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UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE ROLE OF EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION IN IMPROVING QUALITY EDUCATION IN THE BOSOMTWE DISTRICT



A Dissertation in the Department of Educational Foundations, Faculty of Educational Studies, University of Education, Winneba, submitted to the School of Graduate Studies in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education

(Supervision and Quality Assurance) in the University of Education, Winneba.

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I, Rita Quartey, 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:													•
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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.

Supervisor	's Name:	Dr. Eri	ic Ofosu –	- Dwamena

Signature:

Date:

DEDICATION

I first and foremost dedicate this thesis to Almighty God for the grace to complete this work. I once again dedicate it to my family for supporting and encouraging me especially when the going became though after completing the second session of our study.



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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate the supervisory practices of supervisors in public schools in the Bosomtwe district as well as examine the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance in the schools. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2009) developmental supervision served as the theoretical framework of the study. The descriptive survey research design within the positivists' quantitative methodology was used to collect numeric data with structured questionnaires. A sample was 338, comprising 68 education supervisors, and 270 teachers. However, 300 questionnaires were completely filled and returned, representing a response rate of 88.8%. The sample was selected through census and proportionate stratified random sampling techniques. With the aid of the Statistical Package for Service Solution version 26, descriptive (mean, standard deviation) and inferential statistics (Pearson correlation) were used to analyse the data. The study found that even though the supervisors practiced a mix of supervision in the schools, they practiced the non-directive supervision most, and followed by the directive control supervision, directive informational supervision, and collaborative supervision respectively. The study further discovered that there was a significant positive relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance in the schools. Based on these findings, the study recommended that Ghana Education Service through the Bosomtwe Education Directorate should organize refresher training programmes for supervisors on the effective practice of supervision to enable them to balance and implement their supervisory practices so as to ensure quality assurance in schools.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Countries across the globe are convinced that education is instrumental for socioeconomic, political, and personal development. There is plethora of empirical and theoretical justification to corroborate the assertion that education is the driver of development of all countries. On the personal side, scholars like Yonata, Trimulyono, Sabtiawan, Savitri, Putri, Susiyawati and Madlazim (2023) and Yuan, Minghat and Talib (2021) contend that education guides individuals in the right direction to improve and supports their general development, and intensifies their independent cognitive capacities. These preceding authors further explicate that education empowers individuals through the development of their cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains which enable them to live more productive lives. Other scholars (Hidayah & Syahrani, 2022; Mensah, 2022) maintain that, education empowers individuals with relevant knowledge, skills, and attitudes to contribute meaningfully to the development agenda of societies, empowers them to innovate so as to meet the exigencies of the times, and adapt easily to transformations in dynamic societies. Therefore, it is argued that education is a critical asset to both individuals and countries (Febriadi & Riharjo, 2022) with the hope that investment in education will accrue benefits to the individual and the entire country.

Convinced that education is the panacea for personal and societal advancement, countries have evolved international and national policy initiatives in the quest to

expand access to education for all citizens. For instance, the United Nations, Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) recommends that at least 6% of a country's gross domestic product (GDP) should be expended on education (Ministry of Education, 2018). In 1990, Education for All (EFA) initiative was launched in Jomtein, Thailand as an international initiative to bring the benefits of education to every citizen in every society. Besides, with the adoption of the United Nations' Millennium Development Goal (MDG) on education (MDG 2), governments worldwide have prioritized the provision of primary education in policy programmes (UNESCO, 2006). Like other countries, the government of Ghana is committed to the achievement of Universal Basic Education by ensuring that all children of schoolgoing age access basic education. Since independence, Ghana has formulated and implemented policies to increase access to basic education. According to Akyeampong, Djangmah, Oduro, Seidu and Hunt (2007), the central aim of the Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) strategy was to improve access to basic education by abolishing tuition fees. In recent decades, Ghana has implemented interventions such as the capitation grant, school feeding programme, free exercise books and uniforms to improve access to basic education. There is evidence that the implementation of these policies and interventions has resulted in increased access to basic education which is more than 100% at the kindergarten and primary levels and more than 85% at the junior high level (Ministry of Education, 2018).

However, attention is shifting from the sole promotion of access to education to the provision of quality education at all levels in the education enterprise. This shift in focus is premised on the claim that, even though access to education is important, it is the quality of education that is positively lined to the socio-economic development of countries (Hamengkubuwono, 2022; Hafeez, Naureen, & Sultan, 2022).

