of training

Halim and Ali (1996) establish in-service training may broadly be categorised into five different types: (1) induction or orientation training, (2) foundation training, (3) on-the-job training, (4) refresher or maintenance training, and (5) career development training. All of these types of training are needed for the proper development of extension staff throughout their service life.

Induction or Orientation Training. Induction training is given immediately after employment to introduce the new extension staff members to their positions. It begins on the first day the new employee is on the job (Rogers & Olmsted, 1957). They explain that this type of in-service training is aimed at acquainting the new employee with the organisation and its personnel. Induction training for all new personnel should develop an attitude of personal dedication to the service of people and the organisation. This kind of training supplements whatever preservice training

the new personnel might have had (Halim & Ali, 1996). Concerning the characteristics of a new employee, Van Dersal (1962) said that when people start to work in an organisation for the first time, they are eager to know what sort of outfit they are getting into, what they are supposed to do, and whom they will work with. He added that they are likely to be more attentive and open-minded than experienced employees. In fact, the most favourable time for gaining employees' attention and for moulding good habits among them is when they are new to the job.

Foundation Training. Foundation training is in-service training which is also appropriate for newly recruited personnel. Besides technical competence and routine instruction about the organization, every staff member needs some professional knowledge about various rules and regulations of the government, financial transactions, administrative capability, communication skills, leadership ability, coordination and cooperation among institutions and their linkage mechanism, report writing, and so on. Foundation training is made available to employees to strengthen the foundation of their service career. This training is usually provided at an early stage of service life.

Maintenance or Refresher Training. This training is offered to update and maintain the specialized subject-matter knowledge of the incumbents. Refresher training keeps the specialists, administrators, subject-matter officers, extension supervisors, and frontline workers updated and enables them to add to the knowledge and skills they have already. Maintenance or refresher training usually deals with new information and new methods, as well as review of older materials. This type of training is needed both to keep employees at the peak of their possible production and to prevent them from getting into a rut (Van Dorsal, 1962).

On-the-Job Training. This is ad hoc or regularly scheduled training, such as fortnightly training under the training and visit (T&V) system of extension, and is provided by the superior officer or the subject-matter specialists to the subordinate field staff. This training is generally problem or technology oriented and may include formal presentations, informal discussion, and opportunities to try out new skills and knowledge in the field. The superior officer, administrator, or subject-matter specialist of each extension department must play a role in providing on-the-job training to the staff while conducting day-to-day normal activities.

Career or Development Training. This type of in-service training is designed to upgrade the knowledge, skills, and ability of employees to help them assume greater responsibility in higher positions. The training is arranged departmentally for successful extension workers, at all levels, for their own continuing education and professional development. Malone (1984) opined that extension services that provide the opportunity for all staff to prepare a plan for career training will receive the benefits of having longer tenured and more satisfied employees, which increases both the effectiveness and efficiency of an extension service. Malone stated that "career development is the act of acquiring information and resources that enables one to plan a program of lifelong learning related to his or her worklife" (p. 216). Although extension workers are responsible for designing their own career development education, the extension organization sometimes sets some criteria and provides opportunities for the staff by offering options.

The Need for Teacher Training

Since the teaching of a foreign language is a very demanding task, there is always a need for teacher training on this issue. Bramley (1991) states that it is a fact

that when talking about teacher training, we cannot avoid effectiveness. He continues to argue that evaluation cannot be separated from the concept of training. This issue will be mentioned in more detail further on in this chapter. However, at this point, there may be a need to make the connection between teacher training and teacher education. Ur (1996) makes this distinction by stating that teacher training may refer to “unthinking habit formation and an over-emphasis on skills and techniques” while teacher education has more to do with developing theories, an awareness of options and decision making abilities. Ur (1996) also cites Peters’ description of education and training stating that education “is a process of learning that develops moral, cultural, social and intellectual aspects of the whole person” and training “prepares for a particular function or profession”. In the light of all the above, there may be a need to also define the term teacher development.

Developing and growing are vital in any occupation and in any situation. The development of teachers can be seen, as Underhill put it, as a move from ‘unconscious incompetence’ to ‘unconscious competence’ in which case we need to be aware of our ‘conscious incompetence’ and our ‘conscious competence’ (Underhill cited by Harmer, 2002). Harmer continues to quote from Fanselow and says that development may occur by breaking our own rules as teachers and challenging what we have been taking for granted (Harmer, 2002). There are many other ways in which a teacher can develop. Harmer has listed a few as doing action research, carrying out a literature review, developing with colleagues (discussing with colleagues, peer teaching/observation, teachers’ groups / associations, and using the virtual community (the internet)), and developing by learning (Harmer, 2002). As can be seen, the development of teachers can be achieved in many ways. Teacher training programs are one way in which teachers can start with their query of development. By being

‘educated’ in teacher training programmes, teachers have the opportunity to use their capabilities and skills for development and improvement. There are different kinds of teacher training programmes that adopt different methods of teaching and learning.

In-Service Training and Its Approaches

The study of education which has grown multi-pronged offers many options and approaches by different experts through scientific studies and on-job observations. There are a number of ways through which individuals attain competence and certification as teachers. The task of teacher education may be regarded as a continuum, from pre-service programmes to continuing professional development programmes through in-service training. In the past, in-service teacher training was considered more often in terms of individual teachers attending courses assuming that these are linked to some sort of professional development. The actual benefactors, never the less, were the students through experiences of improved classroom interaction and individualized attention. The head of an institution selected a teacher for the course available and the teacher 52, joined back the institution after completing the set of activity. However, with the rapid changes in educational approaches, in-service teacher training component flourished as a specialized field where courses were tailor- made and designed as per the requirements of institutions, policy makers, administrators etc. Some of these are stated below:

Field-Based Training Programme

The field-based-training (FBT) programme was started in 1984 in and around Gilgit. The programme of instruction is an in-school training course based on the conventional PTC syllabus. The Field-Based Training Programme described by Sheikh (1998), is a compensatory and innovative programme aimed at training

teachers (1) to give up some of the traditional practices prevalent in rural primary schools and (2) to adopt a new approach to teaching which shifts the emphasis from the teacher to the student as the centre of the teaching – learning process. Specifically, FBT Programme sought to interest and involve the pupil in learning through an activity oriented programme where students were encouraged to ask and figure out the answers to their own questions. In addition, the teacher was to use effective teaching techniques including the careful planning of lessons, using locally available materials as teaching aids, adapting the lesson to the students' level of comprehension, and verifying that learning has taken place. Finally, the teacher is called upon to replace traditional forms of classroom behaviour with more effective forms; replacing rote memorization with comprehension, abstaining from physical punishment of pupils, and moving around the classroom in a more informal manner than the conventional way of directing the lesson from one place at the front of the classroom. The most distinctive feature of this training programme is the relationship it establishes with real-life teaching conditions. The planners of the programme feel training should be conducted under conditions very similar to the actual working of teachers so that they can immediately practise concepts they learn in the classroom. In this way, it is assumed that the concepts become reinforced to produce desired changes in the classroom behaviour of teachers and the instructors get an opportunity to witness the impact of training and the confidence of the teacher to grow as a manager of learning.

The INSET Process

In planning for professional training days, organisational arrangements, methods and styles are given due focus under the aspects of INSET. These require a reflective, measured approach to plan useful training days. INSET continuously strives for the personal and professional development of the teacher. Gough and

James, (1990) point to two approaches to INSET: a) the teacher as receiver of INSET and b) the teacher as designer of his own INSET. When teachers are receivers, INSET is seen as reception of knowledge in one situation, in order to apply it later in the classroom. This situation prevails when:

- i. INSET deals with comparatively simple or routine problems which are experienced by most of the participants in a similar way;
- ii. INSET happens to fulfill several of the participants' specific needs and takes into account their prior knowledge;
- iii. INSET does not purport to contribute directly to the improvement of classroom practice, but rather aims to provide teachers with a variety of interesting ideas, the application of which is left to the teachers.

The central problem of this approach is to bridge the gap between the information given and professional action, the latter depending on the experience of the participating teachers and the conditions for the implementation of the acquired knowledge. The teacher might receive too much and too little information at the same time because it is likely that the information is not received by him to be relevant to his specific situation and the problems which seem to be important to him. The analogy of the course can be compared with the issue of an organ transplant where the body tissues reject the whole process thus referring to a complete failure of time and resources.

Teachers who steer their own INSET are educating themselves by identifying problems relating to their professional life and by exploring them in order to clarify them and to develop new possibilities for solving them. This approach to INSET is based on awareness raising and realization of the fact that some further growth is

necessary for the teacher. However, the planning and delivery of INSET is adjusted within a coherent framework of the teaching requirements. This approach strengthens the concept of learning by doing with the analogy that the teachers will gain skills of using computers only by practising and once they realise the impact of change, they teach better.

Teacher and cognitive standards

Sharma (1994) defines the prime task of a teacher as to pass on to the new generation the social heritage of knowledge and skills, competence of the subject taught and to engage the attention of pupils through control of the classes for which they were responsible. The main trends in this aspect of teachers' work have been:

- i. A great increase in the volume of knowledge that has a legitimate claim for inclusion in the school curriculum.
- ii. Much greater refinement of our understanding about what this knowledge comprises, and how children may best acquire it.

Much sharper disagreement than heretofore about the priority that is to be attached to one form of knowledge rather than another, and the place that cognitive learning itself occupies vis-à-vis other purposes performed by the school and other aspects of a society's expectations concerning the work of its teachers.

Competency - based / Performance - based Model of Teacher Education

A movement called competency-based teacher education (CBTE), or performance-based teacher education (PBTE) emerged during the late 1960s which galvanised education to action and led to vigorous debate on its merits. PBTE-CBTE was based on the assumption that the content of teacher- education programmes should be derived from the actual or conceptual role of a teacher. Rarely had a movement

captured the imagination of so many educators in such a short period or promised such radical changes.

According to this model as described by Zafar (2002), Teacher Performance refers to observable behaviours both verbal and nonverbal. Tendencies refer to what the teacher typically does in the average or normal teaching situation. The term capabilities refer to what the teacher is able to do when trying his best. Both tendencies and capabilities are assessed in terms of an explicitly stated level of mastery so that if the teacher does not perform at or above this level, he is considered to be inadequately trained. Finally, the performance tendencies and capabilities are selected and defined with reference to their effects on student achievement.

Misra (1993) defines Competency based Teaching Approach as “Task-Oriented Teacher Education”. It is performance based teacher education. It stresses that teacher education should enable teachers to handle a variety of tasks inside and outside the classroom. The tasks are as follows:

- i. identifying the objectives of teaching a given subject matter;
- ii. communicating an idea;
- iii. demonstrating an experiment;
- iv. making a film-strip;
- v. taking children on a field trip;
- vi. guiding an emotionally disturbed child;
- vii. winning over the confidence of the parents of an underprivileged child;
- viii. playing the role of leadership in tackling problems relating to family planning, pollution, delinquency and so on.

Specialised Knowledge

In “Theory of Teacher Training”, Naik, (1998) states that: The prospective teacher should find in his major two things: a command in some depth of his subject and a link between his liberal education and his purely professional work.

Unless the prospective teacher has a fairly sturdy grasp of the main body of knowledge – its substance and its methods – from which he is to derive subject matter for his secondary school classroom, he runs the risk of violating the very nature of the discipline itself. Otherwise, he will be losing sense of ordering, coherence and relationships of various aspects in attempting to work out derivations of this knowledge in organising instruction for his students. For example, there are many odd ways in which the study of history is made subsidiary to goals other than its primary one i.e. to develop insight into change and the generalization regarding the activities which induce this change and illuminate the meaning of objects and events.

Singh (2006) defines knowledge as both hierarchical and varied in its nature. It is not uncommon to use the terms like higher and lower knowledge. The division of knowledge into various categories, subject specializations etc, are also well known. This reality as it stands interpreted today suggests that while knowledge is undivisible and happens to have no boundaries, it is offered in bits and pieces for human consumption because it is the only convenient way for the ordinary mortals to learn and remember. In this respect, knowledge has varied forms and divisions and can be put in a hierarchical manner.

Humanistic Model

The theoretical framework for this model of teacher education is derived from the perceptual humanistic psychology which locates the causes of behaviour in the

belief systems of behaviour. Beginning from those understandings, it follows that teacher education is not a question of learning how to teach but a matter of personal discovery, of learning how to use one's self and surroundings to assist other persons to learn. It is thus designed to help each trainee find his own best ways of teaching.

An effective teacher as described by Zafar, (2002) is one who is well informed; perceives other people as able to deal with their own problems; is friendly, worthy, internally motivated, dependable and helpful; has an adequate personality; is capable of sharing and is self-disciplined; and is thoughtful about the purposes and methods of teaching. The teacher's self is the teaching instrument and the teacher-education programme develops that self by offering information and helping students discover the personal meaning of the information. The effective professional worker is no longer regarded as a technician applying methods in a more or less mechanical fashion and emerging as an intelligent human being using himself, his knowledge and the resources at hand to solve the problems for which he is responsible. He is a person who has learned to use himself as an effective instrument. In doing so, he inspires his students in number of ways to become independent in managing his learning.

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in teacher training

ICT has a role to play in education development as we have seen how it has permeated private enterprises and changed their entire culture. Educational practices cannot remain un-influenced by the increasing manifestation of an ICT culture. There are two main objectives for introducing computers in the primary and secondary school curriculum:

- i. One is to teach students about computers and information technology, so as to enable them to be IT literate and to use IT and all of its capabilities

to access, process, analyze and produce useful information. However, communication technology topics have also been incorporated into the courses during the last few years.

- ii. The second objective is to teach school subjects such as English, geography, science, history and mathematics with the use of computers.

The model of using computer in the school curriculum has evolved with the advent of internet, communication and multimedia technologies making learning resources very captivating, motivating and easily accessible and dramatically shifting the responsibility for learning from teachers to learners.

The increased prominence of communication technology has not been fully integrated with existing Information Technology. Teachers should select applications that are easy to experiment with and are user-friendly. Newspaper clippings of trends in computing, computer advertisements, computer dictionaries, encyclopedias, and software user manuals should be made available for students.

According to Harish Bansal, (2007) educators throughout the world now realise that Internet and Intranet Accessibility have expanded classroom resources dramatically by making many resources from all over the world available to students and teachers not only in the area of ICT but also in other areas as well. It can bring information, data, images, and even computer software into the classroom from places otherwise impossible to reach and it does this almost instantly. Access to these resources can give rise to individual and group projects, collaboration, curriculum materials and idea sharing not found in schools without Internet access.

INSET and teachers' professional needs assessment

Most people in business need training from time to time. Few people are hired for a new job with all of the necessary knowledge and skills. Therefore, all new employees should require some training. Experienced employees can change from average to expert workers with additional training either within or without the organisation. Training allows them to improve methods and procedures, learn to operate new equipment and prepare for promotions. In-service education and training programmes can remind experienced employees of information they may have forgotten, such as safety practices and techniques for improving the speed and accuracy of their performance. To get to this point, it is important to find out areas that the teacher needs to refresh his knowledge on or the aspect of his work that needs new knowledge, hence the need for needs assessment as an entry point to the organisation of any INSET programme.

A "Needs Assessment" is a systematic approach that progresses through a defined series of phases (Witkin & Ruth, 1995). Needs Assessment they continue, focuses on the ends (i.e., outcomes) to be attained, rather than the means (i.e., process). For example, reading achievement is an outcome whereas reading instruction is a means toward that end. It gathers data by means of established procedures and methods designed for specific purposes. The kinds and scope of methods are selected to fit the purposes and context of the needs assessment. Needs assessment sets priorities and determines criteria for solutions so that planners and managers can make sound decisions. Needs assessment sets criteria for determining how best to allocate available money, people, facilities, and other resources. It leads to action that will improve programmes, services, organisational structure and operations, or a combination of these elements. They advise that the conduct of a

comprehensive needs assessment be done to identify the strengths and weaknesses of a staff before organising INSET programmes.

Witkin and Ruth (1995) came out with a model which can guide in conducting a comprehensive needs assessment. The model is referred to as 'A Three Phase Needs Assessment Model'. It is presented below.

A Three-Phase Model of Needs Assessment

Phase I: Explore What Is

The purpose of Phase I is to investigate what is already known about the needs of the target group; to determine the focus and scope of the needs assessment; and to gain commitment for all stages of the assessment; including the use of the findings for program planning and implementation. It includes such activities like prepare a management plan, identify concerns, determine measurable indicators, consider data sources and decide preliminary priorities.

Two major objectives of the exploration phase are gaining: 1) a sense of commitment to the needs assessment at all levels in the organisation; and 2) an assurance that decision makers will follow-up (i.e., use) the findings with appropriate and timely action.

