UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE SUPERVISORY PRACTICES OF HEADTEACHERS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE SEFWI WIAWSO MUNICIPALITY: A CASE OF BOSOMOISO CIRCUIT OF THE WESTERN NORTH REGION

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DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, RITA BAIDOO, 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.

SIGNATURE…….

DATE…….

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: REV. FR. DR. FRANCIS K. SAM

SIGNATURE…….

DATE…….

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DEDICATION

To my husband Mr. John Ahi, my brother Michael Affum Baidoo and my children; Lawerencia Adwoa Boadua Ahi, Bernice Adwoa Nyamekye Ahi.

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ABSTRACT

The study was conducted to investigate into the supervisory practices of headteachers of Junior High Schools in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality. Objective of the study were to identify the supervisory practices of headteachers; to explore challenges headteachers face in performing the supervisory functions and to identify strategies that the headteachers uses to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit. The researcher used descriptive survey design for the study. The target population of the study was all the headteachers and teachers of the six public junior high schools Bosomoiso Circuit. Purposive sampling was used to select all the 12 headteachers. Simple random sampling was used to select 64 teachers. The researcher used closed ended questionnaire to collect data for the study. The data was processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software package version 20.0. The data was analysed with the use of frequencies and percentages. The study was conducted with both qualitative and quantitative method, executed through questionnaires. The study revealed that supervisory role performed by the headteachers were orientation of new teaching staff, checking teacher's record of work, provision of in-service training, monitoring punctuality teachers and student, teacher motivation and lesson observation. Again, it was found out that teachers' resistance to supervision, inadequate teachers, poor human relations (teacher-supervisor relationship), inadequate material resources for teaching, political instability, irregular payment of teachers, financial constraints, lack of adequate training and support, and teachers' perception of instructional supervision were the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. The study therefore recommend that Government should intensify actions to ensure that Junior High schools teachers are provided the opportunities for re-training. This will help to improve on their instructional delivery system.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The development of any nation is largely determined by the quality of education available to its citizenry. Afful-Broni and Ziggah (2007) asserted that education has been identified as an agent of national development. Every country therefore depends on quality education to develop its human resource base to confront her development challenges. Ghana as a country has adopted several policy interventions like the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Policy, Capitation Grants, School Feeding Programme and the free school Uniform all aimed at increasing enrolments and improving quality of education. It is an undeniable fact that the need for education has become inevitable because peoples' affinity for knowledge believably keeps growing in an era where technology and other sophistications are taking the centre stage in human endeavours. Globally, it is known that education has played an important role in society throughout history simply because the survival of society's contingent on educated fellows who are empowered to think creatively and systematically to adequately produce goods and services (McCracken & Wallace, 2000). For this cause both primary and Junior High Schools education has become necessary to take up this challenge. For the simple reason that these educational cycles involve preparing young people for adulthood and institutions of higher learning, which consists of public and private colleges and universities that provide programmes to equip adults for various jobs and professions.

To achieve these aims, a number of strategies are often adopted within the institutions that are given the mandate to educate the people. One of these strategies that

are considered as very paramount in the success of education is supervision (Duodu, 2003). Supervision and inspection are considered to be the major components of any set of strategies to improve the quality and standard of school education. However, the effectiveness of supervision seems to be one of the main challenges in achieving the desired goals of education in Ghana (Agbetoh, 2007).

Generally, there is a perception that the quality and standard in most of Ghanaian Junior High Schools are questionable. Many people attribute this state of affairs, to ineffective teaching and learning, which stems from the absence of or ineffective supervision in most of the schools (Duodu, 2003).

From the foregoing, Fekadu, (2003) contends that in order to meet educational objectives and enhance the teaching-learning process, supervisors and teachers are expected to design and enrich educational structures capable of making supervisory activities substantive and progressive. Upon this Tesfaye (2003) puts forward that, creative supervisors are needful to discover and devise a means of solving instructional problems. This in the long run will robe in creativity and innovation in supervision; hence supervisors need to keep themselves abreast of new findings by participating in workshops and seminars, by making critical observations, and by taking refresher courses. Based on this Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) suggests the designation of supervisors to be liable for ensuring that plan and selected improvement targets are both realistic and attainable. This suggests that school supervision should not essentially be done on specific times when the entire school is examined and evaluated as a place of learning, but also, the constant and continuous process of guidance, based on frequent visits which focus attention on one or more specific aspects of the school and its

organization. After all, supervisors are expected to make certain that supervisory plans are both practical and achievable (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). It is to make teachers and students realize the need to make good use of instructional time and also for teachers to teach the right curriculum contents.

It is understandable that supervisors also help in the organization of instruction. They do this by making and organizing activities to implement the curriculum designed for schools. Example of such activities is grouping students and planning class schedules for effective teaching and learning. They add that supervisors are to visit classrooms, giving demonstration lessons and exchanging useful ideas with teachers and pupils. Supervisors are also to organize in-service training to cover activities which will enhance the development of the instructional staff members to make them more efficient and effective. What brings the difference between an effective school and that of less effective one is supervision (Swanstrom, 1995). Therefore the relevance of supervision lies in its role in making effective schooling. There is therefore the need to focus on the supervisory practices in schools.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Although the government of Ghana is focused on improving the supervision of instruction in schools, much still needs to be done. Informal discussion among people in the community and related research findings (Oduro, 2008; Opare, 1999) suggest that poor pupil performance in public schools, in part, is the result of ineffective supervision of teachers. Yet, there is no empirical evidence about the nature or quality of supervision of instruction in Ghanaian public schools. Generally, the claim that there is poor

supervision of teachers in public schools in Ghana is based on anecdotes and assumptions. As mentioned earlier, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in collaboration with the Ghana Education Service, has formulated policies to guide supervision of instruction in primary and secondary schools. GES has put supervisory structures in place and occasionally provides in-service training courses and workshops to personnel in supervisory positions (including headteachers) to provide supervision services in schools. Headteachers are, therefore, expected to provide effective supervision of instruction services, given the necessary resources and in-service training. Hence the supervisory practices of headteachers of Junior High Schools in Sefwi Wiawso Municipality of the Western North Region are worth investigating, in order to establish the certainty of the relationships being drawn.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of study is to determine the supervisory practices of headteachers in Junior High Schools in Sefwi Wiawso Municipality of the Western North Region.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The study has the following as specific objectives;

1. To identify the supervisory practices of headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region.
2. To explore challenges headteachers face in performing the supervisory functions in Bosomoiso Circuit.

3. To identify strategies that the headteachers uses to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit.

1.5 Research Questions

In pursuit of the stated intention of the researcher, the following research questions served as guide to the study:

1. What are the major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?
2. What are the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?
3. What are the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study will serve as a guide to the various stakeholders in education to identify problems militating against effective supervision of teaching and learning and therefore provide possible solutions to them. The findings of the study may help Ghana Education Service (GES) to formulate useful guidelines for effective supervision. It may also bring about some innovations in the practice of supervision to promote quality teaching and learning in the schools within the region. Finally, the study would serve as additional literature and research to the collection of knowledge on supervision of teaching and learning. It will then provide the basis for further studies in the area of supervision in Ghanaian schools.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to Bosomoiso Circuit of the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality in the Western North Region. The study was restricted to the views of the headteachers. The research did not consider the perceptions or views of parents and other stakeholders in the educational system concerning the topic.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

The study made use of the case study design. This research method is probably one of the best that the social scientists could use to collect original data for studying a population. Its major limitation is generalisations to a larger population cannot be made due to the sample size. Again, the over reliance of structured items as found in the instrument will be a limitation. The items in the questionnaire used to collect data for this study were fixed set of items, with predetermined responses and therefore the respondents were not given adequate opportunity to express their own views. Also since questionnaires will be used, there will be no way to ascertain the reliability of the responses given and therefore the reliability of the result is dependent on the sincerity of the respondents.

1.9 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one was developed to tackle the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study and research questions. It further discusses the significance of the study, the delimitations of the study, limitations of the study and finally, organisation of the study.

Chapter Two, deals with the review of related literature, documented by some authorities. Chapter Three also will discuss the research methodology. It covered issues relating to the research design, population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection methods, data analysis and ethical consideration. Chapter Four presented the results and the discussion of the findings of the study. Chapter Five, handles the Summary, Conclusions, Recommendations and Suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a comprehensive review of relevant literature in an attempt to position the study in an appropriate conceptual and theoretical framework. The chapter discusses findings of related researches obtained from relevant articles, textbooks, journals, speeches, web sites and other credible sources of information to this study. This chapter also presents the works that have been done by other researchers which were considered relevant for the subject of study.

2.1 Concepts of Supervision

In this section I will discuss various concepts and purposes of supervision of instruction. Some researchers have defined or explained supervision of instruction to include supposed purposes. However, I will briefly discuss some purposes that have been separated from definitions.

Researchers have assigned several definitions and interpretations to supervision, but almost all of them centre on a common aim or objective. The main objective of supervision is to improve teachers' instructional practices, which may in turn improve student learning. Researchers have offered several purposes of supervision of instruction, but the ultimate goal is to improve instruction and student learning. Beach and Reinhartz (1989) think the focus on instructional supervision is to provide teachers with information about their teaching so as to develop instructional skills to improve performance. Also in Bolin and Panaritis' view (as cited in Bays, 2001), supervision is primarily concerned

with improving classroom practices for the benefit of students regardless of what may be entailed (e.g., curriculum development or staff development) (Bays, 2001). Further, McQuarrie and Wood (1991) also state that "the primary purpose of supervision is to help and support teachers as they adapt and adopt, and refine the instructional practices they are trying to implement in their classrooms" (p. 49). Others believe the purpose of supervision is helping teachers to be aware of their teaching and its consequences for their learners (Glickman, Gordon, & Gordon, 1997; Nolan, 1997).

Some researchers have also theorised that supervision is an act of encouraging human relations (Wiles & Bondi, 1996) and teacher motivation (Glickman, Gordon, & Gordon, 1998) and enabling teachers to try out new instructional techniques in a safe, supportive environment (Nolan, 1997). Supervision is believed to provide a mechanism for teachers and supervisors to increase their understanding of the teaching-learning process through collective inquiry with other professionals (Nolan & Francis, 1992). The purposes of supervision provided by these researchers can be grouped under the following themes: improving instruction; fostering curriculum and staff development; encouraging human relations and motivation; and encouraging action research and supporting collaboration.

Supervision was initially described as inspection, which has the connotation of direct control of teachers by school inspectors. The term supervision has gradually taken over inspection, but both terms are sometimes used together. But Musaazi (1982) posits that school supervision which began as inspection has been replaced by that of supervision. The concept and practice of supervision of instruction has evolved over the years (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004; Hoy & Forsyth, 1986; Musaazi, 1982;

Neagley & Evans, 1980; Oliva & Pawlas, 1997). Early supervisors in the 19th century set strict requirements for their teachers and visited classrooms to observe how closely the teachers complied with stipulated instructions; departure from these instructions was cause for dismissal (Oliva & Pawlas, 1997). Oliva and Pawlas bemoan that some school supervisors or inspectors, as they are called in other countries, continue to fulfil their tasks with an authoritarian approach. They note, however, that superintendents (supervisors) have changed their focus from looking for deficiencies that would merit dismissal of teachers to helping teachers overcome their difficulties. Some researchers suggest that supervision was historically viewed as an instrument for controlling teachers. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004) refer to the dictionary definition as to "watch over", "direct", "oversee", and "superintend". They believe that because the historic role of supervision has been inspection and control, it is not surprising most teachers do not equate supervision with collegiality. Hoy and Forsyth (1986), for their part, noted that supervision has its roots in the industrial literature of bureaucracy, and the main purpose was to increase production. To them, the industrial notion of supervision was overseeing, directing and controlling workers, and was, therefore, managements‟ tool to manipulate subordinates. This negative consequence of external control of teachers‟ work lives has resulted in the flight of both new and old teachers from education of both new and experienced educators (Ingersol, 2003).

Some researchers such as Bolin and Panaritis (1992), Glanz (1996), and Harris (1998) (as cited in Bays, 2001) argue that defining supervision has been a recurrent and controversial issue in the field of education. Harris for instance observes that current thoughts in the definition of supervision of instruction do not represent full consensus,

but has listed some common themes across different definitions. These include supporting teaching and learning; responding to changing external realities; providing assistance and feedback to teachers; recognising teaching as the primary vehicle for facilitating school learning; and promoting new, improved and innovative practices. Harris, however, noted that questions of roles, relationships, positions, and even skills and functions remain without full consensus.

Supervision is a service provided to teachers, both individually and in groups, for the purpose of improving instruction, with the student as the ultimate beneficiary (Oliva & Pawlas (1997). Oliva and Pawlas note that it is a means of offering to teachers specialized help in improving instruction. They argue that supervisors should remember that teachers want specific help and suggestions, and they want supervisors to address specific points that can help them to improve.

Similarly, supervision of instruction is seen as a set of activities designed to improve the teaching and learning process. Hoy and Forsyth (1986) contend that the purpose of supervision of instruction is not to judge the competencies of teachers, nor is it to control them but rather to work co-operatively with them. They believe that evaluation, rating, assessment, and appraisal are all used to describe what supervisors do, yet none of them accurately reflects the process of supervision of instruction. To them, such terms are a source of suspicion, fear and misunderstanding among teachers. Hoy and Forsyth (1986) state that although assessment of teacher effectiveness may be necessary, it is not supervision of instruction. They think evaluation is likely to impede and undermine any attempt to improve the teaching-learning process. They suggest the following

propositions form a basis of theory and practice of supervision whose purpose is to improve instruction:

1. The only one who can improve instruction is the teacher himself/herself;

2. Teachers need freedom to develop their own unique teaching styles;

3. Any changes in teaching behaviour require social support as well as professional and intellectual stimulation;

4. A consistent pattern of close supervision and coercion seems unlikely to succeed in improving teaching;

5. Improvement in instruction is likely to be accomplished in a non-threatening situation-byworking with colleagues, not supervisors, and by fostering in teachers a sense of inquiry andexperimentation (p. 4).