Hamengkubuwono (2022) opines that the implementation of education in recent time is not only focused on equity, and participation, but also on the quality, competitiveness and absorption of graduates in the world of work. The author clarifies that quality of education is broad, including the quality of the process, the quality of the organizers as well as the quality of the outcomes. Hafeez et al. (2022) also vouch for the provision of quality education because it is the most important parameter for the sustainable development of a nation. Contrary to these claims, the issue of poor quality education is a concern of many people because it is a waste of various resources that could have been deployed in other sectors of the economy (Hamengkubuwono, 2022). In essence, it is construed from the preceding views despite the advocacy for increase in access to education, it is rather the quality of education that translates into the desired development of societies. Therefore, I hold the view that, access to education is a necessary but insufficient antecedent of personal and national development. The provision of quality education has become a policy priority in education systems around the world in recent years (Mensah, 2022; Seyfried & Pohlenz, 2018).

In the quest to promote quality education, quality assurance has come to the forefront as one of the essential measures to ensure and sustain quality at all levels of the education system. Hafeez et al. (2022) and Mensah (2022) argue that quality assurance in educational institutions provides guidelines for the education stakeholders and students to work together to achieve the required quality education for sustainable development. Zhang, Zhou, Hai, Zhang, Iwendi, Biamba and Anumbe (2022) posit that quality assurance is the bedrock of most successful educational institutions with the objective of ensuring that educational institutions produce high quality and competent graduates who can compete globally in their diverse fields.

Asuquo and Emeribe (2019) indicate that achievement of quality education is what informs quality assurance in educational system, and it is a mechanism designed to improve the quality of educational institution, its inputs including human, material and financial resources, activities, programmes, production and the outcomes. Quality assurance has now become a general solution for organizations that seek to develop and improve employee performance (Hanh, Nga, Loan, & Viet, 2019). Scholars note that school administrators and supervisors have the responsibility of ensuring quality of their production resources, production processes and the final products so as to attain the general goal for which the school was established (; Nyamwesa, Magambo, & Onyango, 2020). These scholars add that education supervisors have the responsibility of applying both internal and external methods to ensure that quality is promoted in educational programmes and activities that are under their jurisdiction.

Apart from quality assurance as means of achieving quality education, extant literature demonstrates that supervision is another critical mechanism of promoting quality education. Supervision in educational institutions is not a new development. School supervision is believed to have its first route in France under the Napoleon regime at the end of the 18th Century, and in the 19th century, the ideas spread to other parts of the world (Grauwe, 2007). The first supervision in the United Kingdom was said to be carried out by Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) in 1839 according to (Learmonth, 2000). Gregory (2010) argues that supervision of instructions began in colonial New England as a process of external inspection. Local citizens would inspect what the teachers were doing and what students were learning rather than the improvements of teaching or student's learning.

Supervision is one of the functions of school leaders and supervisors, and research has consistently established that enacting supervision is one of the major strategies to

ensure quality education (Mwambo & Epah, 2022). The World Bank (2010) observes that systems of supervision and support to schools are common areas of reform employed by world nations to improve their education outcomes and mitigate education challenges associated with global education policies. Mensah (2022) notes that supervision ensures quality assurance in education which aims at preventing quality problems and ensures that the products of the system conform to the expected standards. The position of Mensah (2022) implies that effective supervision in schools is a predictor of quality education offered to students, and serves as a check mechanism to ensure that the recipients of education meet set criteria. Conversely, poor supervision is an affront to quality education delivery. Therefore, stakeholders need to pay attention to supervision in Ghanaian schools if they desire to promote quality teaching and learning.

Muthoni (2012) also asserts that many countries have from the 1990s attempted to reform supervision because of its effectiveness as a key tool in monitoring and improving education quality. He further observes that the value of education supervision lies in the improvements of teaching and learning situations and consequently student achievement. Juxtaposing the perspectives of the World Bank (2010) and Muthoni (2012), it could be inferred that supervision is indispensable to make good the promises of educational policies and engender quality education provision. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), notes that supervision of teachers plays a powerful role in developing and nurturing a teacher's instructional competences, which in turn, contributes to students' academic successes. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2007) confirm this when they noted that supervision is primarily concerned with improving classroom practices for the benefit of pupils irrespective of what may be involved either curriculum development or staff development.

Therefore, the purpose of supervision is to ensure that there is quality learning for students. Beach and Reinhartz (2000) stress that the focus on supervision is to provide teachers with information about their teaching with a view to enhance instructional skills that enable them to improve performance. To these authors, supervision is meant to offer teachers evidence on their teaching so that they will improve their instructional capacities and heighten their performance. Even though Beach and Reinhartz (2000) do not state explicitly that supervision is to improve students' learning, this purpose is embedded in their idea as improvement in teaching and teacher performance lead to good student performance.