Each Phase involves 5 steps as shown below:

STEP 1: Prepare Management Plan Successful projects have leadership. A key person in planning and managing a needs assessment is the project manager. Form a Needs Assessment Committee. The members of a Needs Assessment Committee should represent those organizations and individuals that are critical to ensuring commitment and follow-up. Then you determine a reporting schedule. Timely

reports to top management and other important stakeholders with opportunities for interaction on major issues also are critical.

STEP 2: Identify Major Concerns and reach consensus on the goals (desired outcomes) of greatest importance to the target group. Refine the list of goals to the top 3 – 5 goals. Brainstorm a list of concerns/factors for each of the goals and finally decide on the major concerns for each goal.

STEP 3: Determine Need Indicators and identify indicators that could verify that the concern/issue exists. [An indicator is data that can verify that a concern exists.]

STEP 4: Consider Data Sources and determine what kinds of information would be helpful to more clearly define the need and where to get the data.

STEP 5: Decide on Preliminary Priorities of data then set the priorities of each concern as a focus in the gathering.

Phase II: Gather and Analyse Data

The task of this phase is to document the study, the ‘what is’ of the concerns/issues to compare the status with the vision of ‘what should be’ and to determine the magnitude of the needs and their causes. The major output from this phase is a set of needs statement in tentative order of priority based on the criticality of the need and its causes.

The activities include determining the target group, gathering data to define needs, prioritizing needs identifying and analyzing cause and summarising findings. These activities involve the following 5 major steps;

STEP 1: Determine Target Groups to determine the scope of the needs assessment—
e.g., all districts with eligible migrant children.

STEP 2: Gather Data to Define Needs to gather data to define needs specify a desired outcome based on the program's goals, collect data to determine the current state of the target group in relation to the desired outcome and then formulate need statements based on discrepancies between current and desired outcomes.

STEP 3: Prioritise Needs—Based on Data List concerns (need areas) in rank order of importance (e.g., School affiliation, English Language, Course Completion). Within each area of concern, separately rank the identified needs (e.g., Within School affiliation—Counselor-student contact, peer network, extra curricula activities).

STEP 4: Identify & Analyse Causes, determine general and specific causes of high priority needs. In general, try to answer question “Why does this need persist?” Identify the factors that are amenable to intervention with control of your programme.

STEP 5: Summarise Findings and document findings by need with an explanation of the major causes. Share the results with the Needs Assessment Committee, managers, and other key stakeholders.

Phase III: Make Decisions

It cannot be emphasised too strongly that a need assessment is not complete unless plans are made to use the information in a practical way. Phase III is the bridge from the analysis to action- to use needs assessment findings. It answers important questions: What needs are the most critical? What are some possible solutions? Which solutions are the best?

This final phase also has 5 steps.

STEP 1: Set Priority of Needs

Criteria for assigning priorities among needs are based on several factors:

The magnitude of discrepancies between current and target states; Causes and contributing factors to the needs; The degree of difficulty in addressing the needs; Risk assessment—the consequences of ignoring the needs; The effect on other parts of the system or other needs if a specific need is or is not met; The cost of implementing solutions; and other factors that might affect efforts to solve the need.

Set priorities in two stages: (a) broad areas, such as goals, concerns (needs) or target groups; and (b) critical needs within each area.

STEP 2: Identify Possible Solutions

Set criteria (or standards) for judging the merits of alternative solution strategies. At a minimum, proposed solutions should meet the criteria of effect on causes, acceptability, and feasibility (includes resources). Generate and examine potential solutions. In examining possible solutions—review and

document research and evaluation data that supports the merits of each alternative.

STEP 3: Select Solutions

Evaluate and rate each solution separately against the evaluation criteria. Consider whether each of the high-ranking solutions will drive toward the contemplated change or whether they will push in the opposite direction, preventing change. On the basis of all the information, select one or more solutions for each need area.

STEP 4: Propose Action Plan

The plan should include descriptions of the solutions, rationale, proposed timelines and resource requirements.

STEP 5: Prepare Report

At the end of this phase, a written report should be prepared to communicate the methods and results of the needs assessment to decision-makers, policymakers, and key stakeholders. The report should include:

Description of the needs assessment process; Major outcomes (identified needs); Priority Needs (and criteria used to determine such priorities); Action Plan (with the data and criteria used to arrive at the solution strategies); and Recommendations for future needs assessments.

The model concludes the Phases with the following summary;

- There is no one correct needs assessment model or procedure. The active use of a Needs Assessment Committee is one important method for obtaining expert advice and gaining commitment to the process and using the results.
- Make sure needs focus on desired outcomes and are listed as the gaps between “what is” and “what should be.”
- Before you gather data, spend the time to investigate what is known about the needs of the target group—to identify all of the concerns.
- Develop measurable need indicators to guide your data collection process.
- Perform a causal analysis—Ask “why” does this need still exist? To solve a problem, planners must understand it first.
- Share information with decision makers, policymakers, and stakeholders throughout the needs assessment process. Frequent communication with these groups is important for the “buy in” needed to use the needs assessment results.
- Document the research base for potential solutions.
- Prepare a written report that describes the methods and results of the needs assessment.

Leu and Ginsburg (2011) put forward that in planning for a comprehensive in-service teacher professional development, it is important that teachers, school administrators, supervisors, and pre-service teacher educators be involved in the planning of both the structure and the content of in-service programmes so that their and their students’ needs are addressed. In particular, teacher involvement and the inclusion of classroom realities in programme design promote teachers’ ownership of

and support for the programmes. The observed further that the inclusion of staff from institutions offering pre-service programs in planning in-service programs helps provide the continuity and also brings teacher educators closer to the realities of schools and teachers, of which they sometimes have limited understanding. School administrators and regional or district officers responsible for supervising, supporting, and evaluating teachers should also be part of programme planning to enhance their knowledge of the programmes for which they are responsible and in which they play a key role.

According to Louw, (1999), needs assessment examines the population that the programme intends to target, to see whether the need as conceptualised in the program actually exists in the population; whether it is, in fact, a problem; and if so, how it might best be dealt with. This includes identifying and diagnosing the actual problem the programme is trying to address, who or what is affected by the problem, how widespread the problem is, and what are the measurable effects that are caused by the problem.

Training programmes are geared towards improving teaching effectiveness and consequently improving students' performance. Thus, a programme evaluator may want to find out which techniques, methods, values, attitudes and practices in teaching require attention. Potter (2006) cautions against doing an intervention without properly assessing the need for one. This, he observes, might result in a great deal of wasted funds if the need did not exist or was misconceived.

According to Marrant (1981), the starting point for any in-service education and training is aimed at meeting teachers' professional needs. He has therefore identified four of such needs. These include:

Induction Needs: Many times during the teacher's career he/she will have to embark on new and unfamiliar duties relating to a new position to which he/she has just been appointed. The first may be when the new teacher having left college or university starts work in a new school or community. Sometimes it could involve moving from one school to another, promotion to head of department, deputy head or head teacher, are examples. This teacher is bound to be faced with problems arising from inexperience or lack of confidence or at worst, sheer ignorance of what the task entails. The teacher will demonstrate experience that will require the needs for induction. This has to be dealt with from the day of appointment. Intentionally, this training will be professionally practical in their aims. Much of this form of in-service education depends on informal advice given in respect of a specific task, which may be by short intensive formally organised courses in or out of school;

Extension Needs: In this situation, according to Marrant (1981), the teacher may need to widen his or her professional horizons. For example, a teacher in the middle of his career as head of department might want to obtain a better grip of curriculum theory or expertise in the principles of school management. Such a teacher is experiencing an extension need. To meet such needs, as extension needs, in-service programme should be organized in such a way that, activities of the training would widen the teachers' knowledge or experience through the furthering of one's education at the university or any higher form of education;

Refreshment Needs: Majority of teachers from time to time need to be refreshed. Teachers who after a period away from class need to update themselves on teaching a particular subject. Teachers who for one reason or another have not taught a subject for which they were originally trained or those who have occupied the same

post for a long time need to be refreshed. In Marrant (1981) view, teachers re-entering the profession after a break in service and for the teachers to re-familiarizing themselves with the methodology of a subject or handling a particular age group need probably short and intensive periods of in-service education and training; and

Conversion needs: Marrant (1981) further indicates that teachers due to transfer to entirely different jobs in schools if they have received previous preparation for the new work may experience conversion needs. When a teacher initially trained for primary school is moved into secondary school or when a history specialist is requested to teach a shortage subject such as Mathematics in the same school may experience what is called 'lateral conversion need'. Also, when a teacher is promoted to assume more weighty responsibilities or experiences as period of anti-appointment to a dissimilar kind of post may experience what can be described as 'vertical conversion needs'.

Marrant concludes by arguing that to convert laterally, teachers have to acquire a whole body of academic knowledge as well as its accompanying methodology. In contrast, to meet vertical conversion needs, in-service training will tend to have task created and preparatory function aimed to provide the potential appointee with skills, techniques and knowledge of doing a new type of promoted job for retirement. Rebores (1982), argues that in the process of assessing teachers professional needs, the following can be of considerable help. The teacher needs assessment survey has to be very effective. Most surveys take the form of a checklist containing many areas of possible needs and interests;

Source of information is the community survey, which is administered to parents, usually through a school based organisation such as Parent Teacher

Association (PTA). This community survey may reveal concerns about a wide range of issues such as grading, student groupings, discipline and drugs used by students. As certification requirements vary from state to state and school to school, the director of staff development needs to keep all teachers informed about their requirement and plan appropriate courses for them.

According to Rebore (1982) another source of information is curricula research. Staff development programmes can be planned to correlate with future curriculum changes. Staff development is regarded as an initiative that aims at supporting staff in the work they do. Sadtu (as in Conco, 2004) suggests that there should be a professional development plan for teachers that concentrate on community outreach, notably community participation, influencing community opinions, and development and advocacy work. These skills ought to be useful throughout teachers' working lives and should be taught from the moment they take up employment, as a team as well as an individual endeavour.

Swanepoel and Erasmus, (2000) explain that Staff development should result in the following:

- Improve the standard of performance of employees, once their training needs have been identified;
- Prepare them for future positions; and
- Help the individual to make better decisions and increase job satisfaction

Giving the above outcomes, it becomes clear that staff development can raise teachers' performance levels and prepare the individual for change in the organisation (Conco, 2004).

Staff Development Programmes; Writing on staff development programmes, Rebore (1982) states that as an organisation, a school needs well qualified administrators, teachers and other personnel to accomplish its mission. As job requirement within a school become more complex, the importance of staff development or continuous learning increases. It is literally very difficult if not impossible today for any teacher to enter the profession and remain in it for more than 40 years with his skills basically unchanged. Therefore, staff development or continuous learning programmes are not only desirable but also an activity to which each school system must commit human and financial resources if it is to maintain a skilled and knowledgeable staff.

Commenting further, Rebore (1982) argues that the last decade has seen a myriad of research on staff development. As a consequence of this research, many models have been suggested. These include, programme for effective teaching (PET); readiness, planning, training, implementation and maintenance (RPTIM); and staff development for school improvement (SDSI). A common thread connecting all these models is the goal of producing effective instruction through clinical supervision.

The National Education Association Division, according to Rebore (1982), has come up with 19 methods used in programme delivery: Classes and courses, institutes, conferences, workshops, staff meetings, committee work, professional reading, individual conferences, field trips, travels, camping, work experience, teacher exchange, research, professional writing, professional association work, cultural experiences, visits and demonstrations, and community organisation works.

Rebore (1982) adds that individualised programmes are one alternative to the traditional programmes design models. These allow the individual maximum

creativity in matching personal interest and needs to the goal and objectives of the school. Teachers who engage in personalised activities usually improve their teaching skills.

In line with Rebore's (1982) assertion, Rachel (2004) offers guide lines and recommendations for professional development and in-service training. According to Rachel, the goal of in-service and staff development, historically, has always been to improve weak areas of practice. In recent times, there has been a shift to a developmental model that emphasises growth and collegiality. This model prepares teachers to participate in decision-making and advance professionally. Rachel offers a variety of in-service approaches to assist teachers in developing their practice and professionalism. Some of the in-service programmes include hand-on participatory activities, mentoring, collaborative learning, training teams, individualised training, goal-setting, and follow-up training.

Rebore (1982) elaborates that staff development programme centers around creating instructional learning situations. First, a certain amount of planning must precede the instructional learning situation in order to determine the most appropriate learning structure for the subject matter that will be taught. For example, a staff development programme designed to help teachers construct metric system materials for classroom use should be preceded by explaining the metric system to teachers who are not proficient with the system.

Secondly, Rebore (1982) says the environment of learning must be effectively managed. A comfortable and simulating environment certainly enhances learning and especially for adult teachers learners. These programmes should be scheduled on days when the school is not in session or provide teachers with released time from their

regular duties so that they can attend during the working day. Rebores continues that the instruction must have some practical application for the adult learner. They must be sure that the material can help them in their work. That learning rarely takes place at a constant rate rather it fluctuates according to the difficulty of the subject matter or skill to be learned and the ability of the learner.

Summing up, Rebores (1982) indicates that INSET programmes are an organic process that will continually change to meet the needs of individual staff members and needs of the school district. All the same, the success of any staff development programme depends on the commitment of each individual with each level of the school district.

Ryan and Cooper (1984) have also argued that group study is another common mode of continuing learning for the teacher. Ryan and Cooper further state that one other method of continuing learning comes through supervision. School districts provide teachers with professional advice in what amount to one to-one help. Although supervision can sometimes be quite threatening, particularly to non-tenured teachers, it offers an opportunity to obtain valuable information about one's techniques and skills.

According to Albert (1977), a glance at some of the offerings from in-service programmes in a number of schools systems reveals not only the variety of topics but also reflects the increasing practice of surveying the interests of individual teachers for their preference. Some of the self-development opportunities include contract learning, utilising media in classroom, community participation in school concerns, and project CARE – Cooperative Action to Restore our Environment.

Purpose of INSET and impact on attitude and beliefs of teachers

Teaching is a field that is dynamic, with innovations, necessitating up-grading of skills and education of teachers for the successful implementation of reforms. The behaviour and attitudes of teachers towards teaching and learning and their knowledge banks are the result of the impact of in-service training (Ramatlapana, 2009). The Ministry of Education (MOE, 2002), indicates that the programmes of INSET offered by the MOE have sought to serve the following purposes:

- Provide professional and academic training for pupil teachers in the Primary and Junior High Schools;
- Provide briefing courses for newly promoted or newly appointed professional officers of the ministry;
- Provide refresher courses for teachers and tutors at the Secondary School and Teacher Training College level;
- Expose teachers at all levels of pre-university education to new methods, approaches and techniques of teaching;
- Assist teachers in the preparation and use of audio-visual aids;
- Provide opportunities for heads of institutions, tutors and teachers to meet to discuss professional matters related to their levels of teaching;
- Assist teachers to meet specific challenges or demands brought along by curricular innovation, resulting from changed situations or educational reforms;
- Keep abreast of societal demands. In this ever changing society, teachers need to understand and interpret the new demands society is placing on all its institutions and on the school in particular;
- Help teachers to develop and evaluate curriculum materials; and

- Provide opportunities for professionals to socialise in order to share ideas about their work.

The speed, nature and scope of the changes taking place around us have been coupled with a radical re-orientation of the function, organisation and character of work, the easy, stereotypical and prescriptive solutions of yesterday will not fit tomorrow's situation. In this regard, In-service education and training is now considered as an integral part of teacher education and professional development. Educational authorities seem to agree that increasing standards for pre-service education of teachers will not necessarily lessen or eliminate the need for continued in-service preparation and professional growth.

Teachers, like other professional such as doctors and lawyers, must continue with their education after their graduation through in-service education and training. This is because all professional people must strive to acquire, on continuous basis, new ideas, skills and attitudes to enhance their competencies and productivity and to effectively cope with the inevitable changes that occur in the world of work. So the success of general education programmes in the years immediately ahead depends upon the adequacy of provisions for the in-service education and training of staff members.

In 1975, a document of UNESCO (as cited in Greenland, 1983) argues that, if education is to meet the demands of our time and of the coming decades, the organisation content and methods of teacher education must be constantly improved by searching for new educational strategies and concepts.

In view of the continuous innovation and development of general and pedagogical knowledge, and of the constant change taking place in education systems

and the increasingly creative character of pedagogical activities, it does not seem possible to equip the student teacher with knowledge and skills which would be sufficient for his whole professional life. Hence, a comprehensive policy is needed to ensure that teacher education is recognised as a continuous coordinated process which begins with pre-service preparation and continues throughout the teachers' professional career. In such a system, pre-service and in-service education should be integrated, fostering the concept of lifelong learning and the need for recurrent education (UNESCO, 1975).