Hoy and Forsyth (1986) conclude that the goal of the supervisor is not to solve an immediate problem, but rather to study the process of teaching and learning as part of ongoing system of evaluation and experimentation. Supervision of instruction is also defined as a consciously planned programme for the improvement and consolidation of instruction. Musaazi (1982) posits that supervision focuses upon the improvement of instruction, and is concerned with the continuous redefinition of goals, the wider realisation of human dynamic for learning and for co-operative efforts and the nurturing of a creative approach to problems to teaching and learning. Musaazi emphasises that school supervision does not simply refer to that specific occasion when the whole school is examined and evaluated as a place of learning, but it is also means that constant and continuous process of guidance based on frequent visits which focus attention on one or more aspects of the school and its organization. He notes that achieving the purpose of

supervision depends on the skills and efficiency of the supervisor in working with teachers. Neagley and Evans (1980) define instructional supervision as that phase of school administration which deals primarily with the achievement of the appropriate selected instructional expectations of educational process. They also define supervision as any leadership function that is primarily concerned with the improvement of instruction. Neagley and Evans (1980) argue that modern supervision is democratic in nature:

Modern supervision is considered as any service for teachers that eventually result in improving instruction, learning, and the curriculum. It consists of positive, dynamic, democratic actions designed to improve instruction through the continued growth of all concerned individuals- the child, the teacher, the supervisor, the administrator, and the parent or other lay person (p. 20). Supervision is viewed by other researchers as a combination of administrative procedures and supervision of instruction. The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), a division of UNESCO, observe that supervision practices can be classified under two distinct, but complementary, tasks: to control and evaluate, on one hand, and to advise and support teachers and headteachers (IIEP/UNESCO, 2007, Module 2). The statement explains that "although the ultimate objective of in-school supervision is to improve the teaching/learning processes in the classroom, in practice it must cover the whole range of activities taking place in the school: from the most administrative ones (e.g. ensuring that records are properly completed) to purely pedagogical ones" (IIEP/UNESCO Module 6, 2007). Oghuvbu (2001) claims supervision of instruction involves the process of checking the positive implementation of curriculum and assisting those implementing it. He conceives

inspection and supervision differently, actions aimed at achieving organisational goals. To him, inspection deals with fact finding, and supervision is the assistance aspect concerned with the establishment of a positive superior and subordinate relationship, with special emphasis on specialisation directed towards utilization of available human and material resources in achieving organisational goals.

In their review, Wanzare and da Costa (2000) claim several definitions of supervision of instruction in literature are unique in their focus and purpose, and fall into two broad categories: custodial and humanistic supervision. Citing Drake and Roe, Wanzare and da Costa (2000) note that the "custodial" definition of supervision can mean general overseeing and controlling, managing, administering, evaluating, or any activity in which the principal is involved in the process of running the school, whereas according to Pfeiffer and Dunlap (also cited in Wanzare and da Costa, 2000) the "humanistic" definition suggests that supervision of instruction is multifaceted, interpersonal process that deals with teaching behaviour, curriculum, learning environments, grouping of students, teacher utilization and professional development.

Contemporary definitions of supervision are more elaborate, and focus on the school as a learning community. Specifically, contemporary definitions of supervision of instruction emphasise individual and group development, professional development, curriculum development, and action research. Burke & Krey (2005) define supervision as instructional leadership that relates perspectives to behaviour, focus on processes, contributes to and supports organisational actions, coordinates interactions, provides for improvements and maintenance of instructional programme, and assesses goal achievements. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (1998) also define supervision as the

school function that improves instruction through direct assistance to teachers, group development, professional development, curriculum development and action research. Glickman, Gordon, and Ross- Gordon (1997) posit that the long-term goal of developmental supervision is teacher development towards a point at which teachers, facilitated by supervisors, can assume full responsibility for instructional development. The definition provided by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) is similar to that of Glickman et al. above, but the latter emphasise respect, caring and support for teachers. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) note that supervisors and teachers working together can make the learning environment more user friendly, caring and respect for students, and supportive of a community of leaders. They argue that this remains a primary intellectual and moral challenge of supervisory leadership.

Some researchers have also defined supervision of instruction as a process which utilises a wide array of strategies, methodologies, and approaches aimed at improving instruction and promoting educational leadership as well as change (Glanz & Behar-Horenstein, 2000). These researchers note that the process of supervision and evaluation of instruction at the school level depends primarily on whether the principal functions as an instructional leader. Neagley and Evans (1980) propose some of the principal's functions as an instructional leader. They believe that "a successful instructional leader helps teachers to discover problems related to instruction and learning, assist them in finding procedures to solve these problems, and provides time and resources for creative solutions"

The contemporary concepts of supervision suggest that school supervision is moving gradually from the negative notion of "watching over", "directing", and checking

teachers to an arena of supportive, democratic and flexible activity. Such definitions encompass curriculum planning and development, staff development, group discussion on instructional programme and action research. The definitions of supervision of instruction suggest that those who are being assisted (teachers) be also directly involved in the supervision process. Contemporary definitions also suggest that supervision requires commitment, trust, and respect on the part of both supervisors and teachers, and caring and support for teachers.

2.3 Historical Models of Supervision

In this section I review the various models of supervision which appear in the literature. Supervision takes on several forms. According to Zepeda (2003), the form may be formal or informal, clinical or some of the modifications of the original clinical supervisory model (action research, differentiated or developmental). Models of supervision refer to eras or periods of time in which supervision was influenced by social, political and economic movements in society and ducation, as described by Bolin and Panaritis (1992); and Glanz (1996) (cited in Bays, 2001). They traced the history, which they term models, from the 19th century to the present day. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) observe that supervisory practice has evolved since its origin in colonial time, and its effectiveness as a means of improving instruction depends on the ability of educational leaders to remain responsive to the needs of teachers and students. It is because of this assertionbthat in most cases advocates and practitioners build upon and/or modify existing strategies with the intention of improving practices.

Bays (2001) presents different models of the evolution of supervision yet, most of them are consistent with seven stages: 1. Inspection; 2. Efficiency; 3. Democracy; 4. Scientific; 5. Human relations; 6. Second wave scientific; and 7. Human development (Bays, 2001). Daresh (2006) identifies four models (which he termed perspectives) as Inspection, Scientific activity, Human relations activity, and Human resource development. All of Daresh‟s models are subsumed under the seven listed above. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) also present seven models with accompanying periods of time within which the models were practised. The models are: 1. Inspection (Pre-1900); 2. Social efficiency (1900-1919); 3. Democracy (1920s); 4. Scientific (1930-1950s); 5. Leadership (1960s); 6. Clinical (1970-1980s); and 7. Changing concepts (1990s). The literature also identifies other contemporary models as developmental (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon; 1998), collegial (Glatthorn, 1990; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000), differentiated supervision (Glatthorn, Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993), which have their roots in clinical supervision.

2.3.1 Supervision as inspection.

Supervision as inspection (also termed the traditional form of supervision) was the dominant method for administering schools in the 19th century (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Teachers were viewed as deficient and inspectors inspected their practices for errors (Glanz, 1998). Supervisors employed the tools of directing, controlling and overseeing the activities of teachers to ensure that teachers performed their duties as expected. In this form of supervision, supervisors are seen to devote most of their time and attention to finding out what is wrong with what teachers are doing in their classrooms (Daresh, 2006).

The behaviour of supervisors using inspectional practices reflects the view that most teachers are incompetent. Teachers were seen by nineteenth century supervisors as inept (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Daresh (2006) notes that supervisors who use this approach are inclined to suggest what and how teachers should teach. The explanation is that „teachers (mostly female and disenfranchised) were seen as "bedraggled troop-incompetent and backward in outlook" (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992, p. 8). Daresh (2006) also thinks that it is doubtful if those employed (teachers) knew much more than the students. According to Daresh, this resulted in employing more experienced teachers (inspectors) who provided basic oversight to ensure that teachers provided quality of instruction. In colonial African countries (including Ghana) most teachers were untrained. Even today "pupil teachers" are found in some Ghanaian primary schools.

The consequence of this model is that the supervisor has the responsibility of intervening directly in the work of teachers to correct faulty performance. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) refer to the first textbook on supervision (Payne, 1875) in which it is stated emphatically that "teachers must be „held responsible" for the work performed in the classroom and that the supervisor, as expert inspector, would oversee and ensure harmony and efficiency" (p. 8). Because of this, educational supervisors as inspectors were very popular in the earliest period of formal schooling in the US (Daresh, 2006).

2.3.2 Supervision as social efficiency.

Supervision as social efficiency was espoused at the beginning of the twentieth century. This model of supervision was greatly influenced by the technological advancement of the time. Glanz (1998) has noted that supervision at that time was influenced by the scientific principles of business management and industry, and was

aimed at making teaching more efficient. Bobbitt (1913, cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) tried to apply the ideas espoused by Taylor to the problems of educational management and supervision (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). According to Sullivan and colleague, what Bobbitt called „scientific and professional supervisory methods" were, in fact, scientific and bureaucratic methods of supervision which were aimed at finding a legitimate and secure niche for control-oriented supervision within the school bureaucracy, but not to provide professional assistance and guidance to teachers.

Bobbitt also maintains that supervision is an essential function to coordinate school affairs. Bobbitt is quoted as maintaining that "supervisory members must co-ordinate the labours of all, "find the best methods of work, and enforce the use of these methods on the part of the workers" (cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p. 13). Bobbitt's assertion suggests that this model of supervision is similar to supervision by inspection. The only difference between the social efficiency model and inspection is the attempt to introduce impersonal methods in the process of supervision. Sullivan & Glanz note that supervisors believed, as did Bobbitt himself, that "the way to eliminate the personal element from administration and supervision is to introduce impersonal methods of scientific administration and supervision" (p. 14). And this brought about the development of rating schemes, and supervision became synonymous with teacher rating. Supervisors who use this model of supervision rely heavily on teacher rating and evaluation. These supervisors, as well as the proponents, hold the view that rating schemes are objective and purposeful.

2.3.3 Democracy in supervision

The movement to change supervisory theory and practice to a more democratic one occurred in the 1920s as a direct result of growing opposition to autocratic supervisory methods (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). From the 1920s to the 1940s attempts were made to make supervision a more democratic process. Bays (2001) indicates that supervision at this time was seen as a helping function and aimed at improving instruction through paying attention to human relations. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) note that democratic supervision was influenced by Dewey's (1929) theories of democratic and scientific thinking as well as Hosic's (1920) ideas of democratic supervision. According to Pajak (1993), supervisors at that time attempted to apply scientific and co-operative problem solving approaches to educational problems. Hosic (1920, cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) thought that it was not humane, wise, nor expedient for supervisors to be autocratic. Hosic cautioned that the supervisor should eschew his/her "autocratic past".

This model of supervision advocated respect for teachers and co-operation in supervisory processes. Sullivan and colleague posit that the tenets of democratic supervision assumed that educators, including teachers, curriculum specialists, and supervisors would cooperate to improve instruction. Newlon (cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p. 15) maintains that school organisation must be set up to "invite the participation of the teacher in the development courses...." This model recognises the teacher as a fellow worker rather than a mere "cog" in a big machine (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). The idea behind this model is that supervisors and teachers decide together what and how to

teach. This was an initial attempt to introduce collaboration in supervision which involved supervisor and teacher, but not collaboration among teachers.

2.3.4 Scientific supervision

Scientific supervisory practices, the dominant model between the 1920s and 1950s, were advocated by Burton, Barr and Stevens (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). These advocates thought the use of rating cards as a scientific tool for supervising teachers was inadequate. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), Burton (1930) recognised the usefulness of rating scales in some instances and believed it was desirable to devise more objectively pre-determined items to evaluate teaching procedures. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) quote Barr (1931) as having stated emphatically that the application of scientific principles "is a part of a general movement to place supervision on a professional basis" (p. 16). Like other models discussed, proponents of the scientific model of supervision suggest that supervisors should have some level of expertise and skill to direct teachers the way they should teach.

Barr (1931, quoted in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) states in precise terms what the supervisor needs to know: Supervisors must have the ability to analyse teaching situations and to locate the probable causes for poor work with a certain degree of expertness; they must have the ability to use an array of data-gathering device peculiar to the field of supervision itself; they must possess certain constructive skills for the development of new means, methods, and materials of instruction; they must know how teachers learn to teach; they must have the ability to teach teachers how to teach; and they must be able to evaluate. In short, they must possess training in both the science of

instructing pupils and the science of instructing teachers. Both are included in the science of supervision.

Scientific supervision is based on the premise that measurement instruments should be used to determine the quality of instruction. Barr (1925, cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) argued that the methods of science should be applied to the study and practice of supervision, and as such the results of supervision must be measured. He was of the view that the probable causes of poor work could be explored through the use of tests, rating scales and observational instruments. The use of observational instruments as a means of improving supervision was reinforced by the use of "stenographic reports" which were devised by Romiett Stevens. He thought the best way to improve instruction was to record verbatim accounts of actual lessons "without criticism or comment". Hoetker and Ahlbrand (1969, cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p. 17) noted that Stevens's stenographic accounts were "the first major systematic study of classroom behaviour".

We have to bear in mind that teaching is an art where individuals bring to bear their creativity, expertise, beliefs, emotions, perceptions, human relations and value judgement into the teaching process. Therefore, for supervisors to rely on pre-determined standards of teaching may not be helpful to all teachers. This supervisory procedure may, however, serve as a guide to keep some teachers (especially beginning and non-professional teachers) on track.

2.3.5 Supervision as leadership

The fifth phase of supervision, which emerged in the 1960s, is supervision as leadership. Robert R. Leeper (cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) compiled articles about this model from several advocates and authors and published them in the journal

Educational Leadership. Leeper (1969, cited in Sullivan and Glanz (2000)) argued that supervision as inspection which found justification in the production-oriented, social efficiency era and bureaucratic supervision was no longer viable. The basis of supervision as leadership model was to remove itself from supervisory practices of the past.

The model of supervision they proposed then focused on democracy and human relations. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), Leeper (1969) and other authors of this model maintain supervisors must extend "democracy in their relations with teachers". The advocates propose that those engaged in supervision should provide leadership in five ways: developing mutually acceptable goals, extending co-operative and democratic methods of supervision, improving classroom instruction, promoting research into educational problems, and promoting professional leadership.

2.3.6 Clinical supervision

The Clinical supervision model emerged in the 1970s and originated from the pioneering work of Robert Goldhammer and Morris Cogan in a collaborative study of teaching through Harvard University (Miller & Miller, 1987). Through a research base, Goldhammer and Cogan wrote their books with the same title "Clinical Supervision" in 1969 and 1973 respectively (Miller & Miller, 1987). This was the period when the field of supervision was plagued by uncertainty and ambiguities (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). According to Sullivan and Glanz, Goldhammer and Cogan developed this model at the time when practitioners and researchers were making concerted efforts to reform supervision, and their work was reflected in a broader attempt to seek alternatives to traditional education practice. Clinical supervision, therefore, emerged as result of

contemporary views of weakness and dissatisfaction with traditional education practice and supervisory methods (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000).