Another purpose of supervision is professional development. This is explained by Nolan and Hoover (2008) that supervision is a way to support professional growth and competency and has been identified as an integral component of staff development. In the same vein, Zepeda (2007) opine that the purpose of supervision is to promote growth, development, interaction, fault-free problem solving, and a commitment to build capacity in teachers. Thus, the purpose of supervision is to update the professional competencies of the teachers so that they can perform their tasks as expected. This position hints that teachers are required to keep abreast with emerging pedagogical knowledge so as to function appropriately in the classroom, and supervision comes handy in this role. To achieve this, head teachers as instructional leaders are expected to constantly be well-informed about new trends in supervision so that they assist their teachers.

Some writers argue that the purpose of supervision is to encourage human relations and teacher motivation and enable teachers to try out new instructional techniques in a safe, supportive environment (Glickman, Gordon & Gordon, 2007). Therefore, motivating the teacher to explore and practice new instructional techniques is the

focus of supervision. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2009), supervision is meant to provide a mechanism for teachers and supervisors to increase their understanding of the teaching-learning process through collective inquiry with each other. They further indicated that the purposes of supervision are improving instruction; fostering curriculum and staff development; encouraging human relations and motivation; and encouraging action research and supporting collaboration. When teachers learn with and from one another, they can focus on what most directly improves students' learning (Hidayah & Syahrani, 2022).

Due to the crucial role that supervision plays in education delivery, the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service (GES) have institutions that spearhead supervision in pre-tertiary education institutions. At the national level, there are National School Inspectorate Authority, the National Teaching Council, and the Inspectorate Division at the GES headquarters which supervise schools at the pre-tertiary level. Also, there are inspectorate units at the regional education offices under the leadership of Chief Supervisors of schools who supervise schools within their jurisdiction. At the district level, there are Deputy Directors in charge of supervision as well as School Improvement Support Officers (SISOs) who supervise their schools. In the schools, there are headteachers who conduct supervision in their respective schools. However, there are challenges associated with supervision in the Ghanaian basic schools such as negative and uncooperative attitude of teachers towards supervisors, inadequate resources for supervision and the burdensome nature of certain supervisory approaches cause resistance of teachers towards supervision (Mankoe, 2007).

Research has shown that there is a positive relationship between supervision and quality assurance in schools. For instance, Asuquo and Emeribe (2019) established

that supervision ensures quality control in education, maintains high standard of education at all levels, determines the quality of the teacher input, and determines the level of adequacy of the facilities available for quality control. Therefore, the authors concluded that supervision sustains quality assurance in the schools. Therefore, there is evidence that supervision is a mechanism of ensuring quality assurance in educational institutions. However, there is no known analytical studies on the relationship between supervision and quality assurance in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District. Therefore, the research intends to provide empirical evidence to either support or refute the nexus between supervision and quality assurance in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Ideally, learners at different levels of the education system are required to receive quality education. Scholars like Zhang et al. (2022) contend that access to quality education regardless of diverse socio-economic and political background provides the foundation for the promotion of democracy and peace. The provision of quality education to citizens is regarded as a fundamental human right (Hamengkubuwono, 2022). Therefore, the provision of quality education has become policy priority around the world in recent years (Mensah, 2022). It is therefore expected that education stakeholders offer quality education to pupils in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District as Ghanaian citizens.

However, available reports suggest that education stakeholders in the Bosomtwe District are worried about the quality of education provided in the public basic schools. For instance, the District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC) report (2022) of the Bosomtwe District revealed that stakeholders are concerned about the low quality of education in the basic schools. In the report, it was noted that the low

quality of education in the district is a major cause of low academic achievement among pupils in the schools. Therefore, the report implored the Bosomtwe Directorate of the Ghana Education Service to prioritize quality education in the schools so as to enhance the learning outcomes of the pupils.

The quality of education in the public basic schools emerged as a topical issue in the Annual Progress Report (2022) of the Bosomtwe District. In this report, stakeholders complained about the low quality of education in the district, and suggested measures to address the challenge. The report cited poor supervision, low quality of teachers, and high teacher absenteeism as causes of the low quality of education in the district. The report recommended that teachers who exhibit low commitment to work should be sanctioned so as to serve as deterrent to others.

These reports suggest that the low quality of education in the Bosomtwe District is a matter of worry to stakeholders; hence it calls for strategies to improve on the situation. Elsewhere, research has shown that supervision ensures quality assurance in educational institutions (Asuquo & Emeribe, 2019). However, there is no known study in the Bosomtwe District on the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance. This study intends to fill this gap.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was in two folds: 1) to investigate the supervisory practices of supervisors in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District; 2) to examine the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance in the public basic schools in Bosomtwe District.