Rebore (1982) has found out that staff development or in-service education can offer the teacher the opportunity to update the skills and knowledge in a subject area. The knowledge explosion has created the need to reinterpret and restructure former knowledge in a subject area. A teacher can no longer assume, on the basis of past learning, that he understands all the nuances of a subject area. Commenting on the importance of in-service education and training to teachers, Albert (1977) says an increasing common practice is to get teachers ready for changes and to give them the opportunity to make changes. In other words "Credit" is given as incentives which usually apply to the periods teachers are supposed to earn in five-year period for promotions and salary increases. Albert (1977) stresses that the system-wide in-service programme is for individual information which ranges from general cultural growth to specific how-to-do-it in a certain teaching situation. Most successful in-service programmes showed that by providing teachers with what they want, brings security, which will allow a base for these changes.

Adentwi (2000) asserts that in-service education and training programmes are usually supplementary to the initial training that the teacher has received at college.

According to him, this is to keep the teacher abreast with new ideas, new ways of doing things and changes taking place on the educational front. According to Marrant (1981), INSET aims at widening and deepening teachers' knowledge, understanding and expertise including skills, techniques and powers of judgment in respect of their professional work by means of activities designed to attain this purpose.

Challenges to INSET of teachers

Organisations provide training to those who are most likely to benefit from it. Individuals prefer to be trained in things that interest them and in which they can improve. Educational authorities also seem to agree that increasing standards for pre-service education of teachers will not necessarily lessen the need for continued in-service preparation and professional growth. There is however, a number of problems militating against effective and efficient organisation of INSET programmes.

Firstly, Marrant (1981) indicates that the starting point for any in-service education and training is aimed at meeting the teacher's professional needs. In addition, because education is an inherently difficult and complex process and circumstances are constantly changing, problems will inevitably arise in individual schools and class rooms. These problems are best diagnosed by the teachers most closely concerned because only they know the students and the context sufficiently well. INSET activities should therefore be closely geared to the study and solution of these problems.

Newton (1988) observes that there are too often a mismatch between the needs of teachers and the content of courses. That is whether personal needs or those arising from the school context in which they are working. Such mismatch arises partly from inadequate analysis or understanding of the problem by course organisers, partly from

inadequate description of course content and partly from the unsystematic way in which teachers select courses. It also arises partly from the heterogeneous course membership. Newton continues that even when a mismatch does not occur, and a course is of potential value to the participants, they are often unable to utilise new knowledge and skills acquired on the course because they are unable to influence what is happening in their schools, whether for reasons of status, lack of resources, lack of appropriate feedback mechanisms from the course to the schools or a combination of some of these.

The decision about what approach to take for training depends on several factors including the amount of funding available for training. Cascio, (1992) indicates that self-directed informal training can be very low-cost; however, the learner should have the capability and motivation to pursue his own training. Furthermore, other-directed, formal training are typically more expensive but are often the most reliable to use for learners to achieve the desired knowledge and skills in a timely fashion. In line with this, Greenland (1983) indicates that several INSET programmes rely, at least in part, on overseas funding which may be forfeited if the donors' time-scale is not adhered to. To Bamberger (2004), INSET challenges may relate to budget constraints, time constraints, and data constraints. It can be said that financing INSET programmes has proven to be one of the major problems.

Budget Constraints

Many programs are faced with budget constraints because most original projects do not include a budget to conduct an evaluation (Bamberger, 2000). Therefore, this automatically results in evaluations of teacher training assessment programmes being allocated smaller budgets that are inadequate for a rigorous

evaluation. Due to the budget constraints it might be difficult to effectively apply the most appropriate methodological instruments. These constraints may consequently affect the time available in which to do the evaluation (Bamberger, 2000). Budget constraints may be addressed by simplifying the evaluation design, revising the sample size, exploring economic data collection methods, such as using volunteers to collect data, shortening surveys, or using focus groups and key informants or looking for reliable secondary data.

Time Constraints

When the organiser is not given adequate time to plan the evaluation process time constraint may be significant. For example, Berk (2005) suggests a hypothetical situation an organiser is summoned to conduct an evaluation when the project is already underway. Time constraints are particularly problematic when the organiser is not familiar with the programme being undertaken (Bamberger, 2000). Time constraints can be addressed by the methods listed under budget constraints as above, and also by careful planning to ensure effective data collection and analysis within the limited time space.

Data Constraints

If the evaluation is initiated late in the programme, there may be no baseline data on the conditions of the target group before the intervention began (Bamberger, 2000). Another possible cause of data constraints is the subjectivity inherent in some data collection tools. The data is likely to be less accurate. Another source of data constraints may result if the for example, peers used in a review know little about the objectives of the programme and how the teacher is to manifest the desired changes.

Rossi et al. (2004) assert that data constraints can be addressed by reconstructing baseline data from secondary data or through the use of multiple methods. Multiple methods, such as the combination of qualitative and quantitative data can increase validity through triangulation and save time and money. Additionally, these constraints may be dealt with through careful planning and consultation with program stakeholders. By clearly identifying and understanding client needs ahead of the evaluation, costs and time of the evaluative process can be streamlined and reduced, while still maintaining credibility. Bamberger (2000) concludes that time, monetary and data constraints can have negative implications on the validity, reliability and transferability of the evaluation.

Strategies to make INSET programmes effective and relevant

The Ministry of Education (MOE, 2000), states that INSET has assumed increasing importance in the work of the MOE during the 1960's. The recognition of the increasing need for co-ordination and effective planning were instrumental in the appointment of a full time INSET officer with responsibility for coordination and administration of courses by the MOE before 1968-69.

An INSET review committee was established as part of the inspectorate. In November, 1970 the INSET officer was designated chief organiser of courses with the following duties now integrated with the functions of the curriculum;

- Co-ordinate the work of the various groups within the MOE concerned with INSET;
- Act as liaison between the Ministry and Bodies outside the Ministry involved in INSET;

- Ensure that new concepts and techniques incorporated into nationwide courses are cleared with the chief Education Officer;
- Process overseas awards for the training of course organizers for the approval of the minister;
- Examine the personnel needs of the various subject organizing units and to recommend how such needs could be met; and
- Be responsible for preparing annual programmes, budgeting and disbursement of funds for courses.

Models of Training Effectiveness

Measuring training effectiveness is a tough task. It brings out the outcome of a training programme. Lots of work has been done on training effectiveness but Kirkpatrick (1976) being the pioneer explains the four level method of training evaluation. Level-1 is reactions criteria, and it evaluates trainees' affective and attitudinal reactions to a training programme. It assesses the responses of trainees' attitude about a specific training programme. Level-2 is learning criteria, which evaluates the extent to which trainees have learned the training material and acquired knowledge from a training programme. It brings out the outcome of a training programme; that is, what its effects are on trainees. Level-3 is behaviour criteria and it evaluates the extent to which trainees have applied the training in terms of their behaviour and/or performance following a training programme. Level-4 is results criteria, which evaluates the extent to which the training programme has enhanced department or organizational-level outcomes such as sales or profits. Fourth level is about how a training programme improves organizational effectiveness. Noe (1986) summarises Kirkpatrick's model along with the model of training motivation. As

trainees will be more motivated to perform well in training if they perceive that (1) high effort will lead to high performance in training, (2) high performance in training will lead to high job performance, and (3) high job performance is instrumental in obtaining desired outcomes and avoiding undesirable outcomes. Noe's model is basically all about the motivation because motivation itself is an immense factor which affects the performance as well as training outcome. In the same order, Swanson and Sleezer (1987) explain three steps of measuring training effectiveness; the first is effectiveness evaluation plan, the second, tools for measuring training effectiveness and finally the evaluation report.

According to Shepherd (1999), criteria for measuring the success of training encompasses direct cost, indirect cost, efficiency, performance to schedule, reactions, learning, behaviour change and performance change. On the other hand, Zaciewski (2001) examines those employee individual characteristics such as motivation, attitude, and basic ability which affect a training programme and its potential success in hospital industry. The work environment is also a major factor for making successful training programme. Burke & Baldwin (1999) dwell upon the transfer of training and viewed that it could be enhanced by using real-world organizational problems. Case study method or live problem or project assignment could be used to enhance the transfer of training. Dahiya and Jha (2011) discuss steps in the training programme development and planning, programme implementation and programme evaluation and follow-up. According to them, a training programme is not complete until and unless methods and results have been evaluated.

Factors Affecting Training Effectiveness

There are many factors that influence the effectiveness of training and development in an organization. One factor, that is, the human resource policy of training and development has been identified by Haywood (1992). He mentions that too many training programmes (namely learning, skill development and behavioral change) place emphasis on ease and the purpose behind the design of programme. This has defeated the original purpose and goals of training. Everything is affected by its surrounding weather directly or indirectly and similarly training effectiveness is also affected by many factors. Birdi (2005) finds out that poor managerial support or an unfavourable departmental climate could limit the impact of creativity training with regard to influencing idea implementation. Unfavourable environment affects the training effectiveness. According to him, training will be affected negatively if there is less support from department or there is unfavourable condition for training. Fischer (2011) states that open-mindedness is also a significant moderator of training effectiveness. It has been found out according to Driskell (2011) that, training becomes more successful if the participants and trainer work with open-mindedness. He observes further that in his study that, the type of training implemented, training content and trainee expertise also affect the training outcomes. He therefore concludes that the success of a training programme always depends on how the training was given, what the content was and who the trainer was. Haslinda and Mahyuddin (2009) find out that lack of support from top management and peers, employees' individual attitudes, job related factors and also the deficiencies in training practice are the main factors which affect the effectiveness of training. If there will be less support from top management and peers, it means job is not going on well or somehow there is a

problem in the job and the absence of training practice will mean there is less chance of effective training programme.

Beigi and Shirmohammadi (2011) in their quest observe that emotional training has significant impact on service quality. There is thus, a relationship between behaviour and learning and service industry can benefit from emotional training because service industry is basically related to marketing and verbal communication. Saks and Haccoun (2007) discuss that psychological states of trainees especially motivation, self-efficacy, perceived control and the realities of the organisational context affect the training outcomes. Tai (2006) also concludes on general self-efficacy that, it partially arbitrates the relationship between training framing and training motivation and consequently influences training outcomes. Meanwhile, Black & Mendenhall (1990) explain cross-cultural skill development, adjustment and performance are three primary dependent variables of cross-culture training effectiveness.

Training Motivation

Motivation is one main factor which affects training effectiveness. There are many studies which have been conducted on training motivation. Like Steers & Porter (1975) discover that motivation is the strength that influences enthusiasm of a programme, a stimulus that directs participants to learn and attempt to master the content of the programme and a force that influences the use of newly acquired knowledge in a training situation. Tabassi, *et al.* (2012) also observes the relationship between training and motivation. They explain that training and motivation can sustain or increase employees' current productivity and it can influence the willingness of an employee to follow the training programme, to exert more energy

towards the programme and to transfer what is learnt onto the job. Bumpass (1990) equally states that employees' attitude and motivation are one of the factors that might influence the effectiveness of training and development. He explains further that if the employees are fully motivated towards a training programme, a positive attitude would be exhibited and the training programme is highly likely to be successful. Similarly, Tracey, *et al.* (1995) in their study find that motivation, attitude, and basic ability affect a training programme's potential success. On their part, Colquitt, *et al.* (2000) identify that the locus of control, conscientiousness, anxiety, age, cognitive ability, self-efficacy, valence, job involvement are the predictors of training motivation. He continues they are pivotal to training motivation. Arguing further, Sahinidis and Bouris (2008) explain that there is a strong relationship between employee perceived training effectiveness and motivation, job satisfaction and commitment. Tsai and Tai (2003) also observe that employees have more training motivation when they are appointed to attend training programme by management than when they make the choice voluntarily. It therefore, indicates that employee's motivation about training programme is directly related to their attitude.

The Concept of Motivation

Organisations today have realised the importance and the concept of motivation and the role it plays in achieving organisational objectives. Motivation has provided a way for employers to increase employee work performance and commitment to the organisation without spending a lot of resources on their employees. This is particularly true because the cost of motivating employee to retain with an organization is noted to be far lower than switching cost and searching cost.

Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) noted that the term motivation is derived from the latin word 'movere' which means "to move" and they define motivation as 'those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed'. Gering and Conner (2002: 126) define motivation as "The force within us that arouses, directs and sustains our behaviour". Ettore (1997) supports the above definitions and states that motivation is the process of arousing, directing and maintaining behaviour towards a goal.

Robbins (1993) stated that, motivation is the willingness to exert high level of effort towards organisational goals, conditioned by the effort and ability to satisfy some individual needs. De Cenzo and Robbin (1996) provided a model to explain the process of motivation that is, Employee Organisational effort exerted → goals achieved → Individual needs satisfied. Process of motivation model shows that employee's effort leads to achievement of organisational goals with resultant satisfaction of individual needs. However, they could be motivated to perform even better if they received rewards such as special bonus awards, or extra time off from work for their superior performances. Armstrong (1999) explains that motivation can take place in two ways. One is an intrinsic motivation which is self-generated and influences people to behave in a particular way. Intrinsic motivation is internal and includes the feeling that work is important and therefore motivates a person to perform. Extrinsic motivation on the other hand, is brought about by external factors which include praises, promotion, pay and punishment.

Two dimensional phases of motivation have been identified here to explain that one source of motivation could be from the job content that is generated from within the individual worker and the other could also be from external conditions

others (such as management) can provide to arouse motivation for employees to wish to enhance their attitude towards work.

Contributing to literature, Vandenberg (2007) also described motivation as “those psychological processes that cause the arousal, direction and persistence of voluntary actions that are goal directed”. On their part, Wagner and Hill, (2008) define motivation as the desire within a person causing that person to act. They contend that people act for one reason: to reach a goal. Motivation is, therefore, a goal directed drive and seldom occurs in a void. Similarly, McBey and Karakowsky, (2000) define motivation as the term used to describe the forces that cause the person to behave in a specific, goal-directed manner.

Isen and Reeve (2005) explained motivation as a process by which the individual is activated or energized to produce specific activity. Maertz, Stevens and Campion (2003) have added their voice to an understanding of motivation and described motivation as that which energizes, directs and sustains behaviour. They explain it further with emphasis on the degree and type of effort that an individual exhibits in a behavioural situation that should not be equated to sheer amount of effort. It is rather, the direction and quality of that effort.

Cole (1998:73) introduces the element of choice. According to him, “motivation is a process in which people choose between alternative forms of behaviour in order to achieve personal goals”. His definition presupposes the absence of operating instinctive or reflex behaviour but individual choice. The exercise of an individual's choice is not a mere rational process but is considerably affected by one's emotions and deeply held values.

The motivation of a person depends on the strength of the person's motives. Motives are needs, wants, drives or impulses within an individual. According to Jurkiewicz and Massey (1998) they are the "whys" of behaviour they arouse and maintain activity and determine the general direction of the behaviour of an individual. When drives are aroused, motivated individuals sustain their efforts over extended period of time, whereas unmotivated individuals lose interest and energy rapidly. Motivation through a personal experience, engages managers' keen attention at finding reliable links between individual motivation and effective performance and thus works at creating the conditions necessary for such personal and organizational goals to be harmonized and accomplished, (Cole, 1998).

From whichever source employees get motivated, the above discussions portray that management of organizations should be the principal agent of employee motivation. This is because they manipulate the job content and context and directly account for the success of the organizations which could be enhanced through high employee performance and retention to ensure future progression.

- **Teacher Motivation**

According to Bennell (2004), work motivation refers to the psychological processes that influence individual behaviour with respect to the attainment of workplace goals and tasks. However, measuring the determinants and consequences of work motivation is complex because these psychological processes are not directly observable and there are numerous organizational and environmental obstacles that can affect goal attainment. There are two key inter-related aspects of motivation – 'will-do' and 'can-do'. 'Will-do' motivation refers to the extent to which an individual has adopted the organisations goals and objectives. 'Can-do' motivation,

on the other hand, focuses on the factors that influence the capacity of individuals to realise organizational goals.

A teacher may be highly committed to the attainment of the school's learning goals, but may lack the necessary competencies to teach effectively, which ultimately becomes de-moralising and de-motivating. The received wisdom among occupational psychologists is that 'pay on its own does not increase motivation'. However, pecuniary motives are likely to be dominant among teachers in countries where pay and other material benefits are too low for individual and household survival needs to be met. "Only when these basic needs have been met is it possible for 'higher-order' needs, which are the bases of true job satisfaction, to be realised (Bennell, 2004). A key empirical research is therefore necessary to establish the extent of this problem.