The early developers of clinical supervision contend that the focus of supervision should be on the teacher as an active member in the instructional process (Cogan, 1973; and Goldhammer, 1969). Cogan (1973) asserts that the central objective of the entire clinical process is the development of a professionally responsible teacher who can analyse his/her own performance, open up for others to help him/her, and be self-directing. He advises, however, against the misconception that the teacher can dispense with the services of a supervisor entirely. To him such situations rarely occur, and that almost all teachers need some sort of contributions from supervisors and other personnel occasionally, and at appropriate intervals.

Clinical supervision is based on the premise that teaching would be improved by a prescribed, formal process of collaboration between the teacher and supervisor. The principal advocates (Goldhammer & Cogan) believe the focus of clinical supervision is a face-to-face interaction between teacher and supervisor with the intent to improve instruction and increase professional growth (Acheson & Gall, 1980). Cogan conceives that the purpose of supervisors working collaboratively with teachers is to provide expert direct assistance to them (teachers) with the view of improving instruction.

Advocates of clinical supervision also believe that the focus of the model is on collection of descriptive data from detailed observation of the teaching process to guide practice. The data includes what teachers and students do in the classroom during teaching learning process. These are supplemented by information about teachers‟ and students‟ perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and knowledge relevant to the instruction (Cogan,

1973). Cogan believes that for supervision to be effective, both the supervisor and teacher involved should collaboratively use the data collected in the classroom to plan programmes, procedures and strategies to improve the teacher's classroom behaviour, including instructional techniques.

Although the original developers of clinical supervision (Cogan & Goldhammer) propose eight phases, other authors have proposed different numbers of phases, usually three to five. The original eight phases (Cogan, 1973, p. 10-12) include:

Phase 1: Establishing the teacher-supervisory relationship. At this stage, the supervisor: establishes the clinical relationship between her/himself and the teacher (rapport); helps the teacher to achieve some general understandings about clinical supervision as a perspective on its sequences; and begins to induct the teacher into the new functions of supervision.

Phase 2: Planning with the teacher. The supervisor and the teacher plan a lesson together, anticipated outcomes and problems of instruction are shared and materials and strategies of teaching, processes of learning and provision for feed-back and evaluation are agreed upon.

Phase 3: Planning the strategy for observation. The supervisor and the teacher agree on the objectives, processes and aspects of observation to be collected. At this stage, the functions of the supervisor in the observation process are clearly specified.

Phase 4: Observing instruction. The supervisor observes the classroom (lessons) and records the actual classroom event as he/she see it, but not her/his interpretation.

Phase 5: Analyzing the teaching-learning processes. The teacher and supervisor analyze the events that took place in the classroom. Decisions are made about the procedures with careful regard to teacher's developmental level and needs at that moment.

Phase 6: Planning the strategy of the conference. Initially, the supervisor alone develops the plan (alternatives and strategies for conducting the conference). At subsequent times, this planning could be done jointly with the teacher.

Phase 7: The conference. At this phase, the supervisor and teacher meet to review the observation data.

Phase 8: Renewed Planning. The supervisor and teacher decide on the kinds of changes to be effected in the teacher's classroom behaviour. Both supervisor and teacher begin to plan the next lesson and the changes the teacher will attempt to make in his instructional processes.

They then begin planning when the next cycle will take place. Other researchers have reduced the original eight phases to between three and five (Acheson & Gall, 1980; and Glickman, 1990). Acheson and Gall describe the three phases as: planning a conference (pre-observation conference); the actual observation; and feedback conference. Glickman (1990) also describes five phases as: pre-conference; class observation; analysis and interpretation; post-observation conference; and critique of four phases. Glickman's (1990, p. 280-285) five phases are:]

1) Pre-conference with teacher; the supervisor meets with teachers and presents to her/him the reason and purpose for the observation, the focus, method and form to be used, time of observation and time for postconference;

2) observation of class; observation methods may include categorical frequencies, physical indicators, performance indicators, visual diagramming, space utilization open-ended narratives, participant observation, focused questionnaire etc. (in this phase, the supervisor only has to describe the events as they unfold, but not to interpret them); 3) analyzing and interpreting observation and determining conference approach; the supervisor leaves the classroom and carry out the analysis and interpretation alone; 4) post-observation conference with teacher; both the supervisor and the teacher discuss the analyses of observation and finally produce a plan for instructional improvement; and, 5) critique of the previous four steps; both supervisor and teacher review format and procedures from conference to ascertain whether they were satisfactory and whether there was the need for revision, and put a plan in place to begin the cycle. Miller and Miller (1987) argue that clinical supervision has advantages over the previous models. They note that clinical supervision allows for objective feedback, which if given in a timely manner, will lead to improved results. Clinical supervision also diagnoses instructional problems and provides valuable information to solve such problems. In the end, improvements in instruction are heightened as teachers are able to develop new skills and strategies. Data on students may include feedback from class work and test results, which could also be useful to improve instruction. A wide range of data collection instruments employed in this model would provide supervisors with individual teachers‟ peculiar problems than pre-determined rating scales and evaluation procedures inherent in the “scientific supervision”.

2.3.7 Developmental supervision

This model of supervision was proposed by Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (1998). In this model, the supervisor chooses an approach which will suit the individual teacher characteristics and developmental level. The notion underlying this model is that each person is continuously growing „in fits and starts" in growth spurts and patterns (Leddick, 1994). The supervisor might choose to use directive, collaborative or nondirective approaches when working with each teacher.

In reviewing developmental supervision, Worthington (1987, cited in Leddick, 1994) notes some patterns of behaviour change in the supervisory activity. He observes that supervisors" behaviour change as supervisees gain experience and supervisory relationships also change. Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987, cited in Leddick, 1994) indicate that supervisees" progress in experience from a beginning stage, through intermediate to advanced levels of development. They observe that at each level of development, the trend begins in a rigid, shallow, imitative way and moves towards more competence, self-assurance and self-reliance.

Researchers have also observed the changing level of autonomy of supervisees as they progressively gain experience. Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987, in Ledick, 1994) believe that beginning supervisees may depend on the supervisor to diagnose clients" (students") behaviour and establish plans for remediation, whereas intermediate supervisees would depend on supervisors for an understanding of difficult clients, but would sometimes chafe at suggestions. To them advanced supervisees function independently, seek consultation when appropriate, and feel responsible for their correct and incorrect decisions.

Differentiated model of supervision

Another contemporary model which evolved from clinical supervision is differentiated supervision. Sergiovanni (2009) states categorically that no one-best-way strategy, model, or set of procedures for supervision makes sense apart from differentiated supervision. He notes that "a differentiated system of supervision which is more in tune with growth levels, personality characteristics, needs and interests, and professional commitments of teachers is needed" (p. 281). In support of this assertion, Glatthorn (1990) observes that clinical supervision is often offered from a "one-up" vantage point: the supervisor is assumed to know all the answers, and is ready to help the teacher who needs to be improved. He proposes that each school or system should develop its own model which will be responsive to its needs and resources.

The rationale for differentiated supervision is that teachers are different (Sergiovanni,

2009). Sergiovanni points out that formal clinical supervision may be suitable for some teachers, but not all. According to him teacher needs and dispositions as well as work and learning styles vary. Individual teachers respond to different approaches to supervision taking into consideration their needs and competencies, rather than a one-best-way approach.

Glatthorn (1990) also believes differentiated supervision allows teachers to choose from a menu of supervisory and evaluative processes, instead of using the same strategy to supervise all teachers. In view of this, Sergiovanni (2009) suggests that teachers should take an active part in deciding which options for supervision will work well for them and accept responsibility for making options work.

Differentiated supervision also involves the use of informal classroom visitations to assess and assist individual teachers. Sergiovanni (2009) suggests that principals should view themselves as coaches and principal teachers by working side by side with teachers in planning lessons together, teaching together, and trying to understand what is going on in the class together. He posits that principals who supervise by practicing coaching by "walking around" can make significant impact in helping, in building trust, and in learning with their teachers.

2.3.8 Collegial supervision

Some researchers in the field of supervision also propose collegial supervision- another offspring of clinical supervision (Glatthorn, 1990; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993; Sergiovanni, 2009; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) believe that promoting collegiality among teachers is an important way to help schools change for the better. Collegial supervision, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), refers to "the existence of high levels of collaboration among teachers and between teachers and principals and is characterized by mutual respect, shared work values, cooperation, and specific conversations about teaching and learning" (p. 103). Glatthorn (1990) describes collegial supervision as a "cooperative professional development process which fosters teacher growth through systematic collaboration with peers" (p. 188). He asserts that this process includes a variety of approaches such as professional dialogue, curriculum development, peer observations and feedback, and action research. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), citing Little"s (1982) work note that in collegial supervision, teachers engage in frequent, continuous, and increasingly concrete talk about teaching practice, frequently observe one another and provide useful critiques of their teaching practice.

Collegial supervision also affords teachers the opportunity to plan, design, research, evaluate and prepare teaching materials together. In summarizing the research on collegiality, Fullan (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993), believes interaction with others influences what one does and results in learning something new. He argues that the theory of change points to the importance of peer relationships in a school, and that interaction is the primary basis for social learning.

In collegial supervision, teachers take turns assuming the role of clinical supervisor as they help each other (Sergiovanni, 2009). But for teachers to assume the position of supervisors (peer supervision), Sergiovanni suggests that they (peers) need training and experience. According to Sergiovanni, participation requires much more training in conferencing, information collecting, and other supervisory techniques than typically necessary for other forms of supervision. He asserts that for teachers to be clinical supervisors, they will need to receive the proper training; and training takes time and experience.

2.4 Approaches to Supervision

Researchers have identified different approaches that supervisors who use clinical, and other supervision models which evolved from clinical supervision, apply to supervision. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) note that during post- observation conference, supervisors may employ directive (control or informational), collaborative, and non-directive approaches to address issues which crop up to plan actions for instructional improvement. They contend that even though a supervisor may employ a combination of these approaches, he/she may be more inclined to one of them. A

supervisor's inclination to any one of a combination of these approaches stems from his/her philosophical orientation or previous experience with other supervisors.

Supervisors‟ use of a particular approach may differ from one teacher to another. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) argue supervisors consider the teacher's level of experience in instructional practices and developmental level when selecting a supervision approach. It is also likely that the contexts within which a supervisor works influences his/her approach.

State and national policies may also spell out procedures and approaches to be used by supervisors in their schools.

2.4.1 Directive approach

Supervisors who use a directive approach believe that teaching consists of technical skills with known standards and competencies for all teachers to be effective in their instructional practices (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 2002). According to this approach, the roles of the supervisor are to direct, model, and assess competencies. These researchers observe that supervisors using this approach present their own ideas on what information is to be collected and how it will be collected, direct the teacher on the action plan to be taken, and demonstrate the appropriate teaching methods. The directive supervisor sets standards for improvement based on the preliminary baseline information from classroom observation, shows teachers how to attain standards, and judges the most effective way to improve instruction.

The directive supervisory approach takes two forms: directive control and directive informational. In both situations, the supervisor and teacher go through the

clinical supervisory stages up to the post-conference phase where action plans for improvement are to be taken (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980). Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) and Glickman (2002) indicate that in the directive control supervisory approach, the supervisor details what the teacher is to do, and spells out the criteria for improvement. But in the directive informational approach, the supervisor provides alternative suggestions from which the teacher can choose, instead of telling the teacher what actions to take. The supervisor does not directly determine what action a teacher should embark upon. However, the ideas come from the supervisor.

The directive approach in clinical supervision is a reminiscent of the traditional form of supervision. It presumes that the supervisor is more knowledgeable about instructional procedures and strategies than the teacher, and that his/her decisions are more effective that those of teachers in terms of instructional improvement. However, in the directive approach to supervision the supervisor employs the clinical techniques discussed above, especially a vast array of data collecting instruments. In the traditional model of supervision, all teachers are thought to be at the same level at the same time, and are expected to use the same approach to teaching similar contents.

The directive approach to clinical supervision does not emphasise fault-finding as practised by inspectors in traditional supervision. Researchers suggest the directive approach to supervision should be employed when dealing with new and inexperienced teachers (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 1990). They believe that this approach should be used in an emergency situation in which the teacher is totally inexperienced, or incompetent in the current classroom situation. Similarly, Glickman (1990) believes this approach is useful when the teacher does not have awareness,

knowledge, or inclination to act on issues that the supervisor thinks to be of crucial importance to the students. According to Glickman (1990), this approach is employed "to save the students by keeping the teacher from drowning in the sea of ineffective practice" (p. 83). Pajak (2001) also suggests the directive approach should be used on new and inexperienced teachers. He argues a new teacher may have difficulty grappling with a problem presented in a straightforward manner. He, however, cautions that being overly directive can easily encourage dependency in the new teacher toward the supervisor.

2.4.2 Collaborative approach

Supervisors who employ this approach believe that teaching is primarily problem-solving, in which two or more people pose a problem, experiment and implement those teaching strategies that are deemed relevant. According to Glickman (1990), the supervisor's role in this approach is to guide the problem-solving process, be an active member of the interaction and help keep teachers focused on their common problems. The leader and teacher mutually agree on the structures, processes, and criteria for subsequent instructional improvement.

In the collaborative approach to supervision both the supervisor and teacher mutually negotiate the plan of action (Glickman, 1990). Views of both parties are included in the final plan of action for instructional improvement. According to Glickman, both the supervisor and teacher review, revise, reject, propose and counter propose until they both come to a mutual agreement. He posits that each party must accept modifications of ideas, rather than taking a hard stand. Glickman (1990, p. 147) contends that the final product of the collaboration is a contract agreed upon by both and carried out as a joint responsibility in the following manner:

Presenting: the leader confronts the teacher with his/her perceptions of the instructional area needing improvement;

Clarifying: the leader asks for the teacher's perceptions of the instructional area in question;

Listening: the supervisor listens to teachers' perceptions;

Problem-solving: both the supervisor and the teacher propose alternate actions for improvement (supervisor does not impose action plans on teacher);

Negotiating: the supervisor and teacher discuss the options and alter proposed actions until a joint plan is agreed upon. Assumption underlying this approach is that both supervisors and teachers perceive each other as valuable partners in the supervisory process. There is, therefore, a sense of trust and respect between the two parties. The supervisee in this approach is likely to not feel threatened in pursuit of his/her instructional practices, and will probably welcome the observation processes.