1.4 Research Objectives

The objectives of the study were:

- To find out the supervisory practices used by supervisors in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District.
- 2. To determine which indicators of quality assurance were carried out in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District.
- 3. To examine the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

- 1. What are the supervisory practices of supervisors in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District?
- 2. Which indicators of quality assurance were carried out in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District?
- 3. What is the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District?

1.6 Significance of the Study

It is anticipated that the findings of the study would benefit headteachers, teachers, pupils, and education supervisors at the Bosomtwe District. It is envisaged that the findings of the study would help headteachers and education supervisors to be aware of their supervisory practices and the degree to which they relate with quality assurance in the schools. This would guide them to either strengthen the practice of their supervision or modify them when need be. It is expected that the results of the

study would inform the supervisors on the level quality assurance in the schools, and evolve measures to improve upon it.

Besides, the findings of the study will help the supervision unit and the directorate to prescribe effective supervisory practices that are required to promote quality assurance in the schools so as to enhance teaching and learning as well as the learning outcomes of the learners. Furthermore, this study would make an original contribution to the field of supervision and quality assurance and broadens the existing knowledge relating to the theories in the field. It could also serve as reference material for future research.

1.7 Delimitations of the Study

The study was delimited to supervisory practices and quality assurance in public basic schools in Bosomtwe District 2022 academic year. Supervisory practices and quality assurance at the district and school level were investigated in the study. Therefore, supervisory practices of the Deputy Director of Supervision, School Improvement Support Officers (SISOs), headteachers, and teachers were captured in the study. These individuals were involved in the study because they play a key role in the supervision of the schools, and the teachers were involved because they experience the supervisory practices of the supervisors. The study was also delimited to public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District; therefore, private basic schools were not included in this study.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

This study was carried out in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District.

Therefore, it is difficult to generalize the findings to the entire public basic schools in Ghana. The report of the study is based on the self-report of the participants by using

a structured questionnaire. Therefore, it would be difficult to probe further the information provided.

1.9 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. The Chapter One contains the introductory part which consists of the background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, and organization of the study. Chapter Two contains review of related literature pertinent to the research. It delves into the theoretical framework, empirical framework as well as the conceptual framework of the study. Chapter Three dwells on the research methodology including the research philosophy, research approach, research design, population, sample and sampling technique, instrument for data collection, procedures of data collection, methods of data analysis, and ethical consideration. Chapter Four is concerned with the analysis and interpretation of data and discussion of the results. Finally, Chapter Five presents the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the review of related literature on supervision and quality assurance. The chapter dwells on the theoretical framework and empirical reviews based on the variables in investigation. Sources of literature include both primary and secondary sources. The purpose of the literature review is to provide the theoretical and empirical understanding of supervision and quality assurance as well as establish the relationship between them.

2.1 Defining the Concept of Quality Education

Quality education is a complex term, with multiple meanings reflecting the values and interpretations of different stakeholders. Educational quality has received a great deal of attention in recent years, as educators and other stakeholders have recognized the need for improved quality in the wake of the tremendous growth of educational enrolments throughout the world in the 1950s-70s. Almost universally, there is agreement that quality needs to be improved: Government plans, international agency documents, officials regularly call attention to the need for improved quality, in poor and wealthy countries alike. Yet there appears to belittle shared definition of what improved quality might concretely mean.

The concept of quality education is explained by Bernard (1999) as the focus on learning which strengthens the capacities of children to act progressively on their own behalf through the acquisition of relevant knowledge, useful skills and appropriate

attitudes; and which creates for children, and helps them create for themselves and others, places of safety, security and healthy interaction. Mukhopadhyay (2005) notes that quality education is understood on the basis of metaphysics. Hence, quality education deals with the nature and human beings and destination of human beings ... human beings live in a multi-plane configuration consisting of physical, mental, intellectual and spiritual planes. Adams (1997) elaborates further that, education is goal-oriented. Therefore, quality of education is seen with reference to these itemized goals:

- Excellence in education
- Value addition in education
- Fitness of educational outcome and experience for use
- Conformance of education output to planned goals, specifications and requirements
- Defect avoidance in education process
- Meeting or exceeding customer's expectations of education

Adams (1997), identifies seven common usages of quality: quality as reputation, quality as resources and inputs, quality as process, quality as content, quality as outputs and outcomes, quality as 'value-added' and quality as selectivity.

• Quality as reputation refers to a general consensus, rarely quantified, of high and low quality, most commonly used in reference to particular institutions of higher education that are "known" for their quality, or sometimes their lack thereof. In this sense, quality as reputation is less useful in basic education. Though not commonly used in this way, reputation among parents and community members is an important dimension of quality in education, where the attitudes of parents and

community members toward schools play an important role in determining the participation of children.