There is a wide range of views about teacher motivation in Africa in general and Ghana in particular. However, there appear to be mounting concerns that unacceptably high proportions of teachers working in public school systems in many developing countries are poorly motivated due to a combination of low morale and job satisfaction, poor incentives, and inadequate controls and other behavioural sanctions. For example, the 2000 Education For All EFA Country Assessment for Pakistan notes that poor teacher motivation is a colossal problem, which is seriously compounded by political interference. It is widely asserted that low teacher motivation is reflected in deteriorating standards of professional conduct, including serious misbehaviour (in and outside of work), and poor professional performance. Teacher absenteeism is unacceptably high and rising, time on task is low and falling, and teaching practices are characterised by limited effort with heavy reliance on traditional teacher-centred practices. Teachers are devoting less and less time to extra-curricular activities, teaching preparation, and marking.

The 2004 World Development Report neatly summarises these concerns about teachers. Cases of malfeasance among teachers are distressingly present in many settings: teachers show up drunk, are physically abusive, or simply do nothing. This is not low-quality teaching - this is not teaching at all (World Bank, 2004).

The fact remains that very little robust evidence is presented to support these views and assertions concerning teacher motivation in developing countries. In the absence of adequate information, the incidence of poor teacher motivation and misbehaviour could well be seriously over-exaggerated mainly because of the pervasive negative stereotyping of teachers (especially by the media) in many countries. On the few occasions when teachers and school managers have been directly asked about teacher motivation, reported levels of morale have generally been quite high. As part of a study of the impact of the AIDS epidemic on education in Botswana, Malawi and Uganda, representative groups of primary and secondary school teachers were asked if they agreed with the statement that teacher morale at this school is high. Morale in Botswana and Uganda was reasonably good whereas there appears to be more cause for concern in Malawi, especially at primary schools (Bennell, Hyde & Swainson, 2002).

Another study on the impact of AIDS in Tanzania, Mozambique, Kenya and Uganda, noted that the morale among teachers is surprisingly high (Carr-Hill Chaudhury, Hammer, Kremer, Mularidharan, & Rogers, 2003).

Levels of Employee Motivation

According to research conducted by Mosley, Megginson, and Pietri (2001), there are three levels of employee motivations.

- a. The direction of an employee's behaviour. It relates to those behaviours which the individuals choose to perform.
- b. The level of effort. It refers to how hard the individual is willing to work on the behaviour.
- c. The level of persistence. It refers to the individual's willingness to behave despite obstacles. They found that management can make use of different tactics, strategies and policies to motivate employees in work settings, but different tactics, strategies and policies would have a different motivational impact on diverse people.

Jenkins (2012) conducted research and investigated what employees may seek from the work environment. Their discussion reviews some of employee-related concerns that can be found in the venue of strategies to employees' motivation.

- Employees are individuals that come from different backgrounds, they have different education with different experiences and their different family classes are all the factors in which their needs be located.
- The primary interest of employees is to satisfy their personal needs, ambitions, desires and goals.
- An employee wants to satisfy its basic needs, linked to survival and security concerns and desire to belong, to generate positive feelings from within and from others, and to be self-fulfilled.

d. Most employees want (1) fair and consistent company policies in matters affecting them; (2) management they can respect and trust; (3) adequate working relationships with managers and co-workers; (4) acceptable salaries and working environment; (5) appropriate job security assurance; (6) favourable job status.

e. The other important factors that can fulfil and motivate employees are: challenging work, work that yields a sense of personal accomplishment, expression of appreciation for good performance, increased responsibility and the chance to grow in the job, the feeling of importance and making a contribution to the organization, and participation in job-related matters that affect the employees.

Keeping morale high among workers is of fabulous benefit to any company, as content workers will be more likely to produce more results, take fewer days off, and remain loyal to the company. Job satisfaction is an essential factor that affects employees' initiative and enthusiasm. A lack of job satisfaction can lead to increased absenteeism and unnecessary turnover in the workplace. Job satisfaction increases the degree of happiness in the workplace, which leads to a positive work approach. A satisfied worker is creative, flexible, innovative, and loyal. Job satisfaction in general means the work force is motivated and committed to high quality performance. Improving the quality of working life will help employees to increase productivity (the quantity and quality of output per hour worked). The main finding of their research is that job satisfaction is based on effective management, communication, facilities, and benefits, including salaries, technologies, and future job directions.

- **The role of Motivation in Organisations**

In the increasingly competitive, rapidly changing world of business, a motivated workforce is a great asset. Motivated employees are more productive, committed and loyal to the organization, Motivation is key among the factors for effective performance and employee retention. Tosi and Hale (1994) indicate that performance is the result of ability and motivation of employees.

The success of an organization depends upon how it attracts, retains, motivates and develops its employees. Thus motivation and retention act as a catalyst in achieving Quality of work life and organizational efficiency. On one hand it helps to reduce job insecurity, stress, increasing job satisfaction, commitment and creating work life balance while on the other hand increasing organizational productivity and profitability.

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (1998) motivation is necessary, but not a sufficient contributor to job performance. Gering and Conner (2002) cite the example of the apartheid system in South Africa, which limited the opportunities of the vast majority of the South African people regardless of their motivation and competency. The majority of the South African population was simply never given the opportunity to achieve what they were capable of performing. Gering and Conner argue that effective performance is a factor of motivation, inherent ability, developed competence and opportunity.

Ability is based on education, experience and training and its improvement involves a long process. On the other hand, motivation can be improved quickly and immediately. Gering and Conner (2002) emphasises that an effective manager must understand employees and what motivates them, and that high levels of motivation are very important contributors to organisational performance. Highly motivated employees strive to produce at the highest possible level and they exert greater effort than employees who are not motivated. Gering and Conner add that the characteristics of motivated employees are: they always want to come to work; they want to be part of teams at work; they are interested in helping and supporting others at work; and they generally exert greater effort in their work and contribute more in the organisation.

Tosi and Hale (1994) note that the subject of motivation is of interest to psychologists and managers since it is a factor in organisational psychology and human behaviour. As a psychological concept, motivation refers to the internal mental state of a person, which relates to the initiation, direction, persistence, intensity and termination of behaviour.

- **The Nature of Motivation in the Public Service**

Public service motivation is popular among public management and public sector literature is increasing significantly (Maertz, Stevens, & Campion, 2003). Public sector management was defined in the early 1990s on the background of a strong research stream showing in particular that public employees behave differently from private ones (Buelens & Van den, 2007). These were founded in the desire to promote public values in a disinterested way (Maertz, Stevens, & Campion, 2003).

Public service management motives is guided by an intention to do good for others and shape the well-being of society (Maertz, Stevens, & Campion, 2003). They noted that these motives take root in diverse components that serve as guidelines for actions. In the eyes of sociologists, “altruism” is defined as the will to enact the fulfilment of the needs of others, or of a community instead of our own needs. For organizational behaviour scholars, the concept of ‘pro-social behaviour’ explains voluntary actions performed by an employee toward the welfare of individuals or groups without expecting a reward. It is important to mention that this kind of disinterested motivation is also found in economic analysis (Fehr & Fischbacher, 2003). The nature of motivation in the public sector can take in the following forms and which has significant influence on the employee tasked to perform a particular duty at a point in time. These indicate that in contrast to the Rational Choice

Perspective, individuals are not fully selfish, as they are able to put effort into an action without expecting to be directly and monetarily rewarded for it. In addition, these individuals seek jobs that benefit a larger entity than themselves.

Academics working on the disinterested and altruistic motivation of public employees used some national concepts to describe that particular commitment of civil servants to the public sphere. The will to endorse public motives has been defined from several perspectives according to its historical development and purposes. Perry's definition of public service as 'an individual's predisposition to respond to motives grounded basically or uniquely in public institutions and organisations (Maertz, Stevens, & Campion, 2003) responds to the authors will to facilitate the identification and recruitment of people expected to perform in the American public service. On the contrary, this individualistic, focused definition is now challenged by a more institutional one.

In an attempt to enlarge the scope of the definition and to bridge disciplinary gaps, Vandenabeele defined public service as "the belief, values and attitudes that go beyond self-interest and organizational interest, that concern the interest of a larger political entity and that motivate individuals to act accordingly whenever appropriate" (Vandenabeele, 2007). This definition of public service encompass other definitions of pro-social behaviour held in the public sphere, hence to deepen its links with the theory of motivation in terms of internal and/or external forces producing induction, the direction, the intensity and the persistence of behaviour.

This view overlooks the individual and focuses on the values framed by institutions. In the institutional theory of March and Olsen in 1989 as cited in Vandenabeele (2007), the behaviour of an individual is shaped either by a logic of

appropriateness that refers to “beliefs, paradigms, codes culture and or by a logic of consequence corresponding to the more rational anticipation of the results of an action. For the public service management theory, one can consider public service motivated behaviour to conform to a logic of appropriateness as it refers to the realization of certain institutional values rather than self-interest (Vandenabeele, 2007).

Having identified several motivational factors occurring particularly in the public sector Maertz, Stevens, and Campion (2003) first labelled the public service management concept and brought it to the academic community in their article “The Motivational Bases of Public Service”. In this article, three universal and analytical categories of motives – rational, normative, and affective apply to the public service. Consequently, the author suggested that six dimensions (attraction to policy making, commitment to the public interest, civic duty, social justice, compassion, self-sacrifice) of the public service management system.

Despite growth of research in recent years, many ambiguities, gaps and uncertainties remain in our understanding of Public Service Motivation (PSM). The two tracks of a research agenda on PSM can be identified (Perry & Hondeghem, 2008). The first track involves how the studies of other-regarding orientations in discipline outside public management and administration to close gaps in our knowledge about PSM and vice versa. Research on PSM raises general issues that are relevant for all disciplines dealing with motivation of employees in organizations. The important questions associated with this research track are: how do public motives interact with other motives, how can we account for individual differences, how stable or changeable is PSM and how is public motivation linked to related constructs?

Motivational Strategies and Approaches

Due to the complexities of employee motivation as regards the understanding, the tools, the approach, the need difference of workers and the purpose among others, management of institutions adopt different motivation strategies at different times. For the purpose of this study, motivation strategies being studied include; recognition, training and development, participative management, work environment and work load, effective communication, carrier development and promotion. Others include empowerment and compensation and financial packages.

- **Recognition of Employees' Good Work Done**

Robbins (2001) notes that recognising employees for the work done is one of the strategies organisations use to motivate employees. He adds that employee recognition programmes express appreciation and approval for a job well done and can be personalised to individuals or groups. Monthly or annual awards are organised for workers nominated by peers and management for extraordinary effort on the job. Recognition involves congratulating an employee in private for a job well done or sending a handwritten note, an email, or even voicemail to acknowledge positive things employees have done. Employees with a strong need for social acceptance; require the manager to publicly recognise accomplishment. To enhance group cohesiveness and motivation, the organisation can organise a team celebration for success attained. Robbins warns that, in the contemporary competitive situation where resources are increasingly becoming limited, lavish recognition programmes may not be favourable. However, one of the most well-known and widely used recognition methods is the use of suggestion systems.

- **Training and Development**

In today's competitive global market, Wan (2007) argues that the only strategy for organisations to improve workforce productivity radically and enhance retention is to seek to optimise their workforce through comprehensive training and development programmes. To accomplish this undertaking, organisations will have to invest vast resources to ensure that employees have the information, skills, and competencies they need to work effectively in a rapidly changing and complex work environment. Wan (2007) therefore suggests that it is important for organisations to invest in their human resource or human capital development, which, in general terms, is the process of helping employees become better at their tasks, their knowledge, their experiences, and add value to their lives. The main method of achieving this is through training, education, and development. Smith (1997) as cited in Wan (2007) defines training as "a planned process to modify attitudes, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities". (p. 298).

Training and development is also used by many organisations to enhance the motivation of their employees. The availability of training and development opportunities is a motivating factor for employees in the organisation. Gbadamosi (2002) indicates that the emphasis on training in recent years has led to many organizations investing substantial resources in employee training and development. The need for training has been precipitated by technological developments and organisational change and the realisation that success relies on the skills and abilities of the employees. This has also been underscored by the rise in human resource management with its emphasis on the importance of people and the skills they possess in enhancing organizational efficiency.

Gbadamosi (2002) adds that such human resource concepts as “commitment to the company” and the growth in “quality movements” has led senior management teams to realise the increased importance of training employees and developing a system of lifelong learning. Training needs are identified through gaps in skills and knowledge between current and desired performance. Development needs are based on gaps between the current performance and the performance required in future positions. Gbadamosi (2002) further notes that the methods used in training include: formal classroom training; on the job training; coaching; mentoring programmes; temporary assignments; shadow assignments; assignments to project teams for learning; and business management programmes. Graham and Bennett (1998) maintain that the benefits of training and development include greater job satisfaction on the part of employees which enhances motivation. The acquisition of new skills and knowledge and attitude through training enables the employee to perform more effectively. The positive feedback on good performance as a result of training motivates employees to work even better.

According to Carrel, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx and Van der Schyf (1998), training and development satisfies personal growth needs and gives employees a sense of achievement and motivation to face new challenges on the jobs. Meyer (2003) argues that there is a direct correlation between ability and motivation. He adds that empirical research has revealed that the higher the level of skills, the greater the level of motivation, and vice versa.

Training comes in different dimensions and can take the form of on or off- the job methods. On-the job (internal) training techniques include mentoring, self-learning, and attaching an employee to learn a new skill under a colleague or a superior. Organisations also organise in-house training for their employees where they

are specifically trained on the job requirements peculiar to the organisation. Off-the-job (external) training techniques include seminars, workshops, lectures, and case studies that are conducted outside the premises of the organisation. Many organisations encourage their employees to add value to themselves through acquisition of additional education by approving study leaves with or without pay or through part-time studies. Such programmes are usually conducted by institutions of higher learning. Thomas, Lashley and Eaglen (2000) reported that low levels of training give rise to high levels of employee turnover and that the provision of good training has a positive effect on employee retention.

- **Participative Management**

According to Robbins (1993) participative management has often been promoted as a panacea for high morale and high productivity. He states that participative management enables subordinates to share a significant degree of decision-making power with their superiors. This encompasses varied activities such as goal-setting, problem solving, direct-involvement in work decision-making, inclusion in consultation committees, representation on policy-making bodies and selection of new co-workers. Employee participation in management decision-making can influence both employee job satisfaction and performance by satisfying the need for socialisation and self-esteem.

When employees are involved in the decision-making process, they feel that the decisions made are their own and feel personally responsible for carrying them out. Gbadamosi (2002) explains that team-working is another employee involvement technique used widely in organisations. They emphasize that teams vary in size from seven to ten people or even more and require training to ensure that workers, team

leaders and managers have the requisite skills to enable them to function efficiently. From their studies, Torrington (2002) note that often times, management styles tend to be authoritarian with limited participation, delegation, and communication with respect to major school management functions. Teachers subjected to these types of management regimes feel like 'we are treated as children'. The extent to which teacher grievances are addressed is also a key issue.

- **Working Environment and Work Load**

Teachers working conditions play an important role in a school's ability to attract retain and motivate good teachers, hence a cause of teacher turnover. In relation to the above, Schwartz (1994) adds that those working conditions, which include physical and psychological factors surrounding a job, vary in importance as a motivator and the absence of such motivating factors, employees and in this case teachers will exit.

Motivation thrives in a good and safe working environment. A clean environment, which is free from health hazards, promotes motivation. A safe environment free from any danger will make employees secure. The organisations therefore ensure that employees have a congenial environment which enables them to perform. Maintaining a secure environment involves providing employees with job security. It is only when employees feel that their lives are safe and their jobs secure that they can concentrate and perform their tasks to the best of their abilities (Armstrong, 2006).

The heavy and demanding workload is viewed by teachers as a stressor. They do not have enough time to achieve the standards of teaching and learning that they desire (Latham & Locke, 2004; Harris, 2002). The situation worsened drastically

when teachers had to administer excessive and burdensome recording and recordkeeping in voluminous portfolios. It is hoped that if teachers' workload is reduced to manageable levels it could enhance enthusiasm in the fraternity and uplift levels of motivation and job satisfaction and retention.

The Education Roadmap of Ghana identifies a major improvement in teacher: learner ratios to be 35:1. However such figures predominate on paper only, as the geographic location of schools together with their socio-economic standing determine class size and teacher-learner ratios. The socio-economically advantaged schools in mainly urban and suburban areas used to have lower teacher- learner ratios but the tide has changed drastically. By comparison, rural and comparably disadvantaged schools have always had to struggle with larger class sizes of 45 and more learners. The challenges posed to teachers in such schools are often overwhelming and impact negatively on both teacher and students performance.