Collaborative supervision is premised in participation. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) and Glickman (1990) suggest that this approach is employed when both the supervisor and teacher intensely care about the problem at hand, and will be involved in carrying out a decision to solve the problem. Glickman and colleague also suggest that this approach should be employed when both the supervisor and teacher have approximately the same degree of expertise on an issue to decide on. The more supervisors involve teachers in decisions affecting their instructional practices, the more the latter make an effort to contribute and are willing to implement a plan they have been part of.

2.4.3 Non-directive approach

This approach is based on the premise that teachers are capable of analysing and solving their own instructional problems. Glickman (2002) argues that when an individual teacher sees the need for change and takes responsibility for it, instructional improvement is likely to be meaningful. The leader in this approach is only a facilitator who provides direction or little formal structures to the plan. This behaviour of the leader (supervisor), according to Glickman, should not be misconstrued as passive, or allowing complete teacher autonomy. Instead, the supervisor actually uses the behaviour of listening, clarifying, encouraging and presenting to guide the teacher towards self-recovery.

The leader who adopts the non-directive approach may not use the five steps of the standard format of clinical supervision. Glickman indicates that the supervisor may simply observe the teacher without analysing and interpreting, listen without making suggestions, or provide requested materials and resources rather than arrange in-service training. A non directive approach to supervision is often employed when dealing with experienced teachers (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 2002). Glickman (2002) suggests that the nondirective approach to supervision should be employed when a teacher or group of teachers possess most of the knowledge and expertise about an issue and the supervisor's knowledge and expertise is minimal. Glickman and Tamashiro also suggest that a non-directive approach should be employed when a teacher or a group of teachers has full responsibility for carrying out a decision, or care about solving a problem and the supervisor has little involvement. When a supervisor has little knowledge and expertise about an issue, he/she can still employ the collaborative

approach. On such occasions, the supervisor should not lead the discussion, but rather solicit opinions, ask for clarification, reflect on issues being discussed, and present his/her opinions and suggestions.

2.5 The supervisory practices of head teachers

In this section I review supervisor characteristics and practices from theories and empirical studies. Theorists and empirical studies have described how supervisor characteristics and practices have the potential to improve instruction. The characteristics include personal attributes that supervisors possess and exhibit in the course of their work, as well as their knowledge of content, expertise and skills, behaviour, and attitudes towards teachers. The practices may include activities they go through and the techniques they employ while performing their roles as instructional supervisors. Blasé and Blasé (2004) note that there is a paucity of research that describes how instructional supervision is actually practised in schools, as well as how teachers are actually affected by such supervision. Blasé and Blasé (2004) cite other researchers to support their claim that what actually exist are exploratory studies of supervisory conferencing (Dungan, 1993; Roberts, 1991a); micro politics of supervisor-teacher interaction in public schools (Blasé & Blasé, 2004); and, related studies of precepting in medical schools (Blasé &

Hekelman, 1996; Hekelman & Blasé (1996). Many studies have referred to Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study of "teachers‟ perspectives on how principals promote teaching and learning in schools". The data were provided by teachers who were taking a course at three major universities located in the south-eastern, mid-western and north-eastern USA. The teachers provided a range of supervisor characteristics and practices which has served as an inventory to Blasé and Blasé. They grouped the characteristics into two:

those which promoted effective supervision, and those which were found to be ineffective. The respondents in their study used terms like „successful‟ and „effective‟ to describe situations which they deemed appropriate to improvement of instruction.

2.5.1 Trust and respect

Researchers believe that teachers have trust and confidence in a supervisor who is knowledgeable and an instructional expert. Supervisors are expected to be knowledgeable in content and teaching strategies to be able to provide assistance and support to teachers. Teachers‟ trust in the principal's ability to assist and support them in their instructional practices is essential in the supervisory process (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). They suggest that teachers must be able to rely on supervisors for instructional assistance, moral boosting, and curriculum planning. They also suggest that supervisors should be honest to their teachers and be open to discussions. They finally propose that supervisors must have a working knowledge of the curriculum and pedagogy and, be a "master teacher".

Similarly, Holland (2004) posits that educators (supervisors) must demonstrate evidence that they have the necessary knowledge and skills to make important decisions about what they do and how they do it. She believes that credentials alone do not inspire trust, but rather how they are applied in practice. She also believes that teachers would trust a supervisor with whom they can confide. Teachers will not trust a supervisor who discusses teachers‟ performances and instructional practices with other people, whether openly or surreptitiously. Sullivan and Glanz (2000), on their part, believe the supervisor's continued attendance at in-service training helps him/her to be able to provide useful assistance, advice, and support to teachers; and thereby develop the trust that teachers have in him/her. Having knowledge lone is not important, but using it

judiciously to help teachers grow professionally is the ultimate objective. Pansiri (2008), in his study of teachers‟ perspectives of "instructional leadership for quality learning" in Botswana, found that 77 percent of the public primary teachers who participated in his study trusted their supervisors. Rous‟ (2004) study of public primary schools in the US state of Kentucky revealed, however, that although the supervisors in her study were knowledgeable, they neglected the teachers most of the time. Rous (2004) in her study in the US public primary schools on "teachers‟ perspectives about instructional supervision and behaviour that influence preschool instruction" found out that instructional supervisors in her study who showed respect for staff, families, and children and demonstrated caring for children and teachers facilitated classroom instruction. Teacher participants in this study reported that their supervisors did not force them to teach in limited ways, nor were they criticised by their instructional leaders for trying out new approaches and teaching strategies.

2.5.1 Listening

Listening to, and hearing the needs of teachers are one of the responsibilities of supervisors (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Teachers in Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study indicated that their supervisors listened to their concerns and tried to assist them in any way possible. One respondent remarked that his supervisor shared upcoming units with him, and often offered additional ideas to enhance his lessons. Public primary school teachers in Botswana who participated in Pansiri's (2008) study also indicated that their supervisors listened to their concerns, as well as being accessible and approachable.

2.5.2 Praise

Researchers have theorised and shown empirically that praising teachers significantly affects teacher motivation, self-esteem, and efficacy (Blasé & Blasé, 1999, 2004). They are also of the view that praise fosters teachers‟ reflective behaviour, by reinforcing teaching strategies, risk-taking, and innovation/creativity. Praising teachers is a critical function in instructional leadership (Blasé & Blasé, 2004) and pedagogical leadership (Pansiri, 2008). In his study in Botswana, Pansiri (2008) reported that 70 percent of the public primary school teachers who participated in his study indicated that their supervisors praised them for demonstrating good teaching strategies. Blasé and Blasé (1999) also found that principals (instructional supervisors) in their US study gave praise that focused on specific and concrete teaching behaviour.

2.5.3. Planning for lesson observation.

Proponents of clinical supervision such as Cogan and Goldhammer advise that supervisors mutually plan lesson observation with teachers, rather than supervisors entering the classroom unexpectedly, and with pre-determined rating items. Blasé and Blasé (2004) suggest that supervisors should mutually decide with their teachers on what and how to observe before proceeding to the classroom to observe a lesson. In Pansiri‟s study (2008), 75 percent of his teacher participants in Botswana indicated their supervisors planned class visits with them. The teachers accepted the supervisors as partners for instructional improvement, rather than viewed their visits as intrusion into their private instructional behaviour. Ayse Bas‟ (2002) study of Turkish private schools found, however, that the principal determined when visits would be conducted without consulting with teachers.

2.5.3 Informal visits

Some researchers have theorised that supervisors‟ frequent visit classrooms (walk-throughs) make their presence felt in the school (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Rous, 2004). Such visits are usually not planned, but to put teachers on the alert to ensure that they (teachers) make good use of instructional time, and chip in support to teachers when necessary. Rous (2004) reported that lack of contact between teachers and instructional supervisors in her study negatively affected instructional practices.

Empirical studies have also shown that informal visits motivated teachers to improve their instructional strategies and teachers‟ time-on-task. In her study of selected public primary school teachers in the US, Rous (2004) found that most teachers believed that their supervisors‟ frequent visits and calls were important activities, whereas others reported that their supervisors were not seen in the classrooms enough. She observed that teachers were energized when supervisors “dropped by” the classrooms and interacted with the students. This was seen as a demonstration of supervisors‟ concern for teachers, students and programme. Similar studies conducted in Ghana have shown that frequent visits to classrooms are necessary to improve teachers‟ time-on-task. Oduro (2008) and the World Bank report (Education in Ghana: Improving equity, efficiency and accountability of education delivery, 2011) have found that some teachers in public primary schools in Ghana are in the habit of absenting themselves from school. The World Bank report revealed that only 109 out of 197 school days are fully operational as teachers spent other days engaged in activities such as salaries, attending funerals, and travelling long distances to their schools.

2.5.4 Observing lessons

Lesson observation is one major function of supervisors. In almost all models discussed earlier, lesson observation has been seen as a major tool supervisors use to assess the content knowledge of teachers and their competency in instructional strategies and practices, so as to provide the necessary assistance to improve instruction. In such visits, it is imperative for the supervisor to focus on what was agreed upon to be observed during the pre-observation conference (Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 1990; Goldhammer, 1969; Miller & Miller, 1987). This is supposed to guide supervisors to stay on track and be objective in their practices.

Empirical studies have shown that although some supervisors were able to observe lessons, others were unable to do so. Some participants in Pansiri's (2008) study indicated that their supervisors visited classrooms with the intention of supervising instruction but were unable to provide professional support to the teachers. However, other participants reported their supervisors observed classes and wrote notes based solely on what was occurring in the classroom. Pansiri did not show the proportion in each case. The group of participants who received feedback reported that their supervisors carried out classroom supervision positively.

Pansiri did not, however, indicate whether those supervisors who could not offer professional support to the teachers were not knowledgeable in the subjects been taught or limited in expertise. Rous (2004) also reported that supervisors in her US study did not have enough time to observe lessons. Some participants in her study reported that their supervisors were not seen in their classrooms enough.

2.5.6 Questioning

Proponents of clinical supervision such as Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) suggest that supervisors use questioning to guide and assist teachers improve their instructional strategies. Supervisors are expected to use probing questions during pre-observation conferences, classroom observations, and post-observation conferences to guide and assist teachers plan their lessons, use appropriate teaching techniques, and take decisions to improve instruction (Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Cogan (1973) and Gold hammer (1969) posit that questioning could be used at any stage of the supervisory process-planning a lesson, selecting instructional materials, during teaching, and assessing students.

A study of public school teachers‟ perceptions about instructional leadership in the US revealed that supervisors who participated in the study often used questioning approach to solicit teachers‟ actions about instructional matters (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). Participants in that study remarked that such questions served as guide to make them reflect on their actions, know what to do next, and evaluate what they did. In a similar study, all five participants in a 3-year longitudinal study agreed that using thought-provoking questions to guide teachers improved their instructional practice (Holland, 2004). The participants indicated that such questions are designed to reassure teachers that supervisors are simply seeking information, but do not put teachers on the defensive by telling them what they should do or what they are not doing. The participants were from the same large urban school district and were being groomed as secondary administrators. Holland did not, however, mention the place (context) in which the study took place. It could be helpful if supervisors use probing questions to assess individual

teacher's content knowledge and instructional skills so as to provide the necessary guidance and assistance to improve instruction.

2.4.7. Offering suggestions

Another supervisory practice which researchers have found to be fruitful is the provision of suggestions to guide instruction (Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Suggestions serve as guides to help teachers choose among alternative plans, varied teaching strategies, and classroom management practices. Blasé and colleague (2004) observe that principals (supervisors) make suggestions in such a way as to broaden, or enrich teachers‟ thinking and strengths. They note that suggestions encourage creativity and innovation, as well as support work environment.

The teachers in Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study overwhelmingly reported that successful principals (supervisors) offered suggestions to improve teaching and learning, vary their instructional methods, and help solve problems. The participants found principals‟ suggestions fruitful, and strongly enhanced reflection and informed instructional behaviour.

Rous's (2004) findings were consistent with the one mentioned above. Public primary school teachers in her US study reported that their principals commonly offered suggestions. The teachers acknowledged that when their supervisors offered helpful suggestions on instructional practices, it increased their ability to solve classroom problems. Rous observed that teachers in her study were willing to try suggestions which were offered sincerely and positively. The use of the word "helpful" in the report suggests that not all suggestions may be useful to the teachers.

2.5.8 Feedback

Visiting classrooms and providing feedback to teachers is considered one of the major roles of supervisors. Feedback provides teachers help them reflect on what actually took place in the teaching-learning process. Blasé and Blasé (2004) believe that feedback should not be a formality, but should serve as a guide for instructional improvement when it is given genuinely. Similarly, feedback (whether formally or informal, written or oral) should focus on observations rather than perspectives. Blasé and Blasé (2004) theorise that feedback reflectively informs teacher behaviour; and this results in teachers implementing new ideas, trying out a variety of instructional practices, responding to student diversity, and planning more carefully and achieving better focus.

Teachers in Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study reported that effective principals provided them with positive feedback about observed lessons. They indicated that such feedback was specific; expressed caring, interest and support in a non-judgmental way; and encouraged them to think and re-evaluate their strategies. Similarly, Rous (2004) also reported that in the US public schools, feedback offered by supervisors was a formal behaviour, and was objective and based solely on class observation. Teachers in this study saw feedback to be constructive, and very helpful to them in their instructional practices. Pansiri (2008) also reported that 70 percent of public primary school teachers in Botswana who participated in his study indicated their supervisors provided them with constructive feedback about classroom observation. However, these findings are inconsistent with Bays‟ (2001) findings in rural districts in the state of Virginia. She found that instructional support and specific feedback for teacher participants in the area of special education appeared to be limited.

2.5.9 Modelling lessons

Researchers have theorised that lesson demonstration can improve teachers‟ instructional practices (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006). Supervisors use demonstration lessons to assist teachers individually and in groups. This practice is not only used to guide new and inexperienced teachers, but veterans as well. Supervisors may learn strategies from teachers during their classroom observations, and transfer such learned activity to other teachers to try them out in their classrooms.