- Quality as inputs and resources is an extremely common usage of quality. In this sense high quality is seen in high levels of provision of resources such as buildings and other facilities, textbooks and instructional materials. Quality as inputs may also refer to the characteristics of pupils, or those of teachers and administrators, to their number or their levels of education and training. While resources are generally recognized as a necessary but insufficient condition for desirable outputs such as student achievement, the tangible, visible, and quantifiable nature of inputs makes this meaning of quality a common proxy for other, less easily measured aspects of education such as process and outcomes. Unfortunately, educational research has failed to identify in any very convincing and conclusive formulation the inputs most essential to desirable outcomes of education. Nor are the causal relationships between inputs, processes, and outcomes definitely specified or well understood. Subsequent discussion here provides an overview of the current state of understanding.
- Quality as process highlights the need to understand the use of educational inputs.

 Perception of this need is relatively new among policy-makers, who have traditionally focused on the inputs and, when possible, the outputs and outcomes of education systems. However, research has found that schools with similar levels of resources often produce quite different results. Infusions of resources often fail to lead to corresponding improvements in outcomes. As a result, attention turned to the processes within schools. Understandably, teachers and professional educators tend to focus on educational processes. Indeed, to those working in education, successful process may be sufficient: A teacher may feel his

or her efforts are well-rewarded if students, for example, become more motivated to learn, regardless of the extent of learning that takes place. Unfortunately, much of the literature on educational processes is theoretical, prescriptive and descriptive in nature, with very little evidence of relative effectiveness. Thus, the empirical linkages between educational processes and educational outputs/outcomes are poorly defined. Nonetheless, a general consensus of the elements and processes of good schools can be described. Even so, the lack of knowledge and the complex and inherently subjective nature of good educational process have made conceptualization and measurement difficult.

- Quality as content refers to the knowledge, attitudes, and skills intended to be transmitted through the school curriculum. Quality as content "reflects the particular bias of a country, community, or institution to some body of knowledge, skills, or information" (Adams, 1997: 6) in such a way that some content is understood as being of higher quality than other.
- Quality as outputs or outcomes involves the consequences of education. "Outputs" refer to the short-term consequences of schooling, including students' cognitive achievement, completion rates, certification, individual skills, attitudes, and behaviours, while "outcomes" refer to longer-term, often socially significant, consequences of education, e.g., employment, earnings, health, civic engagement, and the like, as well as social attitudes, behaviours, and skills. The importance of understanding quality in terms of the consequences of education is better understood than the ways of doing so. The difficulty of measuring outputs/outcomes validly and reliably on a large scale has meant that virtually no education systems know empirically whether their schools are achieving their goals and objectives.

- Quality as valued-added refers to the extent to which the school/system has improved, often in terms of students, sometimes larger groups or institutions.
 While related to processes, outputs and outcomes, a value-added focus considers the degree of change rather than the final state or the way in which the change came about.
- Quality as selectivity, a final usage of quality, refers to quality as a form of
 exclusiveness. In this view, the more exclusive, selective, or competitive a school
 or school system (the fewer who get or stay in), the higher the quality.

Because of the several meanings of quality in use, agreement on the need to improve or address quality does not necessarily mean agreement on what improved quality might mean. Similarly, because of the multiple meanings, there is not a single way to improve quality; specification of strategies to improve quality depends on the particular meaning of quality. As a result, quality improvements from one perspective may not mean quality improvements to those holding a different view of quality. Moreover, an important step in improving quality is the negotiation of the meaning and priorities of quality, a process that necessarily involves the often conflicting goals, objectives and interests of important stakeholders. Different meanings of quality do not necessarily correspond. While a minimum of inputs is certainly necessary for effective education, a high level of inputs – one definition of quality – does not necessarily mean higher quality measured in terms of outcomes or outputs, both of which require the effective use of inputs. Thus, increasing material resources alone may do little to improve quality. Financial cost may not be the primary constraint. Indeed, many quality improvements are not costly in financial terms. At the same time, improvements in quality may involve rather organizational or management costs that are not easily captured in budgetary terms. A final point,

elaborated in subsequent discussion, is that unless quality is judged solely in terms of inputs or resources, the quality improvement process is likely to be a complex and murky one, involving poorly understood variables and relationships. Policy-makers typically work at the level of policy and resource provision. To the extent that quality requires more than the (relatively) simple provision of additional resources, educational leaders must shift their focus to the school and classroom. Research suggests that system-wide improvements in quality can rarely if ever be dictated from outside or above. Instead, strategies must be developed for engaging teachers, and often communities/parents, in the processes of improving quality. Little is known conclusively about these processes. However, a number of instructive models have been developed for improving the quality of schools in poor countries. As schoolbased experiences vary across environments according to various factors, so, too, do definition and measurement of education quality. For example, inequalities between groups of students may affect quality, school may be determined an unsafe physical and emotional environment for children, and the lack of basic infrastructure and materials may be the most pressing quality concern. Even in cases where education quality is measured in terms of per capita expenditures per student, for example, research indicates that the actual effects of the input differ across groups (age and gender).