- **Effective Communication**

Effective communication channels are also used in organisations to enhance the motivation of employees. Nzuve (1999) defines communication as the “process by which information is intentionally or unintentionally exchanged between individuals. Specifically, it is the transfer and understanding of meaning”. Nzuve states that communication serves four major functions: control, emotional expression, information and motivation. Communication controls employees by directing them to follow their job descriptions and comply with company policies. Nzuve adds that communication within working groups is a fundamental mechanism by which members express their feelings, release their emotional expression and fulfil their social goals. Communication also facilitates decision making by gathering and

providing the information that individuals and groups need to make decisions. More importantly, communication fosters motivation in the organisation by clarifying to employees what is to be done, how it is to be done, and what can be done to improve performance in the organisation (Nzuve, 1999).

Armstrong (1999) observes that management uses communication to achieve three things in the organisation. First, to get employees to understand and accept what management proposes to do in areas that affect them. Secondly, to obtain the commitment of employees to the objectives, plans and values of the organisation. Thirdly, to help employees to appreciate more clearly the contribution they can make to organisational success and how it will benefit them. Graham and Bennett (1998) point out that from the psychological point of view, communications has an importance which goes beyond the transmission and reception of information.

- **Career Growth and Promotion Opportunities**

Career minded employees consider career growth and development as a crucial deciding factor in their decision to remain in an organisation or leave. Where career growth and development cannot be guaranteed, employees leave for alternative employment. Choo and Bowley (2007) argue that providing employees with internal job opportunities is a means of demonstrating that they can realise their career goals inside rather than outside of the organisation. Choo and Bowley (2007) further argue that career growth help employees to plan for the future and to be better equipped with the right skills in order to remain competitive. In a related literature, Agho (1998) stated that opportunities for mobility within organisations are determinants of employee satisfaction. As vacancies occur, employees must be given equal

opportunity and necessary encouragement to apply alongside external candidates for higher positions within the organisation.

When employees have the opportunity to be promoted, they tend to build their career life around the organisation because they know that they can achieve their career goals within the organisation and this can inform their decision to remain. Managers should also focus on helping employees progress in their career and encourage their professional development. Inexperienced young employees who are unable to get on with their jobs are likely to leave the organisation for another job which they consider offers better prospects. This would be a loss to the organisation as these young employees may have the potential to make significant contributions to the organisation in the long run.

An emerging concept in career development is the mentor-mentee system. Orpen (1997) defines mentoring “as the process whereby managers provide informal assistance and support to particular subordinates on an individual basis, to help them in their efforts to be successful within the organisation”. Successful professionals who have made their marks in their various careers are encouraged to adopt young and up-coming professionals as mentees in order to groom and help them build and achieve their career goals. This practice is common in some of the organisations that have been mentioned in the past as organisations of choice in South Africa. They include organisations like Accenture, Deloitte and Touche, Coronation Managers, Alexander Forbes and others. Young professionals are attached to more experienced managers who help them develop realistic career goals and motivate them through guidance, counselling as well as putting the mentees through the technical aspects of the job. Mentor–mentee development programmes foster good working and interpersonal relationships and motivate the mentee to remain with his/her mentor in the

organisation. These successful mentees eventually adopt the management styles of their mentors and this often leads to successful management succession.

- **Compensation and other Financial Packages**

The remark of Kinnear and Sutherland (2001) that employers should not be deceived that money doesn't matter in retention strategy any longer is very instructive. This remark emphasises the importance of money in attracting, motivating and retaining quality employees in the organisation. Locke (1980) reviewed four methods of motivating employees toward improved performance as money, goal-setting, participation in decision making, and job redesign. Locke (1980) found that money was overwhelmingly the most important motivator. Meudell and Rodham (1998) suggests that money can be considered to act as both a "scorecard" which enables employees to assess the value the organisation places on them in comparison to others, and as a medium of exchange in that an individual can purchase whatever he/she needs. However, a lot of controversies have surrounded the use of money as the utmost variable in employee motivation and retention. In a comparative analysis, organisational practitioners observe that in organisations experiencing turnover, compensation was the most common reason given for leaving.

However, in organisations with low turnover, compensation was not the reason for staying – instead, most employees stayed because of intrinsic reasons such as job satisfaction and good relationships with their managers and other employees. This suggests that the cause of dissatisfaction is not the same thing that determines satisfaction on the job. This assertion is consistent with both Herzberg's and Maslow's theories of motivation, which propose that compensation and other financial benefits satisfy only lower level needs, but motivation and satisfaction result from higher needs being met.

Amar (2004) argues that money has not remained as good a motivator as it was in the past. The efficiency of money as a motivator of skilled employees is quite low. Hays (1999) advises that if managers reward performance with only money, they will be losing the substance of retention because there are other more powerful ways of motivating quality employees and these include freedom and flexibility in the organisation. It can be argued that the use of money as a motivator in the skilled labour environment would depend on how it is deployed.

For employees to be effectively motivated, Karp, Sirias and Arnold (1999) propose that the bulk of rewards that organisations offer their employees should be expanded to include non-financial incentives. These incentives should include issues such as work/life benefits, training and development opportunities, promotion and autonomy. Birt, Wallis and Winternitz (2004) disclose that challenging and meaningful work, advancement opportunities, high manager integrity, and new opportunities/challenges rank among the highest variables that are considered important to the retention of talent. These are intrinsic rather than extrinsic factor thus supporting Herzberg's (1968) theory of motivation which states that motivation is internally-generated, and not externally-stimulated.

It is upon this distinction that Herzberg restated the utility of his earlier theory where he classified money as a dissatisfier. In their own argument, Saari and Judge (2004) as cited in Meudell and Rodham (1998) conclude that pay schemes produce only temporary compliance and are ineffective at producing long-term attitudinal and behavioural changes. They stressed further that rewards merely motivate individuals to seek more rewards and can undermine intrinsic interest in the job which is then perceived as being merely a means to an end an expensive and short-term motivator. Amar (2004) contends that the practice of using money to motivate performance and

redirect behaviour appears to have limited application in contemporary retention practice. However, while money cannot be totally discountenanced as a motivator, the attention of managers should be redirected at rewarding performance using commissions, performance bonuses, merit pay, incentive schemes, and others rather than raising salaries across the board. In designing retention programmes, managers should, therefore, identify the needs of individual employees and tailor a compensation package towards those needs rather than applying or imposing a package that will not be valued by employees no matter how costly it may appear.

Okino in the New Vision newspaper (2008), reported President Museveni of Uganda saying that the provision of houses to teachers was a major incentive to performance of teachers. According to Museveni, head teachers did not live near schools; thus spending a lot of time travelling to schools. On this note, Schalkwijk (2000) also cited this problem of residential accommodation in some of the countries of sub Saharan Africa. He noted that many primary school teachers were given small house allowance to cater for their residential accommodation which forced the teachers to reside in poor houses. On the other hand, Farrel (1993) also observed that teachers who fail to get institutional houses had to look for accommodation elsewhere; a situation which results into de-motivation of teachers to effectively perform at work.

A study on difference among levels of employees in terms of rewards was researched by Caryn and Carlson (2000) who observed that rewards such as sickness payment, contributory pension schemes, free life insurance and subsidized canteens are fairly evenly spread across all levels of employees. There have been complaints about the big teaching load of teachers.

- **Empowerment**

Empowerment is an approach of leadership that empowers subordinates as a main constituent of managerial and organizational effectiveness. It is a site to permit employees formulate decisions. Smith (1997) supported and said empowering is giving authority and liberating potentials of employees.

It is the study of internal organizations power and control which illustrated that the distribution of power and control enhances organizational effectiveness. Teacher empowerment and participation consists of contribution of the teacher in administration and decision making associated with policies, objectives and strategies of the institution. Smith (1997) continued the argument that the teachers' perspective of the goals, standards and political principles of their institutions positively and significantly related to teacher motivation and gratification towards work. Further, empowerment results in motivation, increased autonomy, amplifies the teacher's wisdom of self-efficacy and generates the urge to complete tasks. It is proposed that employee participation in decision-making procedures develop motivation and job satisfaction levels. This in effect generates energy in workplace to do their work efficiently and effectively (Torrington, 2002).

Teacher participative decision making is a set of planned procedures for systematizing individual sovereignty and autonomy in the perspective of sanction accountability and associated to system-wide control. Torrington, (2002) posited that empowerment directs to efficiency, effectiveness, innovativeness and as well boosts teacher gratification and motivation in the organization. It is further argued that empowerment encourages and grants people with responsibility and authority to act as it puts people in control of their own destinies.

Transfer of Training

Transfer of training is a major component in assessing whether or not a training programme has been effective. It is found that transfer of training generally refers to the use of trained knowledge and skills back on the job. Baldwin and Magjuka (1988) mention that for transfer to occur, “learned behavior must be generalized to the job context and maintained over a period of time on the job”. Similarly, Saks and Haccoun (2007) view training transfer as the generalisation of knowledge and skills learned in training on the job and the maintenance of acquired knowledge and skills over time. According to the transfer of training framework by Saks and Haccoun (2007), the transfer of training activities could be segregated into three phases which is before, during, and after training to facilitate and improve the transfer of training. They further explain that the trainer should conduct follow-up or booster sessions following a training programme.

Importance of Training Effectiveness

The aim of every training programme or staff development programme is geared towards developing participating individuals’ new skills or knowledge or improving upon acquired skills or knowledge. It is therefore paramount to put things in place to ensure that a training programme is effective.

Quesada, *et al.* (2011) in a study examine that Emotional Intelligence training of the leaders is a key aspect to the success of the companies. They posit that leaders are the success pillar of a company and their training is one of the most important things which should be considered. Leaders must be emotionally strong to take the right decisions at the right time. According to Kalemci (2005), training and developing human capital are tremendously important in the effective management

and maintenance of a skilled workforce. Training is one of the ways of improving organization's effectiveness. In order to implement right training methods, organisations should be aware of the training methods and their effectiveness.

According to Robotham (1995), trainers must have awareness and understanding of individual's style to achieve desired outcomes of training. Rama and Vaishnavi (2012) identify that to increase or maximize the effectiveness of a training programme, an organisation needs to use on going assessments to establish learning outcomes and link those outcomes to a performance plan. There should be running assessment of a training programme to get the best of it. In another study carried by Mat, *et al.* (2011) they also identify that training is effective in increase in the knowledge, skills and attitudes aspect of the students themselves after an industrial training programme. Not all, another study by Mooi (2010) on teacher education and effectiveness indicate that the participants' perception of the effectiveness of teacher training programme is very much dependent on research-based practices. Furthermore, Jayawarna, *et al.* (2007) observe that management development activities have positive impact on performance of manufacturing SMEs. Chen, *et al.* (2004) study the relationship between training and job behaviour and find that training may help employees to reduce their anxiety or frustration, come up with new work demands and develop their skills. To Santos (2003), determining training effectiveness is a complex process but training had many benefits. For most individuals, he continues, training increases confidence and self-efficacy, it improves competencies and skills and people recognise that they have been invested in.

The following summarises measuring training effectiveness models, factors effecting training and development, affecting training motivation and how to achieve training effectiveness.

Measuring training effectiveness models

- i. Krikpatrick's four level model of measuring training effectiveness
- ii. Noe's model of training motivation of measuring training effectiveness
- iii. Swanson and Slezzer's three step model of measuring training effectiveness

Factors affecting training motivation

- iv. Motivation
- v. Emotional intelligence
- vi. Managerial and peer group support
- vii. Employees individual attitude and job related factors
- viii. Open mindedness of trainer and trainees
- ix. Psychological stage of trainee
- x. Type of training implementation, content and expertise
- xi. Self-efficacy, perceived control and basic ability

Effects of training and development

- xii. Increase in knowledge and confidence
- xiii. Reduce anxiety
- xiv. Come up with new demands
- xv. Development in skill, attitude and behavior

How to achieve training effectiveness

- xvi. Awareness of training methods and models
- xvii. Emotional intelligence
- xviii. Awareness of individual learning style
- xix. Taken care of factors affecting training effectiveness

Organisations involved in providing INSET in Ghana

Adentwi and Baafi-Frimpong (2010) cites UNESCO who observes that two categories of organisations are involved in the sponsorship of INSET on the global scene. These organisations are classified as governmental and non-governmental. United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO), Council for Mutual Economic Assistance (CMEA), Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), International Labour Organisation (ILO) and Council of Europe are the governmental organisations. The non-governmental organisations include; Association for Training of European Teachers (ATET), International Council on Education for Teaching (ICET), World Confederation of the Teaching Profession (WCOTP), and International Federations of Teachers Unions.

However in Ghana, according to Tietaah (2011), in 2000, the Ministry of Education (MOE) policies and strategic plan for education sector, indicated that, groups within the MOE which have been carrying out INSET functions have been the curricular and courses branch at Accra, the inspectorate, District Education Officers and serving head teachers and lately the various subject organisers based at the regional and district offices, subject associations, the University of Cape Coast and the Ghana National Association of Teachers (GNAT). Other non-governmental organisations such as Care International, World Vision International Plan Ghana among others are now involved in INSET. He maintains that a variety of resource

people, according to the Ministry of Education (2000) policies and strategic plans for education sector, will also enhance a staff development programme. Among the most available and knowledgeable are teachers, senior staff members, college and university professors, professional consultants, teachers' organisation representatives and administrators.

In reviewing literature on organisations that provide INSET services in Ghana, Adentwi and Baafi-Frimpong (2010) cite Manu who mentions the following groups.

The Ghana Education Service (GES)

He observes that GES conducts INSET on the introduction of new curricula into schools. It conducts prescribed promotion courses to enable some category of teachers to qualify for promotion in fulfilment of the conditions of service of the GES. He maintains further that, it organises courses for newly trained officers of GES and also organizes conferences for administration personnel designed to introduce them to new educational policies and programmes. GES, Manu says, organises refresher courses for all categories of serving and administrative personnel designed to update their knowledge in identifiable areas.

The National Association of Teachers (GNAT)

Manu points out that GNAT organises courses to prepare teachers to pass promotion and interview examinations. It also organises book development workshops to train teachers in effective techniques for writing textbooks and other instructional materials. It also organises examination classes to help teachers upgrade their academic credentials. GNAT equally organises study circles for teachers to update their knowledge in professional issues and professional association matters.

Subject Associations

In their bid, they organise workshops to introduce teachers to new syllabus as well as workshops for reviewing existing syllabuses and teacher support materials to introduce needed changes or to introduce entirely new ones. They also organise workshops to introduce teachers to ideas coming into specific fields of study and to introduce members to new methods of teaching.

Other Providing Institutions

Other providing institutions are institutions whose academic staff and programmes have a clearly discernible identity with the teaching and professional growth of teachers. Some of these are the universities, the university colleges and institutes of higher learning, the Institute of Education, Cape Coast University, Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, Institute of Educational Development and Extension of University of Education, Winneba and teachers' centers. Most of the programmes run by these universities lead to the award of certificates, diplomas and masters in educational studies.

Evaluation of INSET

Training Evaluation Models and Frameworks

There is abundance of literature available on evaluation of training and development. Of all models, by far, the most widely used framework comes from Kirkpatrick (1976) as depicted in his work. Kirkpatrick's model is mostly applied by practitioners and organisations due to its ability to highlight evaluation criteria of training programmes. It follows the goal-based evaluation approach based on four measures and questions that translate into four levels of evaluation:

Level 1: Reaction: A measure of how trainers perceive the training programmes in terms of the subject, content, instruction and time schedule.

Question: Were the participants pleased with the programme?

Level 2: Learning: Assessment of whether trainees acquired knowledge, improved skills, or changed attitudes due to training intervention.

Question: What did the participants learn in the programme?

Level 3: Behaviour: Measurement of any behaviour change of trainees while on their job as a result of training programmes.

Question: Did the participants change their behaviour based on what was learned?

Level 4: Results: Measure of the impact of a training programme on the organization based on the change of participant's on-the-job behaviour.

Question: Did the change in behaviour positively affect the organisation? Kaufman and Keller (1994) expanded Kirkpatrick's model by modifying Kirkpatrick's level one reaction into resource and process along with adding a fifth level, societal outcomes. Their reason for the above was that Kirkpatrick's four levels evaluation aimed at evaluating training narrowly that could not meet today's needs and decision-making conditions of today's organizations. Under the systems approach, the most influential model includes the CIPP model: Context, Input, Process, Product (Galvin, 1983). Later, Bushnell (1990) proposed the IPO model using approach of Input, Process, Output, and Outcome. Warr et al. (1978) came with a CIRO model that argues that evaluation is a systematic process that is well-planned before a training programme, and is integrated throughout training. It incorporates training needs

identification into the evaluation process through a wider contextual analysis. Birkerhoff (1987) explained training as any instruction, formal or informal, provided to individuals to impart "skill, knowledge or attitude (SKA)," where the instruction may be in the form of interpersonal communication, computer assisted instruction, reading books and manuals, or other practice activities. Most recently, different methods have been pursued depicted as Formative Evaluation Approach. Its proponents include Holton (1996), Kariger et al. (1993), and Phillips (1996). Researchers have argued that formative evaluation approach is useful since it bridges the gap between evaluation and training design whereas traditional focus has been used mostly for evaluating training outcomes by using a summative approach.