Research studies have shown that supervisors use lesson demonstrations to help teachers to improve their instructional practices. US pre-school teachers in Rous (2004) study reported that their instructional supervisors modelled appropriate techniques, and admitted that such practices were a good source of assistance in dealing with children with special needs. Similarly, Blasé and Blasé (1999) found in the US that those supervisors in their study demonstrated teaching techniques during classroom visits. In Blasé and Blasé's study, participants did not consider the supervisors‟ actions as intrusive, because the latter had already cultivated respectful and trusting relationship with teachers. On the flip side, 71 percent of the teachers in Botswana who participated in Pansiri's (2008) study indicated that their supervisors neither gave demonstration lessons nor coached them how to handle certain topics or lessons. Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2006) also found in the US that supervisors in their study never modelled teaching. One participant remarked "she (principal) doesn't model anything".

Teaching resources

It is widely believed that teaching-learning resources can improve instruction. An empirical research study has shown that some instructional supervisors ensured that teachers were provided with, and assisted to select appropriate teaching materials and resources to improve instruction (Rous, 2004). Rous (2004) indicated that although some supervisors in her study in the US public schools provided teachers with resources, materials, and funds to support classroom activities, others reported instances where instructional supervisors failed to provide resources needed by teachers to implement quality instruction. In Botswana, 59 percent of the teachers in the public primary schools Pansiri (2008) studied reported that they did not have „all" the teaching materials they needed for their classes. Only 22 percent of the participants in his study said they were provided with enough teaching materials. This situation of insufficient learning resources may be due to economic reasons and not peculiar to Botswana alone but common in public schools in other developing countries as well.

In some African public schools (including Ghana), textbooks are supplied by the government, but headteachers have to make requisition for the quantity needed in every subject. With respect to other teaching resources, the schools procure what they require. In Pansiri's study, 53 percent of his teacher participants reported that their supervisors did not involve them in resource selection and procurement. Under the new policy, heads in Ghana are expected to involve teachers in the preparation of the School Performance Improvement Plan (SPIP). The teaching materials and resources (apart from textbooks) which the school would need for an academic year are included on the item list of the SPIP.

2.5.10 Professional development

In-service training in the form of workshops, conferences, and symposia, as well as distributing literature about instruction, equip teachers with expertise as a form of professional development (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Glickman, 2003). It is the responsibility of supervisors to provide teachers with in-service training sessions, as well as encourage them to attend workshops and conferences to bring them abreast with time in their instructional practices. In their study, Blasé and Blasé (1999) found in their study that successful principals provided teachers with information about and encouraged teachers to attend workshops, seminars, and conferences about instruction. These supervisors were also reported to have provided their teachers with funds, informed teachers of innovative seminars, and workshops.

Teachers in this study admitted they had learnt a lot of new techniques and challenges to stay abreast with recent development. Similarly, 83 percent of public school teachers who participated in a study in Botswana indicated that their supervisors ran school-based workshops to address the curriculum needs of teachers, and 73 percent of them were given the opportunity to facilitate in such workshops (Pansiri, 2008).

Another form of support supervisors are expected to provide to teachers is professional literature and current issues about instruction. Blasé and Blasé (1999) indicated supervisors in their study regularly distributed professional literature about current and useful instructional practices to their teachers. Supervisors in government and private-aided senior secondary schools who participated in Tyagi's (2009) study in India used weekly staff meetings to make teachers aware of current educational programmes.

In addition, teachers in that study were given access to relevant professional literature, journals and magazines.

2.5.11 Promoting collaboration

Researchers suggest that supervisors provide time and opportunities for teachers to collaborate with one another to improve their instructional strategies and skills (Blasé and Blasé, 1999; DuFour, 2004; Glickman, Gordon & Ross- Gordon, 2001; Sergiovanni & Starratt 1993). DuFour describes collaboration as a systematic process in which teachers work together to analyse and implement their classroom practices to improve instruction. He suggests that formal teams must have time to meet during the weekday and throughout the school year. Promoting collegiality (collaboration) among teachers has been theorised by researchers as an important way to help schools change for the better (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993) because interaction with one another influences what one does (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993). Blasé and Blasé (2004) argue that collaboration results in teacher motivation, self-esteem, efficacy, and reflective behaviour, such as risk taking, instructional variety, and innovation/creativity. Public primary school teachers who participated in a study in the US reported that their supervisors recognized that collaboration among teachers was essential for successful teaching and learning (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). Supervisors in their study modelled teamwork, provided time for teams to meet regularly, and advocated sharing, and peer observation. The supervisors were also reported to have encouraged teachers to visit other teachers, even in other schools, to observe their classrooms and programmes. Similarly, study participants (heads) in government and private-aided senior

secondary schools in India provided further opportunity for teachers to meet with other teachers in their discipline from different schools to discuss programmes (Tyagi, 2009).

In a similar study, Rous (2004) found that supervisors in her study in the US promoted interaction among staff members through meetings. Teachers in this study admitted that such meetings were helpful in increasing creativity in their instruction. The teachers further indicated such meetings provided opportunity for them to take part in decisions about issues that affected their classrooms. Similarly, in Bays‟ (2001) study, teachers in rural district schools in the US mentioned interaction with peers as helpful and desirable, and that she envisaged potential for collegial supervisory processes in the districts in terms of teachers being receptive to the idea of learning from peers. This supports the call for the collegial supervision model as espoused by Glatthorn (1990) and Glanz (2002).

2.5.12 Challenges to Supervision

This section reviews challenges which may undermine supervisory practices at the school level. Because there is a dearth of empirical research about school-based supervision practices, the review will draw on issues from the previous section which may have the potential to undermine the goals of supervision.

The main purpose of supervision is to work collaboratively with teachers, and provide them with the necessary assistance, guidance, and support to improve instruction. Some support systems in education delivery, as well supervisor characteristics and practices and the context within which supervisors work pose challenges to the smooth performance of their duties.

2.5.13 Knowledge and experience

Researchers have suggested that supervisors should possess some working knowledge and skills to be able to provide the necessary assistance, guidance, and support services to teachers for improved classroom practices (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004; Holland, 2004). Holland believes that educators (supervisors) must offer evidence that they have the necessary knowledge and skills to make important decisions about instruction, and credentials in the form of degrees and diplomas are a form of evidence, but acknowledges that credentials alone do not inspire trust.

It is a common belief that academic qualifications and long term working experience provide people with knowledge and skills to be able to perform satisfactorily in an establishment. Researchers have not set a minimum qualification as a benchmark to be attained by supervisors, but minimum teaching qualifications differ from country to another. One difference may be between developed and developing nations. In most African countries the minimum teaching qualification is Teachers Certificate "A" Post-middle or Postsecondary, whereas that of developed countries is a Bachelor of Education. However, most developing countries are now phasing out those qualifications and replacing them with degrees and diplomas (De Grauwe, 2001).

It is expected that supervisors have higher qualifications than their teachers, or at worst, at par with them so that they will be able to provide them with the necessary guidance and support. A higher qualification like Bachelor of Educational Psychology or Diploma in Education is sufficient for persons in supervisory positions. But in many developed countries, supervisors do not have such qualifications, and this may pose a challenge to required practice. De Grauwe (2001) found in four African countries that

both qualifications and experience seemed important in the selection of supervisors, but at the primary level, many of the most experienced teachers did not have strong academic background because they entered the teaching profession a long time in the past when qualification requirements were low. He indicated, however, that apart from Tanzania the situation in the other countries has improved, and supervisors (including headteachers) have strong background and qualifications which are higher than the teachers they supervise. In Botswana, for instance, teachers were by then trained up to Diploma level (De Grauwe, 2001). This finding is corroborated by Pansiri (2008). He also observed that diploma and degree qualifications were new programmes for primary school teachers which were introduced in the mid 1980s in Botswana. He found that most teachers were trained at the certificate levels: Primary teachers‟ Certificate (PTC), Primary High Teaching Certificate (PH), Primary Lower Teaching Certificate (PL), or Elementary Teaching Certificate (ETC). In Ghana, most primary school teachers (including headteachers) hold Teachers‟ Certificate „A‟ Post-middle or Postsecondary. Initial (basic) Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana have recently been up-graded to Diploma Awarding Institutions. In most countries, headteachers are promoted on the basis of seniority and experience (De Grauwe, 2001), and by virtue of their position as heads, they automatically become the instructional supervisors at the school level. In some developing countries, most primary school teachers do not possess higher qualifications in the form of degrees and diplomas; so they occupy supervisory positions on the basis of seniority and long service. It would be proper for supervisors to possess higher qualifications and longer years of teaching experience than the teachers they supervise.

Such supervisors would have sufficient knowledge and experience in both content and pedagogy to be able to confidently assist, guide and support their teachers.

In Ghanaian primary schools, if two persons have the same qualification, the one with longer years of teaching experience is promoted to head the school, and subsequently becomes the instructional supervisor. The Ghana Education Service regards academic qualifications, such as degrees and diplomas, necessary for supervisory positions, but most primary school headteachers (supervisors) hold Teachers‟ Certificate „A‟ Post-secondary or Post-middle. With the introduction of the 1987 Education Reforms, the then headteachers who held Teachers‟ Certificate „A‟ Post-middle were replaced with Certificate „A‟ Postsecondary holders, even if the former were seniors in terms of long service.

The minimum number of teaching years required for promotion to headteacher or supervisor differs from one country to another. In reviewing years of teaching as requisite to a supervisory position, Carron and De Grauwe (1997) found that in Spain it is from three to seven years (Alvarez & Collera), nine years in Italy (EURDICE) and 20 years in Venezuela (Lyons & Pritchard). In Ghana, longer years are preferred, but there is no minimum number of years. As already indicated above, the position depends on which teacher in the school has the highest qualification and longer years of service. However, there are situations where new graduate teachers work under the supervision of experienced headteachers with lower qualifications.

The issue of concern is when a young degree holder from university is posted to a school to work under the supervision of a relatively older and experienced supervisor with lower qualifications. The former may not have the opportunity to try his/her new

ideas if the supervisor uses a directive approach. In such situations, the supervisor may want to suggest to or direct the teacher as to what he/she should do and how it should be done. Innovation in instructional practices will be stifled, and the *status quo* in both instructional strategies and supervisory practices will be the norm.

If academic qualifications should take precedence over experience, then one would have thought that new degree and diploma holders should be made to take over from headteachers (supervisors) who have lower qualifications but served for a longer number of years in teaching. But De Grauwe (2001) argues that appointing younger teachers fresh from the universities and providing them with specific training for these positions may also not solve the problem, because they may lack classroom experience.

2.5.14 Training

Another issue of concern is whether supervisors are given enough training to function properly in their practice. Carron and De Grauwe (1997) expressed little doubt that advisers, inspectors and other such staff need regular training, but they seldom receive it. They believe that whatever pattern of recruitment and promotion procedures, supervisors (advisers, inspectors or other such staff) need regular training but they are seldom provided with pre-service or in-service training. They note that throughout the history of supervision, training of supervisors has been considered important. They referred to the International Conference on Education (1937) "that persons appointed to supervisory positions be placed on a period of probation or by following a special course organised by a postgraduate Institution" (p.30). They acknowledged, however, that "pre-service or in-service training programmes are still few and far between.

In Botswana and Zimbabwe formal induction training programmes existed, but not all newly appointed supervisors had the opportunity to attend (De Grauwe, 2001). He observed that the in-service training courses which took place in the four countries were not integrated within the overall capacity-building programme, and did not focus sufficiently on supervision issues. According to De Grauwe, many of those training programmes were ad-hoc and were related to the implementation of a particular project. Carron and De Grauwe (1997) also note that developing countries are in want of a well-organised system to prepare both supervision and support staff for their role and to keep them up to date. In a related study conducted in Ghana by Oduro (2008), about 75 percent of the interview participants (heads) reported that they received little or no training in leadership and, therefore, used trial and error techniques to address challenges they encountered in their leadership roles. He also found that 72 percent of the heads had some training in leadership and management, but lasted between one day and two weeks. This study did not mention supervision directly.

The situation is different in developed nations. Citing EURYDICE, Carron and De Grauwe (1997) found that primary school supervisors in Ireland pass through a probation period of six months, whereas their counterparts in Portugal followed a one year course. Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2007) note that coaches, unlike school heads and other supervisors in New York Public Schools, did not have any formal training in classroom observation and supervision. Glanz, et al. (2007) and Hawk and Hill (2003) found that coaches in the US and New Zealand respectively received training in subject specific areas, but not generics training (general supervision). This suggests the supervisors in those countries had formal training in supervision, but these researchers

did not provide specific details. Bays (2001) also indicated that in the US, administrator training is a certification requirement. Such training provides principals with knowledge of supervision theory, practice, and personnel management that prepares them with general strategies to supervise all their teachers. Bays also found in her study that only one principal out of nine had background experience and training in instructional practices for students with disabilities.

This suggests that, apart from generic training in supervisory practices, principals posted to special schools may be given training in that special field. In the absence of pre-service or in-service training, supervisors may be inclined to rely on their experiences with their previous supervisors over the years, as well as their existing knowledge in administration and pedagogy. In such situations, practices may differ from one supervisor to another in the same education system. There is also the possibility of stagnation in practice, instead of innovation and improvement.

2.5.15 Professional support

Apart from the training supervisors will receive, there is the urgent need for support instruments and materials to support practice. Data bases are needed to prepare and monitor the supervision work (Carron & De Grauwe, 1997). Access to the internet, bulletins and journals is another source of support to supervisors. Supervision guides and manuals may serve as reminders to supervisors about how certain practices and behavior should be followed, and provide a uniform platform for supervisors to operate, thereby reassuring teachers of the personal biases which individual supervisors may introduce. They can guide practitioners to avoid relying solely on their own individual experiences or orientation.

In this era of technological advancement, literature on current instructional practices and content knowledge abound on the internet data bases, bulletins and journals. Blasé & Blasé (1999) found in the US that principals who participated in their study enhanced their teachers‟ reflective behaviour by distributing literature on instructional practices to them. Such materials are relatively inaccessible to supervisors/educators in less-developed countries. Schools in developing countries often do not have access to computers, let alone being connected to the internet. Searching the internet and data bases for relevant instructional materials and making them available to their teachers is relatively difficult, therefore, for supervisors in developing countries. Similarly, most schools do not have access to education newsletters, bulletins and journals that cover current issues about supervision and instructional practices.