Moreover, education quality concerns not only vary across settings, but also across institutions, actors, and time. In a given school, teachers, village elders, religious leaders, and female students may have very different ideas about what constitutes quality and which quality concerns are most pressing, which may change as social, political, and economic factors change.

Mukhopadhyay (2005, p.8) had observed that defining quality education is a difficult task. In his words: "defining quality in education is a massive challenge since it deals with the most sensitive creation on earth – the human beings". He argues further that it cannot be on equal rating with industrial products or services which its quality may be ascertained as soon as they become finished products. He observes that opposite is the case with education because it is a lifetime experience, hence, the idea of finished products is far from it. "He coined that there is "no wonder then that the concept of quality in education has attracted scholarly attention in India as well as in the west". The fact that different definitions of education quality reflect different ideas about the purpose and expected outcomes of education further complicates the diversity of views. The nature of education quality concerns varies depending on the myriad goals of schooling: to provide basic literacy and numeracy skills to all, to lead to personal employment, to improve marriage prospects, and to create active and engaged citizens.

Mosher (1972) defines quality as the level of excellence in educational performance while standards are levels of excellence in quality. He insists that quality is measured using a set of criteria which define the intellectual environment which, in turn, condition the vision and capacities of school leavers or graduates. This, he says, also determines the capacity of a nation to manage its affairs well. Honig (2009) distinguish definitions of quality that focus on one or more of the following aspects:

- inputs (fiscal and other resources as well as characteristic of students, teachers, administrators, instructional materials, and facilities);
- processes (nature of interaction in educational activities involving students, teachers, administrators, materials, and technologies);

- content (knowledge, skills, and attitudes being transmitted through the curriculum);
- output (relatively short-term consequences, such as students' cognitive achievement, completion rates, certification, skills attitudes, and values);
 and/or
- outcomes (long term consequences, such as school leavers' employment, earnings, civic participation, and other attitudes, values, and behaviours).

According to UNESCO (2008), the heart of education is quality education. The institution noted further that trained teachers and qualified teachers, learning materials, instructional time and adequate school facilities have been identified as prerequisites to quality education. Poor quality of schooling is evident in many ways in the public school system, especially in the rural areas (Mulkeen, 2005). Even if countries achieve full enrolment, the most important issue is for them to be able to complete a school cycle and acquire the skills necessary for development. This requires high quality teachers in all schools. A high quality teacher is one who understands and demonstrates ability to address the content, character, challenges and complications of being a teacher. Every child deserves a caring, competent and qualified teacher. Research evidence has shown that the quality of teaching in our classrooms is the most important school-related factor in ensuring students' achievement (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). This is why policy makers at all levels are focusing on teacher quality with emphasis on the issues of teacher recruitment, preparation, licensing and certification standards, as well as professional development. Hence, the term quality in education could be observed "in terms of learning outcomes, learning conditions and the teaching workforce" (UNESCO, 2008:18).

An important aspect of its arguments goes with the fact that it recognizes teacher as a core phenomenon in improving quality in education which is an upper hand. Furthermore, quality of education is a complex concept. UNESCO (2008), for example, contends that while all over the world there is a growing agreement about the need to provide access to education of good quality, there is much less agreement about what the term quality actually means in practice. The term "quality education" varies dramatically from country to country depending on cultural and economic priorities. This variability can make it challenging especially for developing nations when trying to set educational policies that provide necessary specificity and guidance for curricular and educational development. Despite the near universal agreement as to what cognitive skills comprise, they are not entirely culturally neutral (UNESCO, 2008).

Honig (2009) suggests that those interested in improving the quality of education policy implementation should focus not simply on what's implementable and what works but rather investigate under what conditions, if any, various education policies get implemented and work. UNESCO (2006) established that, while most if not all experts' judge rote learning to be indicative of poor-quality education, there is debate between those in favour of structured instruction and advocates of more child-centred approaches. Consequently, it can be argued that, the question of educational purpose might be seen as too difficult to resolve or even as fundamentally irresolvable (Biesta & James, 2008). As a result, the concept and implementation of quality of education can rightly be considered as one of the contemporary challenges facing education policy makers across nations.