A research was conducted by Rycus and Hughes (2000) on a Comprehensive, Competency-Based In-service Training (CCBIT) system which was developed to address child welfare training challenges. In discussing issues related to INSET evaluation and feedback, they identified formative and summative strategies for evaluating INSET programmes. They pointed out that formative evaluation assesses the quality and effectiveness of the training event itself. Participants are asked to evaluate the trainer's performance, including mastery of the topic; presentation and facilitation skills; ability to engage and involve the group; ability to relate training concepts to child welfare practice; ability to integrate concepts of culture; and use of time. They stated further that, participants are also asked to evaluate the relevance of the training to their jobs and skill levels, and how well the training addressed their identified learning needs. They maintain that, this data is compiled and used to monitor trainer performance, and to identify where coaching, technical assistance, or corrective action is needed. This evaluation data also informs needed changes in the curriculum or training methodologies.

Commenting on the summative strategy, they explained that, summative evaluations are designed to assess outcomes. They said that, outcomes of training can be objectively determined at several levels; the degree to which learners acquired new knowledge and skills; the degree to which training changed behavior on the job and the degree to which training impacted organizational outcomes. They also stated that a variety of evaluation methodologies are utilized, depending upon the criteria to be evaluated, the group to be sampled, and the level of depth and scope of the intended evaluation.

Summary

In the education sector, INSET is training designed for teachers who are already in professional practice. It is a lifelong process in which the teacher is constantly learning and adapting to the new challenges of his job by reading, attending courses and conferences on education. The need for INSET among others is to update the skills and knowledge of teachers, keep teachers abreast of societal demands, enable teachers become acquainted with research in the instructional process on new methods of teaching and become acquainted with the advances in instructional materials and equipment.

From the review of the literature, it has come to light that in-service education and training of teachers are basically to satisfy teacher's professional needs of induction, extension, refreshment and conversion. Most of the writers, for example, mentioned workshops, conferences, visits and demonstrations, field trips and professional readings, and writing as some of the methods of staff development programmes. The relevance of this literature review was to enable the researcher

relate how these views pertain to the study in the Kumasi Metropolis of Ashanti Region.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to assess the role INSET plays on the general performance of teachers in second cycle institutions in the Kumasi Metropolis of the Ashanti Region of Ghana. This chapter discusses the methodology employed for the study. The areas considered include the research design which is the description of the type of study as well as the rationale for the design. The other areas it covers are the philosophical underpinning, the description of the population used, sample size and sampling procedure, reliability and validity of the instruments, research instruments for the data collection, data collection procedure and the procedure for data analysis. Ethical considerations are also discussed in this chapter.

Research Design

Research design according to Creswell (2009) is the plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis. De Vaus (2001), refers to it as the overall strategy that is chosen to integrate the different components of a study in a coherent and logical way, thereby, ensuring a researcher effectively addresses the research problem. He continues that research design also constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, and analysis of data. Burns and Grove (2000) on their part also explain that research design is the blueprint for conducting a study that maximizes control over factors that could interfere with the validity of the findings.

The study employed the mixed method approach using descriptive survey and interview for data collection. Johnson and Turner (2003) have argued that the

fundamental principle of mixed methods research is that multiple kinds of data is collected with different strategies and methods in ways that reflect complementary strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses, allowing a mixed method study to provide insights not possible when only qualitative or quantitative data are collected. Put in another way Greene (2007) observes that mixed method research allows for the opportunity to compensate for inherent method weaknesses, capitalize on inherent method strengths, and offset inevitable method biases. He says further that while mixed methods research combines qualitative and quantitative methods in ways that draw on the strengths of both traditions of inquiry, it is a clear step away from the boundaries and practices of those traditions, especially those linked to quantitative methods. According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), mixed methods research is defined as the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study. Explaining further they assert that mixed methods research is also an attempt to legitimise the use of multiple approaches in answering research questions, rather than restricting or constraining researchers' choices. The mixed method of data collection adopted is to help augment the strength associated with both quantitative and qualitative paradigms whilst minimising the weaknesses associated with adopting any single approach.

Descriptive research according to Key (1997) is used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena to describe "what exists" with respect to variables or conditions in a situation. The methods involve range from the survey which describes the status quo, the correlation study which investigates the relationship between variables to developmental studies which seek to determine changes over time. A descriptive survey was adopted in order to be able to give a

vivid picture about the state of INSET programmes in the senior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis hoping to generalise the findings to other schools. Survey research is defined by Salaria (2012) as the method of research which concerns itself with the present phenomena in terms of conditions, practices, beliefs, processes, relationships or trends. Arthur (2012) observes that this method uses the logical method of inductive-deductive reasoning to arrive at generalisation. She also maintains that it often employs methods of randomisation so that error may be estimated when population characteristics are inferred from observation of samples. A cross-sectional survey was chosen over longitudinal approach because information was collected at one point in time but not over a period of time. The interview enabled the researcher to have a holistic view of the concept of INSET since all the issues could not be examined with quantitative data. The triangulation also served as a basis for cross validation of the results of the study.

The Philosophical Underpinning of the Study

Mixed Methods research has been established as a third methodological movement over the past twenty years, complementing the existing traditions of quantitative and qualitative movements (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). The term 'mixed methods' has come to be used to refer to the use of two or more methods in a research project yielding both qualitative and quantitative data (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Greene, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009).

Pragmatism is generally regarded as the philosophical partner for the Mixed Methods approach. It provides a set of assumptions about knowledge and enquiry that underpins the Mixed Method approach and which distinguishes the approach from

purely quantitative approaches that are based on a philosophy of (post) positivism and purely qualitative approaches that are based on a philosophy of interpretivism or constructivism (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Maxcy, 2003; Rallis & Rossman, 2003).

Pragmatism provides a basis for using mixed method approach as another option open to social researchers if they decide that neither quantitative nor qualitative research alone would provide adequate findings for the particular piece of research they have in mind (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007b; Johnson et al., 2007). Contrasting with this, there are times when pragmatism is treated as a new orthodoxy built on the belief that not only is it allowable to mix methods from different paradigms of research but it is also desirable to do so because good social research would almost inevitably require the use of both quantitative and qualitative research in order to provide an adequate answer (Rocco et al., 2003).

Population

According to Best and Kahn (2007), population is any group of individuals who have one or more characteristics in common that are of interest to the researcher. The population may be all the individuals of a particular type or a more restricted part of that group. In this study, the population comprised all teachers and school heads and officer in charge of INSET at the Metropolitan Educational Directorate. Currently, the total population of teachers of public senior high schools in the study area stands at 1907 in the 19 senior high schools. It was important to solicit the views of teachers because they are the direct beneficiaries of the in-service training. The opinions of the headmasters were necessary as it served as testimony to the education

and training teachers received. Similarly, it was important to source the views of the organisers of INSET in GES-Kumasi Metro to know the extent to which their involvement in the conduct of INSET in the Metropolis helps in increasing teacher performance.

Sampling Technique and Sample Size

A sample according to Agyedu, Donko and Obeng (2011) is a subset of the population and consists of individuals, objects or events that form part of the population. A sample is a representative of the population to the extent that it exhibits the same distribution of characteristics as the population (Arthur, 2012).

In order to sample a representative of the population sample, random sampling was adopted. This made it possible to eliminate sampling bias and to give every member of the target population equal opportunity to be sampled. With the 19 schools, simple random sampling, (lottery method) was used to sample 10 schools. All the public senior high schools were numbered from 1-19 according to the list collected from GES (Kumasi Metropolitan Office). These numbers were written on pieces of paper and put into a container. After every selection, the remaining ones were mixed up again for selection until the required number of 10 schools was selected. Yamene's (1967) formula for sampling was used to sample 273 from the total population of 1907 teachers in the public senior high schools in the metropolis. Ten (10) headmasters from the sampled ten (10) and one organiser of INSET programmes at the Kumasi Metropolitan Office were sampled using the purposive sampling method. Purposive sampling technique, also called judgment sampling, is

the deliberate choice of an informant due to the qualities the informant possesses (Lawrence et al, 2013).

Research Instruments

The instruments used in collecting data for the study were a questionnaire and a structured interview. The questionnaire was used for the teachers while the head masters of the sampled schools and an organiser of INSET programme at the Kumasi Metropolitan Office were interviewed with a structured guide.

Questionnaire Design

In a descriptive survey study of this nature, the use of structured questionnaire was most appropriate. Questionnaire is an inexpensive way to gather data from a potentially large number of respondents. Often, the use of questionnaire is the only feasible way to reach a number of participants large enough to allow statistical analysis of the results. A well-designed questionnaire that is used effectively can gather information (about people's opinions, perception, views, feelings) from a sample population that allows the researcher to make inferences about the population (Hannan & Hathaway, 2007; Creswell, 2009). However, the information yielded is subject to error and bias from a range of sources. Close attention to the issues of questionnaire design and administration was paid to reduce these errors in order to gather valid, reliable, and unbiased data. Specifically, the questionnaires were critically scrutinized by the thesis supervisor and pilot tested to establish their reliability and validity. The teachers' questionnaire type with five-point scale was used. The response options ranged from SA to SD ((SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neither agree nor disagree, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree).

The questionnaire was grouped into sections with the first two sections (A and B) gathering demographic and occupational information of teachers. The rest of the sections (C to G) solicited teachers' views on each research question. The first set of questions were based on the first research question which sought to find out what needs assessment practices are employed to identify areas of teachers work that need INSET. The second section found out the impact of INSET programmes on teachers' performance which is also in relation to the second research question and the third dealt with issues relating to how INSET programmes are evaluated. The last two sections gathered teachers views on problems that militate against INSET of teachers and what can be done to improve INSET programmes respectively.

Interview Protocol

According to Scott and Usher (1999), "Interviewing is an essential tool of the researcher in educational enquiry. Bell (1999) noted that, "The major advantage of the interview is its adaptability" (p. 133). The use of interview allows extensive opportunities for personalisation of responses, and opportunities for additional questioning especially for clarification.

This research utilised the semi structured individual method of interviewing. According to Wragg (2002), "A semi-structured interview schedule tends to be the one most favoured by educational researchers as it allows respondents to express themselves at length but offers enough shape to prevent aimless rambling" (p. 149). Semi structured interviews are thought to allow the participant to have greater control over the interview process and are more likely to give the researcher rich data and a

clearer understanding of the perspectives and realities of the participant (Wragg, 2002; Mutch, 2005; Creswell, 2009).

A five - item interview protocol was designed for both headteachers and organisers of INSET with a little variation on item four where headteachers were asked to give some problems they encounter when teachers are asked to attend INSET programmes and INSET organisers discussed the problems they encounter in organising INSET programmes.

Validity and Reliability

The accuracy of any research depends on the consistency of the instrument and procedure used in collecting data, hence the use of interviews and questionnaires, in collecting data for the research analysis. Face and content validity were both used to ensure that the instruments were valid. The instruments were scrutinized by my colleagues and my supervisor, an authority in the field of research to address issues concerning ambiguity and inconsistencies. The timing and questioning for the interview guide were well rehearsed. The final instruments were reviewed by my supervisor. The instrument was pretested in three schools outside the study population. This helped to assess the level of understanding of the instruments and to find out if they best answer the research questions. Cronbach's alpha was used to test the reliability of the instruments with Alpha value of 0.873.

Pre-testing of Research Instruments

After the questionnaire and interview protocol had been approved by the thesis supervisor, a pilot test was conducted in three of some Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis which were not used in the main study to further ensure that the

instruments were valid. The three schools, namely, Opoku Ware Senior High school, St. Hubert Minor Seminary and Prempeh College all in the Kumasi Metropolis were randomly selected for the pilot-test. In each school, the headmaster was purposely selected and twenty (20) teachers randomly selected for the pilot test. A numbered list of all the teaching staff was obtained from the head master and the numbers written on pieces of paper and put in a container. After every selection, the remaining ones were mixed up until all the twenty (20) numbers were picked. The corresponding names and their phone numbers were written down and the researcher met them individually and distributed the questionnaire. This was done in all the three schools.

The teachers were provided with instructions on how to complete the questionnaire and were asked to provide feedback on the instruments' general appearance, clarity of directions, ease of comprehension and length. Similarly, the head teachers at the end of the interview were asked whether the questions were void of ambiguity and easy to understand. The teachers were given one week to respond after which another visit was made to the schools to retrieve the questionnaire. Based on feedback from the pilot-test, the test items were modified appropriately and the interview protocol reviewed to enhance comprehension and avoid ambiguity.

Data Collection Procedures

In the main study, an introductory letter obtained from the Department of Educational Leadership was sent to the Metropolitan Director of Education in the Kumasi Metropolis who also provided me a letter of introduction, which was used to gain access to the schools. That encouraged the head teachers to be very receptive and greatly facilitated the data collection.

Questionnaire Administration

Visits were made to the schools personally to administer the questionnaire. For every school visited, permission was first sought from the head teacher and then guided by the list of teaching staff, the appropriate sample was selected using the table of random numbers technique. A day was spent in each school and almost all the questionnaires administered were retrieved. In a few instances where all the questionnaires distributed were not retrieved, the assistance of a teacher was sought to collect them on my behalf. Even though the participants were given two days to respond to the questionnaire, in some cases it took a week to finally retrieve them. To ensure maximum participation and cooperation, efforts were made to personally explain the purpose of the study and assure of confidentiality. The procedures and directions for completing the questionnaire were also discussed in detail and the teachers were given the opportunity to ask questions for clarification. The overall return rate was 98%.

Conduct of Interviews

Ten head teachers and an organizer of INSET were purposely selected to be interviewed. Appointments for the interviews were scheduled to take place at the participants' convenience and in their offices. In all cases, the interview protocol was given to the participants in advance so that they could well reflect on the protocol items. This in no small measure helped in eliciting the required responses. Generally, the interviews lasted between 40 to 50 minutes and in all cases permission was granted to tape record the proceedings. However, one head teacher refused to be recorded saying he was ready to respond satisfactorily any question that would be posed.

Immediately after each session, the researcher settled down to transcribe the notes and recordings took from the field. Such quick turnaround time on the transcription helped me avoid memory lapses. In transcribing, the data gathered were examined according to the order of the items.

Ethical Considerations

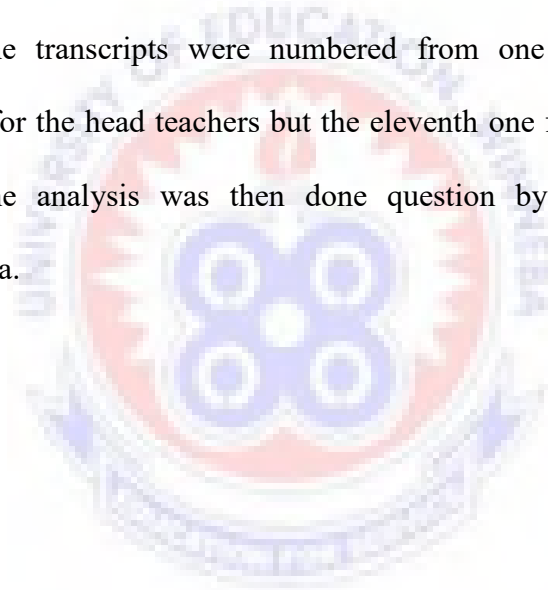
The approval of all participants was obtained before they completed the surveys. The subjects were informed of their rights to willingly accept or decline to participate and to withdraw participation at any time without penalty. Subjects were informed about the purpose of the study, the procedures that would be used to collect the data and were assured that there were no potential risks or costs involved. Anonymity and privacy were assured and adhered to. No form of identification was required of the respondents and their responses not disclosed to any third party. Scientific honesty is regarded as a very important ethical responsibility when conducting research. Dishonest conduct includes manipulation of design and methods, and retention or manipulation of data. The researcher tried to avoid any form of dishonesty by recording truthfully the responses as indicated by the respondents and duly acknowledged all source to avoid any form of plagiarism.

Data Analysis Procedure

In order to obtain a reliable research result from the data collected and responses, data analysis was done using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS Vs 17) also known as the Statistical Product for Social Solution. Absolute and relative frequencies were used in the presentation of the results. Mean ratings, percentages as well as standard deviation were performed based on the nature of the question and

correlation was used to find the relationships among the evaluation tools. All statistical analyses were performed at 95% confidence interval ($p=0.05$).