The presence of supervision guides and manuals has the potential to improve supervision practices because they serve as reference materials for practice. Similarly, education newsletters, bulletins and journals provide supervisors with current trends in instructional strategies and content materials which they can make available to the teachers they supervise. The absence of these may pose a challenge to practice.

2.5.16 Combining supervision with other duties

Another challenge to supervision is a situation where headteachers, by virtue of their position, are administrators, financial managers and instructional supervisors. Such heads have relatively little time for supervision of instruction. When a choice is to be made between administrative and pedagogical duties, the latter suffers (De Grauwe, 2001). De Grauwe contends that supervisors may focus their attention on administration rather than pedagogy, because they have much power over administrative decisions. De

Grauwe (2001) conceives the situation to be worse in developing countries than developed ones, because the latter can afford to employ several staff (e.g. administrative as opposed to pedagogic supervisors), so that the workload of each officer becomes less heavy and responsibilities become much clearer. In the US, a respondent in Rous‟ (2004) study indicated that she would have liked her supervisor's opinions on how to deal with certain children's behaviour, but she (the supervisor) did not have time. Other participants in the same study reported that their supervisors were not seen in their classrooms enough. Rous‟ study of public primary schools in the US state of Kentucky is a recent one conducted in a developed country, but she did not mention whether the principals (supervisors) had multiple duties/responsibilities.

In a similar study in a rural public school district in the US, Bays (2001) found that principals performed duties in the areas of management, administration and supervision. She described the separation of these functions as an "artificial" activity for the principals she observed, as they moved from one type of activity to another constantly throughout the day.

Bays observed that administrative and management issues took much of the principals‟ time and energies and detracted them from providing constant direct supervision to teachers. In Ghanaian public primary schools, headteachers perform "a magnitude of tasks", and those in remote and deprived communities combine their supervisory roles with full-time teaching and visiting pupils in their communities (Oduro, 2008). In such situations, supervisors may not be able to sufficiently supervise instruction. Carron and De Grauwe (1997) observe that countries such as Spain, France and Guinea which separate administrative from pedagogical supervision do not

experience such problems. Thus, combining administrative and supervisory duties is another challenge to supervision of instruction.

2.5.17 Staff Inadequacy:

The number of professionally trained supervisors in our schools is grossly inadequate to meet the needs of an effective and efficient programme of supervision. The population of students in the school has so exceeded the stipulated teacher/pupils ratio that all that most principals do in terms of instruction is to ensure that there are enough teachers to man the classes. Shortage of External Supervisor or Inspectors

External supervisors and inspectors are usually Ministry of Education or Education Board officers specially assigned to access the level of compliance of school instructional activities with approved government standards. Unfortunately, this category of staff is usually in short supply due to the large number of government schools and teachers. According to Ogunu (2005) the consequence of this shortage of supervisory personnel is that most of the time, a lot of unprofessional practices are carried out in our schools to the detriment of the children.

2.5.18 Lack of Time

According to Ogunu (2005) secondary school principals are so weighed down by routine administrative burden that they hardly find time to visit the classrooms and observe how the teachers are teaching. When principals give more time to correspondence with the Ministry of Education and its parastatals, community affairs, parents and a host of other visitors and in the process neglect their primary duty of overseeing instruction in the schools, we cannot expect good performance from students.

Some unscrupulous teachers easily exploit the school head's neglect of supervision to achieve their selfish ambitions.

Inadequate Basic Instructional Materials: There can be no effective supervision of instruction without instructional materials. Experience has shown that most schools lack even the basic materials and equipment for teaching such as textbooks, chalkboard, decent classroom for students. Apart from such cases of nothing to supervise, there are others where the problems are lack of facilities and materials for the supervisor to use. External supervisors (inspectors) for example, often do not have transport facilities and writing materials to carry out their inspectoral duties.

2.5.19 Lack of Adequate Training and Orientation in Instructional Supervision:

Many newly appointed principals are not given the necessary training and orientation to equip them with the skills they need to carry out their instructional supervisory functions. They manage through for years without understanding what instructional supervision entails and how to do it.

2.5.20 Fiscal Inadequacy

Lack of funds often results in head teachers' inability to organize in-house orientation and in-service programmes for their staff or travel out to other schools and resources centres to gain access to new developments in curriculum and instruction that could benefit their schools. There is an urgent need for the government to provide adequate funds and the right calibre of personnel for the supervision of instruction in our schools if the goals for national development are to be realized.

2.6 Strategies that the headteachers uses to improve supervision

2.6. 1 Training and retraining of supervisor

The training of new supervisors and the retraining of old ones should be taken seriously. Special training centers where experienced and practicing supervisors are available should be established for this purpose. This is important because the ideas of using old or obsolete techniques or method negate the spirit of the inspection of primary education. Supervisors could be sponsored to seminars and workshops or conference to update their knowledge and skills on modern and acceptable techniques of supervision.

2.6. 2 Morale Boosting

Researches are replete with the relationship between motivation and performance of skills. If supervisors are properly motivated with available work materials such as stationery, transportation, conducive working environment and enhanced salaries and allowances the morale of the supervisor cold be boosted thereby affecting the skills.

Employment of supervisors with higher educational qualifications: Supervisors with higher qualifications are more likely to perform better in the field than those with lower qualification. According to Okoro (2004), education personnel with higher qualifications display more confidence in their workplace. In addition, they are more accessible to quality information, and adapt to changing occupational conditions than their counterparts with lower qualification, who are usually more indisposed and ill-equipped in adapting to modern changes.

2.6. 3 International and inter-state exchanges

It is suggested that deliberate and government sponsored international and interstate exchange of supervisory personnel and experiences could boost the skills of

supervisors. Countries with similar educational policies such as Ghana, Gambia or Sierra Leone could be involved in such exchange programmes. The purpose is to ensure cross-fertilization of ideas, and explore way of tackling similar problems or challenges.

2.6. 4 Improved Selection Criteria for Supervisors

Supervision is a technical task that requires meticulous, firm and objective assessment. Therefore, those saddled with this responsibility should be carefully selected from among the available education personnel in the schools or state ministries of education. A special aptitude test could be administered testing various aspect of candidates' personality to determine their suitability. This rigorous exercise, according to Obanya (2005), stimulates confidence, which is a necessary ingredient for skill acquisition and performance.

2.6. 5 Disciplinary Action against Unprofessional or Unethical Conduct or Performance

In order to improve the skills of school supervisors appropriate sanctions should be leveled against any erring or deviant supervisor who tends to undermine the expected standard. A situation whereby mediocrity is exalted and standard sacrificed, while supervisors who excel in their assignment should be rewarded accordingly, either in kind or cash sanctioning unacceptable performance could serve as a deterrent to others.

2.6.6 Reward for Performance

Even though reward of various kinds has a way of boosting the morale of workers, it also has the capacity of instigating increased performance and development of

quality skills. Therefore, supervisors with excellent performance should be rewarded accordingly in order to maintain, and if possible improve their skills.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

The chapter presented the methodology of the study which include the research design, target population, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, validity and reliability of the instrument, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure and ethical considerations.

3.1 Research Design

According to Creswell (2005), research design is the plan to carry out a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings. It is the plan that describes how, when and where data are to be collected and analyzed (Creswell, 2005).

The researcher used a descriptive survey design for the study. The researcher chose a descriptive survey design for the study in order to get more information on the leadership styles of basic school head teachers and its influence on teachers' retention and productivity in junior high schools in the Bosomoiso Circuit of the Western North Region.

Descriptive survey design offers researchers with a lot of information from various respondents for generalization and the data collected are easy to analyze. One big weakness of descriptive survey design is how to retrieve all questionnaires that have been administered.

3.2 Population of the Study

According to Creswell (2005) population is a group of individuals or people with the same characteristics and in whom the researcher is interested. The targeted population for the study was 94, consisting of 12 head teachers and 82 teachers in the six public Junior High Schools in the Bosomoiso Circuit of the Western North Municipality.

3.3 Sample and Sampling Techniques

Sampling is a technique used for selecting a given number of subjects from a target population as a representative of the population in research (Gall & Borg, 2007). In order to obtain an appropriate sample size for the study, an updated list of all the public Junior High Schools in the Bosomoiso Circuit of the Western North Municipality was obtained from the Municipal Director of Education.

The study sampled 76 head teachers and teachers using Krecjie and Morgan (1970) table for the determination of sample size. The lottery type of the simple random sampling was used to select the sample size for the study. Proportional sampling was used to select the number of respondents from each of the six schools according to their population. Table 3.1 shows the sample from the population.

Table 3.1: Sample of Population

School	No. of Headteachers	Teachers Population	Total	No. Sampled
Bosomoise M/A primary / JHS	2	13	15	12
Aboduam M/A primary / JHS	2	13	15	12
FUTA M/A primary / JHS	2	15	17	14
Ahwiaa Anglican M/A primary / JHS	2	16	18	15
Wiase M/A primary / JHS	2	13	15	12
Penakrom/Nyamebekyere	2	12	14	11
Total	12	**82**	**94**	**76**

3.4 Data Collection Instruments

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) postulated that a research tool or instrument is a specific mechanism or strategy, the researcher uses to collect, manipulate, or interpret data. The researcher used closed ended questionnaire to collect data for the study. White (2005) stated that questionnaires are instrument that are designed to collect data for decision making in research.

The close-ended questionnaire was meant to assist respondents to provide uniformity of response. Questionnaire also provides easier and accurate analysis of the data. A questionnaire is cost effective and less time consuming. The questionnaire was in

a 4-point Likert scale of 4= Strongly Agree, 3 = Agree, 2 = Disagree, 1= Strongly Disagree in which higher score indicate more perceived positive responses. Section 'A' solicits data on the demographic characteristics of respondents, Section B solicits data on the supervisory practices of headteachers in Junior High Schools. Section C solicits data on the challenges headteachers face in performing the supervisory functions in Junior High Schools while Section D solicits data on the strategies that the headteachers uses in supervision in Junior High Schools. According to Sarankos (1998), likert scale allows response to be ranked and it is easy to construct. The questionnaire was administered to the respondents personally by the researcher at the staff common room during break time in each of the school.

3.5 Piloting

The purpose for piloting is to get the bugs out of the instrument so that the respondents in the study area will experience no difficulties in completing the questionnaire and also enable one to have preliminary analysis to see whether the wording and format of questions is appropriate (Bell, 2008).

The questionnaire was piloted to determine its validity and reliability. The purpose of the pilot-test was to enable the researcher to make necessary changes to items which may be inappropriate, determine the level of ambiguity of the questions for corrections. Ambiguous items were deleted while inappropriate items were modified.

Validity

Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure. The researcher tested the face and content validity of the questionnaire. Face validity refers to the likelihood of a question being misunderstood or misinterpreted. Content

validity refers to whether an instrument adequately covers all the topics concerned. The validity of the instrument was established through expert opinions and my supervisor who looked through for corrections. All the necessary corrections were made and included in the final draft.

Reliability

Reliability is a measure of the degree to which a research instrument yields consistency in its results or data after repeated trials. 30 questionnaires were administered to 30 head teachers and teachers, selected randomly from junior high schools which was outside the study area twice in the pilot study with two weeks intervals between the first and the second test and the coefficient of reliability from the two tests correlated. The reliability test yielded Cronbach Alpha of 0.81 which meant that the research instrument was highly reliable.

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher collected an introductory letter from the Department of Educational Leadership, University of Education, Winneba, Kumasi Campus to seek permission from the Municipal Director of Education to conduct the study. After authorization had been given, the researcher visited the schools concerned to brief the respondents on the purpose of the study. The questionnaires were thereafter administered to the respondents. The respondents were given two weeks grace period to complete the questionnaire before collection. A period of two weeks given was to respondents to complete the questionnaire did not in any way affect the findings of the study. The researcher was able to retrieve all the questionnaires distributed.

3.7 Data Analysis Procedure

After the required data has been obtained from the field survey, the next step was to analyse the data and interpret it for meaningful understanding. The data was cleaned with the aim of identifying mistakes and errors which may have been made and blank spaces which have not been filled. A codebook for the questionnaire was prepared to record the response. The data were then entered into the computer and processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software package version 18.0. The data were analyzed descriptively and presented using tables, frequencies and percentage to answer all the research questions.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

Consent of all participants was obtained before they completed the instrument. The respondents were duly informed about the purpose of the study and assured them that there were no potential risks or costs involved in participating in the study.

The respondents were given ample time to respond to the questions posed to them to avoid errors and inaccuracies in their answers. The respondents were given a waiver regarding the anonymity of their identity as their names were not required on the questionnaire. The respondents were also assured that the information they would give would be treated with utmost confidentiality that it deserved and would be used for academic purposes only. The respondents were informed that they could withdraw from taking part in the study if they so wish.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter sought to analyze data collected from respondents. A sample size of seventy- six (76) was chosen, from three schools in the Bosomoiso Circuit of the Western North Municipality educational directorate, namely Bosomoise M/A primary / JHS, Aboduam M/A primary / JHS, Futa M/A primary / JHS, Ahwiaa Anglican M/A primary / JHS, Wiase M/A primary / JHS and Penakrom / Nyamebekyere respectively for the study. The analysis of data is in two parts. The first part deals with the demographic information of the respondents, while the second part deals with analysis of the main data related to the research question.

4.1 Demographic Characteristics of the Respondents

Demographic information of the respondents such as gender, age, marital status, academic qualifications, professional status, experience and professional rank were sought. The results are presented in figures 4.1 to 4.5.

Gender of Respondents

Responses with regard to the gender of the respondents are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Gender Distribution of Respondents

Gender	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Male	39	51.8
Female	37	48.2
Total	76	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020

The data in table 4.1 reveals that out of a sample size of seventy six (76) respondents, the males formed 39(51.8%) whilst females were 37(48.2%). This item was necessary in finding out which gender was predominant among teachers and headmasters in the Bosomoiso Circuit of the Western North Municipality. This finding is an indication that male headmasters and teachers dominate in the Bosomoiso Circuit of the Western North Municipality educational directorate.

Age of Respondents

The results regarding the age distribution of the respondents are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Age Distribution of Respondents

Age	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
20 – 30 years	17	23
31 – 40 years	39	51
41 – 50 years	14	18
51 – 60 years	6	8
Total	76	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020

Table 4.2 showed that majority 39 (51%) of the sample were aged between 31 to 40 years and 17(23%) aged between 20 to 30 years. Again 14 (18%) were aged between 41 to 50 years, and remaining 6 (8%) were aged 51 between 60 years . The finding also gives an indication that all the sampled respondents were grown-ups and experience enough to partake in a credible research endeavour such as this study. Thus they were likely to provide the needed information.