Most of the participants who attended the UNESCO (2008) conference viewed quality of education as the learning outcomes of students, with regards to the input and which

should also have quality in terms of efficiency, effectiveness, excellence, and social justice. They emphasized that the quality education output can be achieved only if quality is ensured at each level of the educational process from standard setting, learning environment, teacher training, teacher-learning process, assessment and monitoring. The participants at UNESCO (2008) suggested that quality education in any educational system should provide a child with the following:

- A better quality of life,
- Access to opportunities leading to a productive life
- The potential to find answers to problems
- Education that contributed to peace.
- The knowledge of and respect for history, culture, music and the environment in which the child lives.
- A healthy lifestyle, quality in relationships, family and community life, and knowledge of financial management for life after school.

On the contrary, most of the participants agreed that there were barriers hindering the provision of quality education in the educational system, especially in many of the developing countries. Such as:

- Opportunities for employment and promotion for educators
- Enrolment in tertiary education
- Opportunities for adult education
- A realistic teacher: student ratio
- Adequate qualifications for teachers, salaries and conditions of service
- Infrastructure that meets the needs of students and staff
- Resources for students to acquire numeracy and literacy skills.

UNESCO's International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century (often referred to as the Delors Commission after its chairperson and former EU Commissioner Jacques Delors) published in 2006 its report on Learning: The Treasure Within. In this report, they concluded that: "... a greater focus on quality is desirable everywhere, even in countries where all children are enrolled in basic education." It can be noted that quality has since the eighties become a key concept in the education discussion. Moreover, the participants at the UNESCO (2008) conference suggested reasons for the decline in quality education as follows:

- Curriculum which is inadequate for a globalized world
- Costs of education via the provision of buildings and facilities, teaching and learning resources and school uniforms
- Provision of suitable learning environments
- Inadequately trained and financially rewarded teachers together with a decline in the perceived value of teaching as a profession
- Poor literacy and numeracy
- Lack of clear pathways to enable lifelong learning.

In Ghana, like elsewhere, quality in education faces definitional problems. It becomes more problematic when quality is conceptualized in terms of a particular aspect of education because as Mankoe (2007, p.6) observes, 'all the elements associated with educational quality are interrelated. A serious defect in one element is likely to have implications for quality in others. Moreover, questions regarding quality may be posed about any important aspect of the educational system: infrastructure, school buildings, administration, leadership, management, teacher training, educational materials, teaching, and student achievement.

More problems arise when the outcomes of education are the focus for defining quality. This is because purposes of education are cultural bound and value-laden. For example, for some people, the purpose of education is to foster students' cognitive, moral, and social development; for others it is a means of promoting social cohesion and nation building; while for some others, it is a preparation for the world of work. This complex situation makes even agreement on quality assessment results problematic. This is reflected in ADEA's (2004) observation that 'Quality assessment is one of the thorniest governance issues in most universities partly because most universities cannot agree on the mechanisms for the assessment'.

Perhaps, a more simplified solution to the definitional problem lies in Harvey's (1997) linkage of quality to transformation. In this sense, quality education is narrowed to 'qualitative change.' Yet this does not resolve the problem. Viewed this way, the notion of quality becomes more perplexing when applied to education (Borders, 2004). This is because Education is an on-going process of transformation of the participant: the student, learner or researcher. In this light, the achievement of universal participation in education will be fundamentally dependent upon the quality of education available. A plethora of studies have shown that how well pupils are taught and how much they learn, can have a crucial impact on the effectiveness of school education they get.

Furthermore, whether parents send their children to school at all is likely to depend on judgments they make about the quality of teaching and learning provided. At the level of international debate and action, three defining principles tend to be broadly shared. These are the need to understand quality education in terms of (a) content relevance (b) access and outcome and (c) observance of individual rights. In much current international thinking, these principles are expected to guide and inform educational

content and processes and also represent more general social goals to which education itself should contribute. This is reflected in the thinking of international bodies such as UNICEF and UNESCO. UNICEF recognizes five dimensions of quality: the learners, the environments, content, processes and outcomes, founded on the rights of the whole child, and all children, to survival, protection, development and participation (UNICEF, 2000). Similarly, UNESCO expects quality education to encourage the learner's creative and emotional development, support objectives of peace, citizenship and security, promote equality and seek to pass global and local cultural values down to future generations. It should allow children to reach their fullest potential in terms of cognitive, emotional and creative capacities. This conceptualization of education provides an integrated and comprehensive view of learning and, therefore, of what constitutes education quality.