The interview data were organised under the names of the schools and analysed using focus by question analytical strategy. As put forward by Kusi (2012), this strategy is suitable when the questions in the schedule are semi-structured or open-ended. He explains further that it is useful when questions in the schedule are relatively limited. The recorded interviews were listened to severally and the field notes were also read many times before transcribing them. This was to ensure that what was transcribed was true of the tape recordings or field notes taken. For easy identification, the transcripts were numbered from one to eleven (1-11) in no particular order for the head teachers but the eleventh one for the organiser of INSET programmes. The analysis was then done question by question across all the interviewees' data.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of the study was to assess the extent to which INSET programmes organised for SHS teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis enhanced their performance. This chapter presents and analyses the results as well as discusses the findings. The analysis is done using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviation. The analysis of the results is organised in two parts. The first part deals with the analysis of the demographic data whilst the second part deals with the analysis of the main data related to the research questions.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

In Table 1, the demographic characteristics of respondents are presented. A total of 233 successful respondents out of the 288 sample size, representing 81% filled and returned their questionnaires.

TABLE 1: Demographic characteristics of teacher respondents

Variables	Frequency (233)	Percentage (%)
Gender		
Male	146	62.7
Female	87	37.3
Professional Qualification		
Diploma	14	6.0
Bachelor	170	72.9
Post graduate	18	7.7
Other	31	13.3
Teaching Experience		
Less than 3 years	11	4.7
3-6	54	23.2
7-10	45	19.3
11-15	44	18.9
More than 15	79	33.9

From Table 1, it is observed that as many as 146 of the respondents representing 62.7% were males as against 37.3% who were females. Thus, majority of the respondents were males. Furthermore, majority of the respondents (146 or 72.9%) had bachelor's degree. Only 6% had diploma. In terms of teaching experience, only 4.7% had taught less than 3 years. It is gratifying to note that as many as 79 (33.9%) of the teachers had taught more than 15 years.

From the table, it is clear that more than half of the teachers had taught for more than 10 years. This suggests that they had a lot of experience to share as far as their participation in in-service training was concerned. It is not however, surprising that the majority of the respondents had bachelor's degree. In order to ensure that most teachers upgraded their skills, more degree programmes especially sandwich programmes were made accessible to teachers at the universities in early 2000 and that might have accounted for this outcome.

Analysis of the Main Data

The analysis of the main data is presented in line with the research questions.

Research Question 1: How are the needs of teachers assessed prior to the Organisation of INSET?

Presented in Table 2 are teachers' views on the assessment of their needs before INSET are organised for them. The responses were based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree but for easy analysis strongly agree and agree were put together as agree whilst strongly disagree and disagree were put together as disagree.

TABLE 2: Assessment of teachers needs before inset

INSET Assessment Items	Agree Disagree		Mean	SD
	(%)	(%)		
I am given early notice before the start of the INSET programme	63.5	36.5	3.648	1.085
The INSET is often organised to improve teachers' methods of teaching	56.5	43.5	3.176	.959
My needs and interests are identified through appraisal	50.5	49.5	3.107	1.103
The INSET is related to my subject area	43	57	2.618	1.157
The INSET is related to new developments in my subject area	41	59	2.540	1.086
The INSET programme covers other areas other than content and methodology	40	60	2.523	.969
Organisers visit my school to identify my needs and interests	39.5	0.5	2.510	1.207
The INSET programme is related to some of the problems I face in class	38.5	61.5	2.506	1.026
The INSET programme is related to new developments in teaching	37.5	62.5	2.351	.902
A pre-test is conducted to identify my needs and interests	26	74	1.643	1.093
I am often involved in the selection of topics to be covered during INSET programmes	18	82	1.609	1.169

Teachers are not a homogenous group. There is variation among the knowledge and skills of teachers which echoes the variation that one would find in the population at large. Only very few people are hired for a new job with all the necessary knowledge and skills. Therefore, all new employees require some training (Morrant, 1981). Experienced employees can change from average to expert workers with additional training either within or without the organisation. This is the case of education most especially when education is rapidly moving away from what exists in

the confines of the classroom setting to a technologically based education. This underscores the Ghana Education Service's (GES) determination to intensify the training of teachers. The GES has its approaches to training and re-training of its staff with particular objectives and for the general goal of improving the educational system in Ghana. It is very important that every successful In-Service Training Programme meets some specific needs of teachers. The identification of such needs is therefore, a very crucial aspect of any INSET programme. It is equally important to note that, the teachers on the field of work are exposed to the real situations and have a very important role in the identification of such a need. Their involvement is therefore a key factor.

In Table 2, teachers' views on how the organisers and the administrators identify and assess their needs before INSET are organised and presented. Just a little over half (50.5%) of teachers agreed that they normally got early notification before the start of INSET programmes and a significant proportion (53.5%) attested to the fact that INSET was organised to improve teachers' methods of teaching. It is however, interesting to note that, most INSET from the perspective of teachers were not related to their subject areas as less than half (43%) saw the INSETs as related to their subject areas. Furthermore, appraisal was a key means of identifying the needs and interests of teachers for INSET programmes. It was however noticed that, teachers who are the prime beneficiaries of INSET programmes were not often involved in the selection of topics to be covered during INSET programmes contrary to the laid down strategies of the Ministry of Education to make INSET programmes effective and relevant (MOE, 2000). Most (82%) teachers were never involved in the selection of topics to be covered during INSET. Furthermore, almost half (49.5%) of the teachers reported that their needs and interests were never identified through any

form of appraisal before conducting INSET. The organizers of INSET do not visit the schools to identify the real needs of the teachers and students nor conduct any form of pre-test known to the direct beneficiaries (teachers) leading to the organization and conduct of INSETs. In line with a document of UNESCO (as cited in Greenland, 1983), if education is to meet the demands of our time and of the coming decades, the organisation, content and methods of teacher education must be constantly improved by searching for new educational strategies and concepts through needs identification with the involvement of the key players.

One thing notable was the fact that, most of the INSET programmes were not geared towards new developments in teaching and learning, as close to two-thirds (62.5%) of the teachers disagreed INSET programmes were geared towards new developments in teaching and learning. This is contrary to the fact that the starting point for any in-service education and training should aim at meeting teachers' professional needs and development (Morrant, 1981). Also, in relation to this, Newton (1988) observes that there are too often a mismatch between the needs of teachers (whether personal needs or those arising from the school context in where they work) and the content of courses. Such mismatch arises partly from inadequate analysis or understanding of the problem by course organisers, partly from inadequate description of course content and partly from the unsystematic way in which teachers select courses.

Research Question 2: What is the Level at which INSET Impact on Teacher Performance?

The responses to the research question are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3: Impact of inset programmes on teachers' performance

Impact of INSET on Teacher Performance	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Mean.	SD
INSET programmes serve as briefing courses for new teachers	74	26	3.197	.939
INSET programmes help me in my professional promotion interviews	47.5	52.5	2.437	1.057
INSET programmes boost my morale as a teacher	46.5	53.5	2.429	1.006
INSET helps me to better understand my students	46	54	2.369	.929
INSET helps me to meet the needs of my students	43.5	56.5	2.339	.991
The INSET training programmes I attended have improved my content delivery	42	58	2.261	.926
INSET programmes boost my confidence as a teacher	41.5	58.5	2.236	.914
Attending in-service training programmes help me to revise what I learnt at my initial professional training	40	60	2.171	.902
The in-service training programmes I attended contributed positively to my teaching output	38.5	61.5	2.133	.916
The INSET training programmes I attended have improved my methods of teaching	37.5	62.5	2.068	.887
I am ready to adopt and use new methods and technology	63.5	36.5	3.451	.089

No one can deny that teacher change takes a long time and is likely to occur before students' performance shows similar gains. One topmost priority of every INSET is to improve the performance of the work of the beneficiaries professionally. The single longest and most intensive in-service that all teachers undergo is their own experience learning as students. Teachers normally battle to overcome the tendency to teach as they were taught. This is the point where INSET is very important. Rebore (1982) argued that a teacher can no longer assume, on the basis of past learning, that he/she understands all the nuances of a subject area. It is therefore, necessary to

constantly update and upgrade the knowledge bank of teachers to meet the demands of the ever changing curriculum. Results in Table 3 indicated that, INSET was very instrumental in serving as a briefing course for new teachers as reported by 74% of the teachers. Ramatlapana, (2009) argues that, teaching is a field that is dynamic, with innovations, necessitating upgrading of skills and education of teachers for the successful implementation of reforms. However, the results of the current study suggest that INSET programmes contributed very little to the professional development of the teachers. As much as 60% of the respondents disagreed that INSET programmes contributed to their professional development whilst 54% of the teachers disagreed INSET programmes organized for them boosted their morale. A similar study conducted by Ramatlapana, (2009) suggests that the behaviour and attitudes of teachers towards teaching and learning and their knowledge banks are the result of the impact of in-service training. The teachers further reported that, the current nature of INSET programmes did not afford them the opportunity to better understand their students (43.5%) and it provided limited means of meeting the needs of the students. Similarly, close to two-thirds (62.5%) of the teachers reported that, the INSET programmes they attended did not actually improve their method of teaching nor contributed positively to their teaching output.

However, one important thing is that teachers need firsthand experience of successful use of new methods to even consider using them routinely. Some teachers hate change and are technophobia. When left alone, would stick to the old comfortable ways of doing things. That is the point INSET and follow-up and varied evaluation strategies play major roles.

Research Question 3: What feedback and evaluation programmes are available to teachers after INSET programmes?

Presented in Table 4, is teachers' views on the nature and kind of evaluation that go on after INSET programmes.

TABLE 4: Evaluation of INSET from teachers point of view

Feedback and Evaluation Items	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Mean	SD
Evaluation of INSET programmes takes the form of open forum	94	6	4.7597	1.087
It takes the form of a test after the INSET programme	61.5	38.5	3.1416	1.055
Evaluation of INSET programmes takes the form of group discussions immediately after INSET	58	42	2.8112	1.086
Organisers of INSET programmes do evaluate INSET after the training	57	43	2.7725	1.150
There are always follow-up visits after INSET	43.5	56.5	2.3519	1.085
After the INSET programmes, the organisers come round to monitor whether participants are applying the knowledge they have acquired	30.5	69.5	1.5837	1.126
Evaluation is done continuously for some time after the INSET programme	27	73	1.4721	.991
Evaluation follows different levels and aspects	18	82	1.354	.234

From the results illustrated in Table 4, it is obvious that evaluation of INSET programmes was normally done in the form of open forum right after the INSET. As high as 94% of the respondents affirmed that. On the other hand, only 38.5% agreed

that such INSET programmes were evaluated by written test after the programmes.

Evaluation done through continuous visit to the schools after the INSET and to check whether or not the participants were applying the knowledge learnt was almost non-existent. The schools were mostly expected to use their internal supervision and evaluation mechanisms in evaluating teachers. This was quite unfortunate because as noted by Shepherd (2012), head teachers and school supervisors are not able to determine if teachers are really implementing what they learn at INSET because these supervisors have no idea about the content of such INSET. Meanwhile, there are well defined levels of evaluating training supported by enough literature since the mid-70s (Kirkpatrick, 1976; Swanson & Sleezer, 1987; Zaczewski, 2001; Shepherd, 2012). They have all supported and listed 4 levels of measuring the effectiveness of the outcome of training programmes including level one, which is reaction criteria which evaluates trainees' effective and attitudinal reactions. Level two is learning criteria which evaluates the extent to which trainees have learned the training material and acquired knowledge. Level three is based on behaviour criteria evaluating the extent to which trainees applied the training or improved performance following the training programme and finally level four is on how the training has improved the general output of the institution. In meeting these levels, evaluation and feedback during and after the INSET is very key. However, responses on lack of follow-up visits, (43.5%), checking if really the participants are applying the knowledge they have acquired (30.5%) and not using different levels and aspects of evaluation (18%) have defeated the core values of INSET.

Relationship among the Various Evaluation Techniques

Observation is a fundamental tool in in-service training and education with teachers. This section explores ways of approaching the evaluator-teacher observation

and examines how these approaches can be related to teacher training and development evaluation for the various INSET programmes. There are three different approaches to in-service teacher observation for evaluation; these are the *Supervisory Approach*, *Alternative Approach* and the *Non-Directive Approach* (Freeman, 1982).

In the Supervisory Approach, the observer functions as an arbitrator, commenting on and evaluating the teacher's performance in terms of fixed criteria, both implicit and explicit. In the Alternative Approach, the observer offers a series of alternatives to observe activities, thus helping the teacher to shape his own criteria. Finally, in the Non-Directive Approach, the observer provides a reflection and integration of the teachers' own goals and performance (Freeman, 1982).

The goal of in-service professional development is to improve the knowledge, skills and commitments of teachers so that they are more effective in planning lessons, teaching, assessing students' learning, and undertaking other responsibilities in the school community (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008). Therefore, the need for coherence in the evaluation techniques to ensure INSET programme objectives are achieved is important.

Results from Table 5 show the correlations for the techniques used in evaluating teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis during INSET programmes. Results revealed a positive correlation among the seven (7) tools of evaluation. Results further revealed the following significant correlations; evaluation of INSET after the training and group discussions ($r = 0.484, p < 0.01$), group discussions and test after the INSET programme ($r = 0.423, p < 0.01$), group discussions and continuous evaluation ($r = 0.402, p < 0.01$), follow-up visits and continuous evaluation ($r = 0.623, p < 0.01$).

Moreover, follow-up visits after INSET and monitoring for application of knowledge acquired ($r = 0.653$, $p < 0.01$) and, continuous evaluation for sometime after the INSET and monitoring for application of knowledge acquired ($r = 0.702$, $p < 0.01$) also had significant and positive relationships.

TABLE 5: Correlations of inset evaluation tools.

Variable	Evaluation after training	Group discussions	Test after the inset	Form of open forum	Follow-up visits	Continuous evaluation	Monitoring application of knowledge acquired
Evaluation after training	1						
Group discussions	.484**	1					
Test after the INSET	.373**	.423**	1				
Form of open forum	.114	.320**	.126	1			
Follow-up visits	.285**	.274**	.378**	.222**	1		
Continuous evaluation	.308**	.402**	.316**	.314**	.623**	1	
Monitoring application of knowledge acquired	.267**	.355**	.296**	.285**	.653**	.702**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Organisers of INSET programmes do evaluate INSET after the training and evaluation of INSET programmes takes the form of group discussions immediately after INSET ($r = 0.484$, $p < 0.01$). The correlation, though weak, means that evaluations that take place immediately after the training and education assume the form of a group discussion which is moderated by the organisers of the INSET programme hence a supervisory observation approach is adopted.

Evaluation of INSET programmes takes the form of group discussions immediately after INSET and it takes the form of a test after the INSET programme ($r = 0.423$, $p < 0.01$). The result means that group discussions are organised to re-enforce the new concepts learnt and a test conducted subsequently to determine the efficacy of the particular INSET programme. The alternative approach observation evaluation method suits the above scenario.

Evaluation of INSET programmes takes the form of group discussions immediately after INSET and evaluation is done continuously for some time after the INSET programme ($r = 0.402$, $p < 0.01$). With a discussion among participants of the training and education programme followed by school-to-school routine monitoring by authorities, the non-directive approach is used. This is underpinned by the strong correlation that exists between follow-up visits after INSET and continuous evaluation for some time after the INSET programme ($r = 0.623$, $p < 0.01$).

There are always follow-up visits after INSET and after the INSET programmes the organisers come round to monitor whether participants are applying the knowledge they have acquired ($r = 0.653$, $p < 0.01$). Evaluation is done continuously for some time after the INSET programme and after the INSET programmes the organisers come round to monitor whether participants are applying the knowledge they have acquired ($r = 0.702$, $p < 0.01$). The strong correlation established implies that teachers are constantly reminded of the need to apply skills acquired from INSET programmes.

From the foregoing results and discussion, the observation evaluation approach that dominates the tools of INSET effectiveness review is the supervisory approach to implement standardised pedagogy in the Metropolis.

The overall goal of INSET is to increase student performance and develop the careers of teachers. Achieving this goal is critical because the teacher's role is one of the most important factors contributing to high-quality education and successful student learning. Designing and governing a comprehensive framework for teacher evaluation entails a range of aspects (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008; OECD, 2009).

First, it needs to be framed in the context of the overall objectives for schooling and the approach to its development depends on a range of established practices in the school system such as the extent of school autonomy, the existence of national curricula and standards, or the culture of evaluation.

Second, the purposes of the teacher evaluation framework need to be clearly defined. In particular, it needs to be clear what aspects teacher evaluation seeks to monitor and improve. The framework also needs to establish strategies to address the tension between the typical purposes of improvement and accountability (OECD, 2009).