Academic Qualification of Respondents

The results regarding the academic qualification of the respondents are presented in the table 4.3

Table 4.3 Academic Qualification of Respondents

Academic Qualification	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
Diploma	8	10
Degree	52	68.7
Masters Degree	16	21.3
Total	76	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020

Table 4.3 indicates that in terms of the academic qualification of respondents, most respondents 52(68.7%) had some form of tertiary education (Bachelor Degree), and the remaining 16(21.3%) had postgraduate degree education and the remaining 8(10%) have had Diploma. This finding is indicative of the high level of education amongst the respondents.

Experience of Respondents

The results regarding the experience of respondents of the respondents are presented in the table 4.4.

Table 4.4 Experience of Respondents

Year of working	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
5– 10 years	26	34.4
11 – 15 years	18	23.3
16 – 20 years	10	13.3
21 – 25years	13	17.8
26 - 30 years	9	11.2
Total	76	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020

To show the credibility of respondents, especially those in education, the respondents needed to have a certain level of experience on the job to qualify to give authentic and reliable responses to the questionnaire instruments. Figure 4.6 shows respondents' years of experience. The result show that 26(34.4%) of teachers surveyed had been in the education service between 5 to 10 years, 18(23.3%) between 11 to 15years and 10(13.3%) for periods 16 to 20 years. Also 13(17.8%) of the respondents had been with the education service for a period between 21 to 25 years. The remaining 9 (11.2%) had been with the education service between 26 to 30 years. Thus it was expected that, these respondents would show great understanding of the research topic in terms of what contribute to perception of instructional leadership roles of teachers.

Professional Rank of Respondents

The responses with regard to the professional rank or qualification of the respondents are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Professional Rank

Age	Frequency (f)	Percentage (%)
principal superintendents	29	38
Assistant Directors	25	33.3
Assistant Directors	19	24.7
Superintendent	3	4
Total	76	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020

Table 4.5 indicates the professional rank of respondents. The study shows that most employees 29(38%) were principal superintendents, 25(33.3 %) were Assistant Directors 19(24.7%) were Assistant Director I, and the remaining 4% were Superintendent. The finding shows that; all the respondents had passed through the education ranks.

4.2 Analysis of the Main Data

Analysis of the main data is organized in line with the main themes of the research questions. The research questions were as follows

1. What are the major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?
2. What are the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?

3. What are the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?

Research Questions 1: What are the major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?

The researcher asked the respondents to rate their agreement or disagreement on the the major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region. The result is shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 the major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region.

Statement	Frequency (%)					
	SD(%)	D(%)	N(%)	A(%)	SA(%)	Total(%)
Orientation of new Teaching Staff	2(3)	3(4)	8(10)	22(29)	41(54)	76(100)
Checking Teacher's Record of Work	1(2)	8(10)	7(9)	21(28)	39(51)	76(100)
Provision of In-service Training	3(4)	5(6)	14(19)	16(21)	38(50)	76(100)
Monitoring Punctuality teachers and student	1(2)	9(12)	11(15)	18(23)	37(48)	76(100)
Teacher Motivation	1(2)	2(3)	8(11)	28(37)	36(47)	76(100)
Lesson Observation	8(10)	10(14)	14(18)	21(28)	23(30)	76(100)

N =76: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

Table 4.6 shows that 41 (54%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Orientation of new Teaching Staff was one of major supervisory practices of the headteachers of

Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North, 22 (29%) agreed, 8(10%) were neutral while 3 (3%) disagreed and the remaining 2(3%) were ssrtongly disagree. New Faculty Orientation (NFO) is a probationary requirements for most new academic appointments. This program (which includes Teaching Essentials) aims to familiarise new teaching staff with our unique learning environment and provide opportunities for professional development, networking and collegiality. New Teaching Staff, with a probationary requirement to complete Teaching Essentials and/or New Faculty Orientation, should register for the next available session. Please check your letter of appointment to confirm your probationary requirement before registering.

Again, 39(51%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Checking Teacher's Record of Work was major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North, 21(28%) , 7(9%) were neutral , 8(10%) disagreed and 1(2%) strongly disagreed respectively. The findings implies that One of the essential duties as a teacher is to maintain student records. Academic performance records, such as grades and report cards, provide insight about student progress and help parents and teachers make important decisions regarding students' learning needs. Attendance records help teachers and school staff maintain accountability for students' safety. Behavior records are useful for parent-teacher conferences and disciplinary meetings. Let's look at these three main types of records in more detail.

Also, 12 (23%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Provision of In-service Training was of major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North,, 38(50%) strongly agreed, 16(21%) agreed, a significant 14(19%) were neutral, 5(6%) disagreed while 3(4%) strongly disagreed. The finding support the

need for in-service training in schools is getting more attention for teachers to equip with new knowledge and skills for them to face new challenges and reformation in education. In-service training can enhance the professionalism of teachers who can contribute to the organisation to achieve it's goals. In-service training is a professional and personal educational activity for teachers to improve their efficiency, ability, knowledge and motivation in their professional work. In-service training offers one of the most promising roads to the improvement of instruction. It includes goal and content, the training process and the context. According to Ong (1993), In-service training is the totality of educational and personal experiences that contribute toward an individual being more competent and satisfied in an assigned professional role. The primary purpose of in-service training is to enable teachers to acquire new understanding and instructional skills. It focuses on creating learning environments which enable teachers to develop their effectiveness in the classroom.

Again, 37(48%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Monitoring Punctuality teachers and student was major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North, 18(23%) , 11(15%) were neutral , 9(12%) disagreed and 1(2%) strongly disagreed respectively. The finding of the study support the statement made by (Kruskamp, 2003) punctuality is a habit of attending a task on time. In a wider sense, it's a habit of doing things at the right time. Punctuality is the key to get success in life. A punctual and disciplined student always gets respect and social acceptance in the school and society. They are admired by the parents and teachers. A student who is punctual always gets success in his studies. In school time, punctuality ensures that you

will arrive to class on time and so will not miss any part of the lesson. Punctuality during the school life will also help you to manage your working and personal life.

Again, 36(47%) of the respondents strongly agreed Teacher Motivation was major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North, 28(37%) , 8(11%) were neutral , 2(3%) disagreed and 1(2%) strongly disagreed respectively. Driving influences from internal (intrinsic) or external (extrinsic) forces that give teachers power to run their daily routine Research on teacher motivation has developed and expanded since the late 1990s, and the past decade has witnessed a marked increase in literature in the area of teacher motivation research across various social cultural contexts. A significant step forward was the release of the special issue on motivation for teaching *by Learning and Instruction* in 2008 with the focus on relating the current motivational theories to the domain of teaching which has been called a "Zeitgeist of interest" by Watt and Richardson (2010). As a big contribution to the application of motivational theories in the new research domain of teachers in their career choice, education studies and professional commitment, the special issue was an important impetus to setting the agenda for future teacher motivation research.

Again, 23(30%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Lesson Observation was major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North, 21(28%) , 14(18%) were neutral , 10(14%) disagreed and 8(10%) strongly disagreed respectively. lesson observation, also known as a classroom observation, is the practice in which a lesson is observed to assess the quality of teaching to ensure students are receiving the most effective learning experience.

Any teacher can be subject to a lesson observation and these can be conducted by fellow teachers, administrators or external parties and these can be planned or unplanned observations. These are implemented by all schools and also enforced by many external bodies as a process for school assessment. Those observing lessons are asked to identify the biggest blocker to student learning in the classroom, provide the teacher with feedback on their lesson, including ideas and techniques they can implement to improve.

When feedback is provided it's not uncommon for teachers to receive additional lesson observations for observers can assess how well these techniques have been implemented and to provide further direction - creating a continuous cycle of professional development.

4.3. Research Questions 2: What are the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?

Research question two sought to examine the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region. The responses from teachers are presented in the table 4.7.

Table 4.7 The challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region

	Percent					
	SD(%)	D(%)	N(%)	A(%)	SA(%)	Total
Teachers' resistance to supervision	2(3)	3(4)	8(10)	22(29)	41(54)	76
Inadequate Teachers	2(3)	2(3)	8(10)	24(31)	40(53)	76
Poor Human Relations (Teacher-supervisor relationship)	1(2)	8(10)	9(12)	19(25)	39(51)	76
Inadequate Material Resources for Teaching	3(4)	5(6)	14(19)	16(21)	38(50)	76
Political Instability	3(4)	5(6)	3(4)	27(36)	38(50)	76
Irregular Payment of Teachers	1(2)	9(12)	11(15)	18(23)	37(48)	76
Financial Constraints	1(2)	2(3)	9(11)	28(37)	36(47)	76
Lack of Adequate Training and Support	2(3)	3(4)	8(10)	20(27)	43(56)	76
Teachers' perception of instructional supervision	4(5)	3(4)	10(14)	22(29)	37(48)	76

N =76: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

Table 4.7 shows that 41(54%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Teachers' resistance to supervision was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 22(29%) agreed, 8(10%) were neutral while 3(4%) disagreed

and a significant 2(3%) were strongly disagreed. Although resistance is a common occurrence in supervision, counteracting resistance is not simple. Two major factors influence methods used for counteracting resistance. First, the relationship is critical. A positive supervisory relationship grounded by trust, respect, rapport, and empathy is essential for counteracting resistance (Borders, 1989). The second factor in counteracting resistance is the way the supervisory relationship is viewed. Supervisors viewing the relationship as the focal point in supervision usually advocate full exploration of conflicts. In contrast, supervisors viewing therapeutic work as the primary supervisory focus advocate a more limited exploration of conflicts.

Table 4.7 shows that 40(53%) of the respondents strongly agreed that inadequate Teachers was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 24(31%) agreed, 8(10%) were neutral while 2(3%) disagreed and a significant 1(2%) were strongly disagreed. The teacher shortage is real, large and growing, and worse than we thought. When indicators of teacher quality (certification, relevant training, experience, etc.) are taken into account, the shortage is even more acute than currently estimated, with high-poverty schools suffering the most from the shortage of credentialed teachers. A shortage of teachers harms students, teachers, and the public education system as a whole. Lack of sufficient, qualified teachers and staff instability threaten students' ability to learn and reduce teachers' effectiveness, and high teacher turnover consumes economic resources that could be better deployed elsewhere. The teacher shortage makes it more difficult to build a solid reputation for teaching and to professionalize it, which further contributes to perpetuating the shortage. In addition, the fact that the shortage is distributed so unevenly among students of different

socioeconomic backgrounds challenges the U.S. education system's goal of providing a sound education equitably to all children (Duodu, 2003).

Table 4.7 shows that 39(51%) of the respondents strongly agreed that teachers Poor Human Relations (Teacher-supervisor relationship) was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 19(25%) agreed, 9(12%) were neutral while 5(6%) disagreed and a significant 1(2%) were strongly disagreed. Lack of respect for one individual by another is likely to lead to poor human relations between the two. Ethics also play a role in interpersonal conflict. Ethics refer to moral rules or values governing the conduct of a person or group. Perhaps more than anything else, an individual's adherence to values related to what is morally right determines the respect that others hold for that person. Lack of respect for one individual by another is likely to lead to poor human relations between the two. The social dimension of behaviour is determined by a person's personality, attitudes, needs, and wants. An individual's personality is the totality of complex characteristics, including behaviour and emotional tendencies, personal and social traits, self-concept, and social skills. The objective of many training sessions for employees and supervisors is to improve a person's ability to get along with others. A person's personality has a major impact on human relations skills (Holland, 2004).

Table 4.7 shows that 38(50%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Inadequate Material Resources for Teaching was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 16(21%) agreed, 14(19%) were neutral while 5(6%) disagreed and a significant 3(4%) were strongly disagreed. The uses of instructional materials in the processes of effective teaching and learning cannot be over

emphasized. According to Ibe (1998) an instructional material is an object or means of communication process that stores and distributes human experience or knowledge. Therefore, the totality of the information carrying devices. Instructional materials in teaching generally make the teaching process easier.

Table 4.7 shows that 38(50%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Political Instability was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 27(36%) agreed, 3(4%) were neutral while 5(6%) disagreed and a significant 3(4%) were strongly disagreed. political instability is the propensity of a government collapse either because of conflicts or rampant competition between various political parties. Also, the occurrence of a government change increases the likelihood of subsequent changes. Political instability tends to be persistent. Economic growth and political stability are deeply interconnected. On the one hand, the uncertainty associated with an unstable political environment may reduce investment and the pace of economic development (Johnson, and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Table 4.7 shows that 37(48%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Irregular Payment of Teachers was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 18(23%) agreed, 11(15%) were neutral while 9(12%) disagreed and a significant 1(2%) were strongly disagreed. This study gives a suitable detail on irregular payment of workers salary in Owerri Municipal Imo State, their pay as these also determines their work performance. The work entails how workers in Imo State can be motivated through their pay work needs to more effort in their performance. There are some commissions set up by government to look into the salary system of workers. The commissions come up with re commendation towards improving the salary structures of

workers. Also, income policies are made as a restraint measure to pay workers their salary. Salary is determined by some factor which has to consider in the payment of workers.

Table 4.7 shows that 36(47%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Financial Constraints was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 28(37%) agreed, 9(11%) were neutral while 2(3%) disagreed and a significant 1(2%) were strongly disagreed. a financial constraint is any factor that restricts the amount or quality of investment options. They can be internal or external (the examples above could both be considered a form of internal constraint, such as lack of knowledge or poor cash flow). The study aimed at investigating the impact of financial constraints on school management in secondary schools in Gatundu South Sub-county, Kiambu County. A financial constraint is recognized to affect the general management of schools which will impact on performance. In Ghana today, the school principals have always decried shortage of finances in their schools of concern, while the government insist that the situation is not bad in the current years (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Table 4.7 shows that 43(56%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Lack of Adequate Training and Support was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 20(27%) agreed, 8(10%) were neutral while 3(4%) disagreed and a significant 2(3%) were strongly disagreed. The Consequences of a Lack of Training in the Workplace. If the school ignore the importance of adequate employee training it can severely impact business performance, team morale, financial turnover and ability to attract and retain good teachers.

Table 4.7 shows that 37(48%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Teachers' perception of instructional supervision was one of the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions. 22(29%) agreed, 10(14%) were neutral while 3(4%) disagreed and a significant 4(5%) were strongly disagreed. the way teachers perceive supervision in schools and classrooms is an important factor that determines the outcomes of supervision process. When teachers see supervision as a tool to enhance their professional development, they show commitment to it. Effective Instructional Supervision involves raising student achievement and creating valuable educational opportunities for students. This can be achieved by the supervisor clearly defining goals for the teachers and facilitating opportunities for the teachers to learn about local, state, and federal requirements (Mankoe, 2006).

4.4 Research question three: What are the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region?

The third research question intended to establish the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region. The responses are presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 The strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision

Statement	SD N (%)	D N (%)	N N(%)	A N (%)	SA N (%)
Training and retraining of supervisor	1(2)	8(10)	6(8)	27(35)	34(45)
Morale Boosting	3(4)	6(8)	3(5)	31(40)	33(43)
International and inter-state exchanges	0(0)	8(10)	4(6)	33(44)	31(40)
Improved Selection Criteria for Supervisors	5(7)	8(10)	8(11)	28(37)	27(35)
Disciplinary Action against Unprofessional or Unethical Conduct or Performance	1(2)	6(8)	3(4)	27(36)	39(50)
Reward for Performance	2(3)	8(10)	5(7)	27(35)	34(45)
Employment of supervisors with higher educational qualification	3(5)	7(9)	12(16)	23(30)	31(40)
Creation of favourable atmosphere for supervision	6(8)	7(9)	2(3)	33(43)	28(37)
The school management should assist in supervision	3(5)	4(6)	0(0)	29(37)	40(52)

N =76: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

Table 4.8 shows that 34(45%) of the respondents strongly agreed that training and retraining of supervisor was one of the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision, 27(35%) agreed, 6(8%) were neutral while 8(10%) disagreed and a significant 1(2%) were strongly disagreed. Training presents a prime opportunity to expand the knowledge base of all employees, but many employers in the current climate find development opportunities expensive. Employees attending training sessions also miss out on work time which may delay the completion of projects. However despite these potential drawbacks, training and development provides both the individual and

organizations as a whole with benefits that make the cost and time a worthwhile investment. The return on investment from training and development of employees is really a no brainer.

Table 4.8 shows that 33(43%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Morale Boosting was one of the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision, 31(40%) agreed, 3(5%) were neutral while 6(8%) disagreed and a significant 3(4%) were strongly disagreed. Ellanberg (1972) found that where morale was high, schools showed an increase in student achievement. Conversely, low levels of satisfaction and morale can lead to decreased teacher productive and burnout, which is associated with a loss of concern for and detachment from the people with whom one works, decreased quality of teaching, depression, greater use of sick leave, efforts to leave the profession and a cynical and dehumanized perception of students.(Rea, and Parker, 2005). “Morale is similar to achievement. It goes up the more we differentiate our practices to fit individual needs” There is no silver bullet, no magical formula. We can however, look at the situation around us and respond in ways that boost the morale. Being sensitive to morale can do much to turn around a lot of things in your school (Ellanberg, 1972).

Table 4.8 shows that 31(40%) of the respondents strongly agreed that international and school exchanges programmes was one of the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision, 33(44%) agreed, 4(6%) were neutral and the remaining 8(10%) disagreed. international exchange programs – moving people across borders for educational, professional, or cultural purposes—connect an ever-widening circle of Americans with their counterparts around the world. Exchange programs create opportunities: opportunities for participants to learn, to prosper, and to work with others

to solve shared problems and ensure a secure future. Exchanges create future leaders who instinctively appreciate the value of international collaboration, understanding, and empathy.

Table 4.8 shows that 27(35%) of the respondents agreed that improved selection criteria for Supervisors was one of the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision, 28(37%) strongly agreed, 8(10%) were neutral while 8(10%) disagreed and a significant 5(7%) were strongly disagreed. Selection criteria provide candidates with a list of the key skills, knowledge, experience and attributes required to successfully fulfil the responsibilities and duties of the position. They also provide a measure against which candidates can be evaluated throughout the selection and appointment process and enable members of the Selection Panel to assess a candidate's suitability.

Table 4.8 shows that 39(50%) of the respondents strongly agreed that Disciplinary Action against Unprofessional or Unethical Conduct or Performance was one of the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision, 27(36%) agreed, 3(4%) were neutral while 6(8%) disagreed and a significant 1(2%) were strongly disagreed.

Table 4.8 shows that 34(45%) of the respondents strongly agreed that reward for performance was one of the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision, 27(35%) agreed, 5(7%) were neutral while 8(10%) disagreed and a significant 2(3%) were strongly disagreed. the purpose of performance rewards is; to motivate employees to contribute to the best of their capability. to attract the right people at the right time for the right jobs, tasks or roles.

Table 4.8 shows that 31(40%) of the respondents strongly agreed that employment of supervisors with higher educational qualification was one of the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision, 23(30%) agreed, 12(16%) were neutral while 7(9%) disagreed and a significant 3(5%) were strongly disagreed. Supervisor need to combine practical work-based learning with academic study and aim to train you for a specific job. The qualification is often favoured by students who want to work and study at the same time.

Table 4.8 shows that 33(43%) of the respondents agreed that Creation of favourable atmosphere for supervision was one of the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision, 28(37%) strongly agreed, 2(3%) were neutral while 7(9%) disagreed and a significant 6(8%) were strongly disagreed. The study support Dickson (2011) states that supervision aims at improving the teaching and learning processes, creating a favorable atmosphere for learning, achieving synergy and coordination of efforts in a way that improves the educational outcomes, ensuring professional development of teachers, enhancing teachers' motivation, enhancing of teaching and learning quality, identifying good as well as bad traits in a teacher's practice, helping less-competent teachers to become more competent, and supporting new teachers in adapting to the school environment. The supervisor is responsible for helping teachers in selecting what goals and objectives will be implemented in the teaching process, which in fact plays an important role in motivating students and managing the classroom environment with the aim of improving the learning atmosphere (Tesema, 2014).

Table 4.8 shows that 40(52%) of the respondents strongly agreed that the school management should assist in supervision was one of the strategies that the headteachers

use to improve supervision, 29(37%) agreed, 3(5%), while 4(6%) disagreed and the remaining 3(5%) were strongly disagreed. A major function of supervisors is to support the motivation of their employees. Different people can have quite different motivators, for example, by more money, more recognition, time off from work, promotions, opportunities for learning, or opportunities for socializing and relationships. Effective supervision: a practical guide for adult social care managers and supervisors' will help school to plan and deliver effective supervisions. It includes.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents summary of findings of the study, conclusions drawn from the findings, recommendations based on the findings and suggestions for further studies.

5.1 Summary

The purpose of the study to determine the supervisory practices of headteachers in Junior High Schools in Sefwi Wiawso Municipality of the Western North Region of Ghana. The objectives of the study were to investigate the supervisory practices of headteachers, to explore challenges headteachers face in performing the supervisory functions and to identify strategies that the headteachers uses to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit. The target population for the study was all the head teachers, and teachers of Junior High Schools in Sefwi Wiawso Municipality of the Western North Region of Ghana. A sample random and purposive sampling were used to select all the 76 headmaster and teachers in the Bosomoiso Circuit, of Sefwi Wiawso Municipality of the Western North Region of Ghana for the study. Closed ended questionnaire was used to collect data for the study. The data collected were coded, fed into the computer and processed using the SPSS computer application software and Microsoft Excel. Basically, descriptive statistics were used for data analysis. Frequencies and percentages, simple tables and figures were employed to analyse the research questions.

5.1.1 Summary of the Findings

From a careful analysis of the variables presented in the previous chapter, the study revealed the following major findings:

5.1 The major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region

The study showed that majority of the respondents (70% - 80%) strongly agreed that the supervisory role performed by the headteachers were orientation of new teaching staff. checking teacher's record of work, provision of in-service training, monitoring punctuality teachers and student, teacher motivation and lesson observation.

The challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region

The study revealed that (60% - 85%) of the respondents strongly agreed that teachers' resistance to supervision, inadequate teachers, poor human relations (teacher-supervisor relationship), inadequate material resources for teaching, political instability, irregular payment of teachers, financial constraints, lack of adequate training and support, and teachers' perception of instructional supervision were the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region

The strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region

The research findings revealed that (65% -85%) of the respondents strongly agreed that factors such as training and retraining of supervisor, morale boosting,

international and inter-state exchanges, improved selection criteria for supervisors, disciplinary action against unprofessional or unethical conduct or performance, reward for performance, employment of supervisors with higher educational qualification, creation of favourable atmosphere for supervision, and the school management should assist in supervision help to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region**.**

5.2 Conclusions

It was concluded based on the findings that supervisory role performed by the headteachers were orientation of new teaching staff. checking teacher's record of work, provision of in-service training, monitoring punctuality teachers and student, teacher motivation and lesson observation.

The study can conclude that training and retraining of supervisor, morale boosting, international and inter-state exchanges, improved selection criteria for supervisors, disciplinary action against unprofessional or unethical conduct or performance, reward for performance, employment of supervisors with higher educational qualification, creation of favourable atmosphere for supervision, and the school management should assist in supervision help to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region**.**

Finally, the study can therefore conclude that, training and retraining of supervisor, morale boosting, international and inter-state exchanges, improved selection criteria for supervisors, disciplinary action against unprofessional or unethical conduct or performance, reward for performance, employment of supervisors with higher educational qualification, creation of favourable atmosphere for supervision, and the school

management should assist in supervision help to improve supervision in Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region.

5.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the researcher recommends that:

1. Efforts should be intensified by headteacher of Junior High schools in Bosomoiso Circuit in Sefwi Wiawso Municipality of the Western North Region to ensure that seminars and workshops are organised for their teachers. This will help to improve on their instructional delivery system.
2. Government should intensify efforts to ensure that school supervisors live up to expectation in performing their supervisory role in Junior High schools. This will help to improve on their instructional delivery system.
3. Government should intensify actions to ensure that Junior High schools teachers are provided the opportunities for re-training. This will help to improve on their instructional delivery system.
4. There is need for headteachers to ensure that cases of non-supervision or inadequate supervision of their colleges are reported to the Ministry of Education and Post-primary Schools' Management Board. This will help to improve on effective supervision.
5. Efforts should be intensified to ensure that seminars and workshops are organised to further educate school supervisors on how they could improve on their supervisory functions.

5.4 Suggestions and Areas for Further Research

Based on the findings of this research, the study recommends that further research would be necessary to identify whether teachers' attitude towards headteachers' role in instructional supervision would be the reasons behind the increasing poor performance of schools in in Sefwi Wiawso Municipality of the Western North Region since this study ruled out the headteacher supervisory practices.

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APPENDIX 1

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESPONDENTS

THE UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION WINNEBA,

Dear Respondent,

THE SUPERVISORY PRACTICES OF HEADTEACHERS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE SEFWI WIAWSO MUNICIPALITY: A CASE OF BOSOMOISO CIRCUIT OF THE WESTERN NORTH REGION

.

I am RITA BAIDOO, a graduate student at the University of Education, Winneba-Kumasi Campus, conducting a study on the topic: "**the supervisory practices of headteachers of junior high schools in the Sefwi Wiawso Municipality: A case of Bosomoiso Circuit of the Western North Region.** This study is in partial fulfilment for the award of Master of Arts in Educational Leadership. It would be appreciated very much if you could kindly respond to the questionnaire attached as you have been selected to participate in the study. Your name and your school's name would not be needed in the questionnaire unless you wish to provide them. The information you will provide will be anonymous and will be used for academic research purposes only.

I count on your co-operation in this regard.

Thank you.

RITA BAIDOO

Please tick your response in the appropriate space.

SECTION A

1. Your Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
2. Age: 20-30 [ ] 30-40 [ ] 41-50 [ ] 51-60 [ ]
3. Highest qualification: Diploma [ ] Degree [ ] Master's Degree [ ] Ph.D [ ]
4. Your professional rank: Assistant Director 1 ( ) Assistant Director 11 ( ) Principal Superintendent ( ) Senior Superintendent 1 ( ) Senior Superintend 11 ( )
5. How long have you taught in the GES: 1-5 years [ ] 6-10 years [ ] 11-15 years [ ]
   16-20 years [ ] 21-25 years [ ] 26-30 years [ ] Above 30 years [ ]

SECTION B

The major supervisory practices of the headteachers of Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region

Please tick (✓) in the appropriate boxes to indicate the extent to which YOU agree or disagree with the following statements regarding the the major supervisory practices of the headteachers.

1=strongly disagree; 2= disagree, 3= uncertain; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree

No	major supervisory practices	1	2	3	4	5
6	Orientation of new Teaching Staff					
7	Checking Teacher's Record of Work					
8	Provision of In-service Training					
9	Monitoring Punctuality teachers and student					

10	Teacher Motivation					
11	Lesson Observation					

SECTION C

The challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region

Please tick (✓) in the appropriate boxes to indicate the extent to which YOU agree or disagree with the following statements regarding the challenges the headteachers faces in performing the supervisory functions.

1=strongly disagree; 2= disagree, 3= uncertain; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree

No	**Challenges**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
12	Teachers' resistance to supervision					
13	Inadequate Teachers					
14	Poor Human Relations (Teacher-supervisor relationship)					
15	Inadequate Material Resources for Teaching					
16	Low Morale					
17	Political Instability					
18	Irregular Payment of Teachers					

19	Financial Constraints					
20	Lack of Adequate Training and Support					
21	Teachers' perception of instructional supervision					

SECTION D

The strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision at Bosomoiso Circuit in the Western North Region

Please tick (✓) in the appropriate boxes to indicate the extent to which YOU agree or disagree with the following statements regarding **the strategies that the headteachers use to improve supervision**.

1=strongly disagree; 2= disagree, 3= uncertain; 4= agree; 5= strongly agree

No	**Strategies**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
22	Training and retraining of supervisor					
23	Morale Boosting					
24	international and school exchanges programmes					
25	Improved Selection Criteria for Supervisors					
26	Disciplinary Action against Unprofessional or Unethical Conduct or Performance					
27	Reward for Performance					
28	Employment of supervisors with higher educational qualifications					

29	Creation of favourable atmosphere for supervision					
30	The school management should assist in supervision					

Thank you.