Third, there should be a clear understanding of the responsibilities of the different educational actors within the teacher evaluation framework. Educational authorities at several levels, agencies in charge of quality assurance such as inspectorates, schools, parents and school communities, teachers and students play different roles in ensuring improvement and accountability in the teaching profession.

Fourth, a reflection on the way teacher evaluation articulates with the remaining components of the evaluation and assessment framework such as school evaluation, student assessment and system level evaluation is also crucial. A

particularly important aspect is how teacher evaluation is complementary to avoid duplication and ensure consistent in objectives with the remaining components of the evaluation and assessment framework (Goe, Bell, & Little, 2008).

Question 4: What are the challenges in organizing and evaluating INSET in the GES?

The results on the challenges confronting the organisation, implementation and evaluation of a successful INSET in the Kumasi Metropolis are presented in Table 5.

TABLE 6: Challenges in organising inset

Challenges in organising INSET	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Mean	SD
Inadequate source of funding	93.6	6.4	4.991	0.205
Lack of teaching training resources may impede teacher participation	83.0	17.0	4.52	0.562
Lack of appropriate physical facilities may impede teacher	80.5	19.5	4.176	.890
The readiness to use and adopt to new technologies	74.0	26.0	4.015	.089
When teachers do not get the information early				
Enough	72.5	27.5	3.871	1.064
When it is to take place in the middle of vacation	63.0	37.0	3.738	1.108
When INSET is to take place immediately after vacation	51.5	48.5	3.686	1.133
Some head teachers do not want teachers to vacate classes to attend INSET programmes	39.0	61.0	2.296	1.130
If the distance is such that commuting becomes				
Difficult	38.5	61.5	2.154	1.034

The most alarming challenge to organising INSET based on the percentage of the response was funding. As much as 93.6% agreed funding was a challenge. Evidence from literature supports this finding, stating financing INSET programmes has proven to be one major problem. The decision about what approach to take for training depends on several factors including the amount of funding available for training. Cascio (1992) indicates that self-directed informal training can be very low-cost; however, the learner should have the capability and motivation to pursue their own training. In line with this, Greenland, (1983) indicates that several INSET programmes rely, at least in part, on overseas funding which may be forfeited if the donors' time-scale is not adhered to. Because most learners at INSETs do not have the self-motivation and the organisers must also follow some clauses by the donor, the resultant is an ineffective INSET.

Whilst the distance to INSET centres and the willingness of heads of schools to allow teachers to attend INSET were not found to be major challenges to the organisation of INSET, the availability of learning materials (83.0%), physical infrastructure (80.5%) and the timing of the INSET (63.0%) were identified as likely to impede the success of INSET programmes. As much as 83.0%, 80.5% and 63.0% respectively agreed to that. One other challenge identified was the willingness and the readiness of teachers to adopt and to use new and emerging technologies involved in teaching and learning. As much as 74.0% of the respondents attested to that. As Harmer (2002) states, we are continuously challenged by new technology, and the questioning of beliefs about teaching.

Results from the Interview

To gain a holistic view on issues surrounding the organisation, execution and evaluation of INSET by the Ghana Education Service in the Kumasi Metropolis, the

views of some heads of schools were equally solicited and presented. On what kind of need assessment goes on before INSET programmes, most of the heads of schools had very little input and idea on such needs assessment if there was any. One of the school's heads reported that, "there is almost no input from the receivers of the programmes". He continued by saying, "the decision is mostly taking at the regional and national levels based on available resources, the findings of studies conducted by the GES itself at the national level, government policies and more importantly based on the decisions of donor agencies and countries". A second school head said "Even though we submit our reports regularly to the regional education directorate, since we do not provide the resources and the INSET programmes are normally designed for the whole country, our inputs make little or no impact". Another head teacher reported that "The INSET programme in itself is not a bad idea". He continued by saying "but for the mismatch in the real needs on the ground and the timing of some of the INSET programmes." However, an organiser of INSET programmes said most of the needs assessments are done through classroom observation and examining school records such as lesson notes, interview teachers, etc.

Every year, the central government, donor agencies and countries through the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service organise INSET programmes for teachers, heads of schools and other educational workers. The responses from the interviewed heads of schools however suggested that, apart from the regular school monitoring and supervision, only a handful of programmes mostly organised at the school level by private institutions are evaluated with participants sending reports periodically. An organiser of INSET programmes also said head teachers and circuit supervisors are to assess the of both school-based and cluster-based INSET programmes.

Concerning head teachers views on problems of organising and evaluating INSET programmes, one of them said “Everything about INSET boils down to resources; financial, human and material resources”. Another head teacher reported that, “some of the programmes are situational and context misplaced and decentralisation of all educational and training programmes would be the best option”. Another head also reported that “at times, the timing of the INSET, putting so many areas of training together, failure to tailor the programmes to specific needs of the region or district of school make the INSET programmes almost useless to some groups of teachers”. But he added that, some of these programmes were just perfect for him and his teachers. An organiser of INSET programmes similarly identified the problems as budget constraints (finance), venue, timing and relevant materials .He however suggested that, teachers needs are effectively assessed, enough funds is made available, appropriate venue chosen and appropriate training materials provided, most INSET programmes would achieve their goals.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

In this chapter, the summary of the key findings of the study, conclusion of the study and recommendations to improve upon the processes of organizing and executing INSET programmes are presented. Areas necessary for further studies are equally discussed in this chapter.

Summary

Education is a necessary element in the development of every nation. This can only be manifested by well-trained and resourced teachers. INSET comes as one of the surest ways to give teachers this continuous training and retraining to meet the ever- dynamic educational knowledge.

The purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which INSET programmes organised for Senior High School (SHS) teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis are able to enhance their performance. This study sought to find out the needs assessment that goes into the organisation of INSET programmes, to the impact of INSET programmes on the performance of teachers, to identify the feedback and evaluation programmes that are undertaken to assess teachers after INSET programmes and to also examine the challenges in organising and evaluating INSET programmes.

To investigate the study scientifically, it was guided by the following research questions; how are the needs of teachers assessed prior to the organisation of INSET programmes, how does INSET impact on teacher performance, what feedback and evaluation programmes are used to assess teachers after INSET programmes and what

are the challenges in organising and evaluating INSET programmes in GES in the Kumasi Metropolis?

The study was limited to head teachers, teachers and an organiser of INSET programmes for teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis. Relevant related literature was gathered around these themes : definitions of training ,concept and meaning of in-service education and training–INSET, purpose of INSET, INSET and teachers’ professional needs in Ghana, INSET of teachers and challenges to INSET of teachers and measures that can make in-service training programmes effective.

A mixed-method approach using survey and interview was adopted for the study and it was underpinned by the pragmatic philosophy. Yamanes (1967) formula for sampling was used to determine the 273 sample size and the simple random sampling technique (Lottery) was used to select the 273 teachers from the sampled schools. Purposeful Sampling technique was adopted to select the 10 head teachers from the ten (10) sampled senior high schools and an organiser of INSET programmes in the Kumasi Metropolis. The validity and reliability of the study was checked to ensure that the instruments (questionnaire and interview protocol) were consistent and measured what they purported to measure. Mean ratings, percentages, standard deviation and correlation establishing associations were the statistical tools used to analyse the data. Focus by question analytical strategy was used to analyse the qualitative data after the tape recordings and field notes were transcribed.

Summary of Key findings

The key findings of the study are that;

1. It was realized that most (63.5%) teachers had some prior knowledge of INSET programmes as to venue, time and topic. The challenge however, was that the needs and interests of teachers are normally not identified prior to the INSET programmes.
2. The issue with the association between INSET and teacher performance is that teachers reported the INSET they attended had not actually improved their content delivery (42%). Therefore, their confidence level is not necessarily boosted by the INSETs they attended.
3. On the issue of the impact of INSET programmes on teacher performance, the teachers had a strong (74%) believe that INSET programmes served as a briefing course to induct newly trained teachers and it helped them to adjust well to their new environment.
4. The evaluation of INSETs was a great challenge to the organization of INSETs. The most popular evaluation method used was open forums (94%). There were almost no follow-ups nor any of the evaluations done continuously for some period of time (27%).
5. The greatest challenges to the organization and execution of INSET in GES are funding, lack of teaching and training materials and appropriate physical facilities for the organization of effective INSETs (93.6%, 83% and 80.5% respectively).

Conclusions

The study focused on examining the extent to which INSET programmes organised for SHS teachers in Kumasi Metropolis enhanced their performance. The following conclusions are drawn from the key findings;

1. since the needs and interests of teachers were not assessed, teachers were not interested in INSET programmes organised for them and for that matter they may not show the needed commitment.
2. the fact that INSET programmes do not impact on teachers' performance suggests that possibly INSET programmes were not organised effectively as they should.
3. lack of effective evaluation of INSET programmes suggests that organisers of INSET programmes are not able to ascertain whether what teachers are taught during INSET is practised in the classroom or not.
4. lack of continuous or periodic follow-up suggests further that teachers may not get the needed assistance as they strive to implement what they are taught during INSET. This may discourage them from effectively putting what they learnt into practice.
5. availability of funds, teaching learning resources and physical facilities are likely to improve the quality of INSET organised in the Kumasi Metropolis.

Recommendations

Deciding not to do anything about issues of education is deciding not to plan for the future of the individual, the community, the country and the world. The best that can happen to education is to have teachers who are well trained and equipped to deliver the necessary curriculum. On the basis of the findings of the study and the conclusions drawn from them, to address the challenges facing INSET organisation

and evaluation in the GES and the Kumasi Metropolis in particular, the following recommendations are made;

1. There is the need for the decentralization of the planning, implementation and evaluation of INSET programmes in the Ghana Education Services (GES). It is believed that if the catchment area is narrowed, it is easier to assess the specific needs of the teachers at Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis.
2. Instead of relying on INSET conducted by GES, it is recommended that the various subject area associations of teachers must establish innovative ways of holding subject or topic specific INSETs for their members. They are likely to know the new development in their areas and therefore can adequately identify the needs of teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis.
3. Proper assessment of a long term funding sources for INSET programmes in the Ghana Education Services (GES) is necessary. Innovative means such as the use of teacher subject area unions, local association of teachers, sourcing for funds from corporate bodies that may be ready to support and the use of specialized individuals within the schools and the Kumasi Metropolis instead of relying on the central government and GES or MOE would be much more cost effective.
4. Continuous follow-up should be made part of the organization of INSET programmes in the Ghana Education Services (GES) so that the organisers would be obliged to go out and make the necessary follow-ups. Besides, Metropolitan Directors should demand reports from organisers of INSET.

Areas for Further Studies

The dynamics in technology and general knowledge require every effort to get teachers at least one step ahead of their students and they must always be on top of issues. In today's technological era very little can be achieved, without the use of one

technology or the other. It is therefore suggested that further studies should build on the current study to find out how technology can be used to enhance the quality of organising INSET programmes.

Also, since this study was confined to the Kumasi Metropolis, it is suggested that a similar study is conducted on a wider scale so that the findings can be generalised.



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APPENDICES

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

I am a post-graduate student of University of Education –Winneba, Kumasi Campus pursuing an Mphil Degree in Educational Leadership. I am carrying out a study on the topic, ‘Evaluation of in-service education and training for teachers in senior high schools’. You have been selected as one of the people who could contribute to the study. I should be most grateful if you could spare some of your precious time to answer the following questions. Please be assured that all information you volunteer will be treated as confidential and will only be used for academic purpose.

Section A: Respondents’ Socio - demographic characteristics

1. Sex: Male () Female ()
2. Place of work:

Section B: Occupational characteristics

3. (a) Professional qualification
 - (b) Diploma in Education
 - (c) Bachelor of Education
 - (d) Post-graduate Diploma in Education
 - (e) Others (Specify) -----
4. Teaching experience
 - (a) Less than 3 years
 - (b) 3-6 years
 - (c) 7-10 years
 - (d) 11- 14years
 - (e) 15+

Please indicate your level of agreement with a statement

(SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neither agree or disagree, D= Disagree,

SD= Strongly Disagree)

Section C: Measures taken to ensure INSET programmes meet the needs and interests of teachers.

NO	STATEMENT	SA	A	N	D	SD
5	Organisers visit my school to identify my needs and interests					
6	A pre-test is conducted to identify my needs and interests					
7	My needs and interests are identified through appraisal					
8	I am given early notice before the start of the INSET programme					
9	I am often involved in the selection of topics to be covered during INSET programmes					
10	The INSET is related to my subject area					
11	The INSET is often organised to improve teachers' methods of teaching					
12	The INSET programme covers other areas other than content and methodology					
13	The INSET programme is related to some of the problems I face in class					
14	The INSET programme is related to new developments in teaching					
15	The INSET is related to new developments in my subject area					

16. What in your opinion are some of the things that should be done so that INSET programmes meet your needs and interests?

(a) -----

(b) -----

(c) -----

Section D: The impact of in-service programmes on teacher performance

NO	STATEMENT	SA	A	N	D	SD
17	The in-service training programmes I attended contributed positively to my teaching output					
18	The INSET training programmes I attended have improved my methods of teaching					
19	The INSET training programmes I attended have improved my content delivery					
20	INSET helps me to better understand my students					
21	INSET helps me to meet the needs of my students					
22	Attending in-service training programmes help me to revise what I learnt at my initial professional training					
23	INSET programmes help me in my professional promotion interviews					
24	INSET programmes serve as briefing courses for new teachers					
25	INSET programmes boost my confidence as a teacher					
26	INSET programmes boost my morale as a teacher					

Section E: Evaluation of INSET for teachers

NO	STATEMENT	SA	A	N	D	SD
24	Organisers of INSET programmes do evaluate INSET after the training					
25	Evaluation of INSET programmes takes the form of group discussions immediately after INSET					
26	It takes the form of a test after the INSET programme					
27	Evaluation of INSET programmes takes the form of open forum					
28	There are always follow-up visits after INSET					
29	Evaluation is done continuously for sometimes after the INSET programme					
30	After the INSET programmes, the organisers come round to monitor whether participants are applying the knowledge they have acquired					

Section F: Problems that affect INSET of teachers

NO	STATEMENT	SA	A	N	D	SD
31	When INSET is to take place immediately after vacation					
32	When it is to take place in the middle of vacation					
33	When teachers do not get the information early enough					
34	If the distance is such that commuting becomes difficult					
35	Some head teachers do not want teachers to vacate classes to attend INSET programmes					
36	Lack of appropriate physical facilities may impede teacher participation					
37	Lack of teaching learning resources may impede teacher participation					

38. If there are any more problems, please state them;

(a) -----

(b) -----

(c) -----

Section G: How INSET for teachers can be improved

39. What in your opinion can be done to improve the organisation of INSET for teachers?

(a)-----

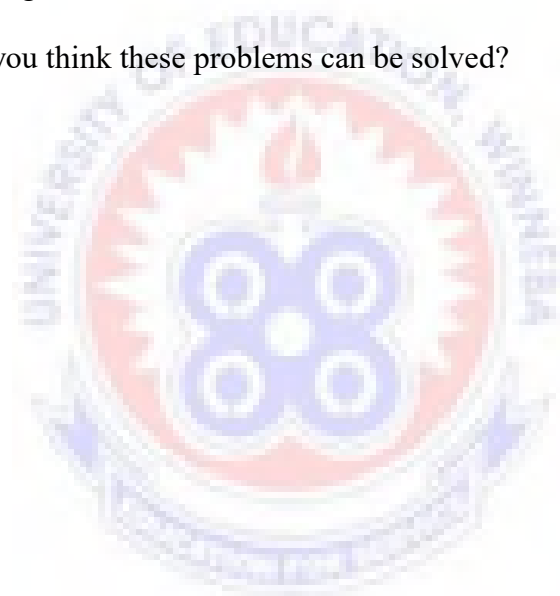
(b) -----

(c) -----



INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEADTEACHERS

1. How do organisers of INSET assess the needs and interests of teachers before organising INSET programmes?
2. How do you see the impact of INSET on the performance of teachers?
3. (a) Do organisers of INSET follow participated teachers to the school to evaluate their performance?
(b) If yes, how do they do it
4. What are some of the problems you encounter when teachers are to attend INSET programmes?
5. How do you think these problems can be solved?



INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR INSET ORGANISERS

1. How do organisers of INSET assess the needs and interest of teachers before organising INSET programs?
2. How do you see the impact of INSET on the performance of teachers?
3. a. Do organisers of INSET follow participated teachers to their schools to evaluate their performance?
b. If yes how do you do it
4. What are some of the problems you encounter when organising INSET for teachers?
5. How do you think these problems can be solved?