The concept of 'educational quality' as it relates to education within the developing world has also been subjected to increasing debate, beginning initially with the World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) at the Jomtien Conference in 1990. This identified quality as a pre-requisite for achieving the fundamental goal of equity. While the notion of quality was not fully developed, it was recognized that expanding access alone would be insufficient for education to contribute fully to the development of the individual and society. Emphasis was accordingly placed on assuring an increase in children's cognitive development by improving the quality of their education.

2.2 Defining the Concept of Quality Assurance in Education

There is no consensus on the precise definition of quality assurance in literature. This assertion is supported by Ryan (2015) who notes that there is no agreed definition of quality assurance. Generally, quality assurance denotes a process of making sure that

the value or worth of goods or services is upheld (Eya & Chukwu, 2012). Likewise, Oguntimehin, Kuewumi and Adeyemi (2018) define quality assurance as the set of activities which an organization undertakes to ensure that a product or service will satisfy given requirements for quality. In the views of Ayeni (2016), the objective of quality assurance is to promote expectations and avoidance of deviations or errors by setting achievable standards for a process, organizing work to be done so that they are accomplished, documenting the procedures required, communicating them to all concerned, and monitoring and reviewing the attainment of standards. These definitions imply that quality assurance seeks to maintain the integrity and sanctity of a product or service.

In the perspective of Deming and Edwards (1982), quality assurance is:

all planned and systematic activities implemented within the quality system that can be demonstrated to provide confident that a product or service will fully fit requirements for quality...it is the process of verifying or determining whether products or services meet or exceed customer expectations (p.5).

This definition implies that quality assurance is a deliberate set of activities to ensure that a product or service retains its value so as to meet the gratification of clients. In essence, quality assurance is not for its own sake but to ensure the satisfaction of clients of a commodity or service. The Agency for Science and Higher Education (ASHE) (2022) has this to say about quality assurance:

quality assurance is an all-embracing term referring to an on-going, continuous process of evaluating (assessing, monitoring, guaranteeing,

maintaining, and improving) the quality of a higher education system, institutions, or programmes (p.1).

In this definition, quality assurance is perceived as a continuing process rather than a one-time event. Hanh, Nga, Loan and Viet (2019) conceive quality assurance to include all activities relating to assessing and improving the value of standards in the implementation process and it is the assurance of the organization that the product or service it provides meets acceptable quality standards. Thomson (2017) complements the previous definitions that quality assurance is a process of ensuring effective resource input, control, refining the process and raising the standards of output in order to meet the set goals and satisfy public accountability. This definition raises the issue of promoting 'good value' in the institutional management and supervision of teaching- learning process to produce quality learners from the school system.

Particularly in education, Eziamaka, Manafa and Iheanacho (2022) explain quality assurance in education as the efficient management, monitoring, evaluation and reviews of the resource inputs and transformation processes (teaching and learning) to produce quality outputs (students) that meet set standards and expectations of the society. This definition suggests that quality assurance focuses on three domains, including inputs, processes, and outputs. It is construed that quality assurance takes into consideration the quality of resources, both human and material, that are expended on education delivery. It also considers the quality of processes like teaching and learning engagements that occur in educational institutions. Additionally, quality assurance looks at the quality of products, the students, that are produced in the educational institutions. Therefore, quality assurance is a comprehensive approach in ensuring the entire education delivery. Similarly, Asuquo and

Emeribe (2019) describe quality assurance as entailing actions taken by school administrators to maintain minimum and comparable standard in order to forestall problems associated with educational system and its products in the world of work. The authors add that it is a deliberate effort to ensure that educational facilities, equipment, human and financial resources, school programmes and activities (teaching and learning), general administration as well as the end products/outcome (graduates) fit for purposes they are meant for. It takes both internal and external efforts directed at ensuring that school programmes, activities and the resources used in facilitating school processes or operations do not compromise the desired expected results.

Eziamaka et al. (2022) synthesise preceding definitions and conclude that quality assurance in education encompasses systematic management, monitoring and evaluation procedures adopted to measure the performance of school administrators (leaders), teachers and students against educational objectives to ensure best practices in resource inputs, utilization and curriculum management by the principals to produce students that achieve the educational goals in schools. Likewise, Epelle and Kalu (2018) state that quality assurance in education is the process of ensuring continuous improvement in all aspects of education business in an institution of learning to satisfy the needs and expectations of the institution's customers (society). In this study, I conceptualise quality assurance as the process of making that sure that there are high quality standards in the materials, processes, teachers, school leaders, and students of educational institutions.

2.3 Types of Quality Assurance in Education

Literature identifies two types of quality assurance, including internal quality assurance and external quality assurance. Asuquo and Emeribe (2019) assert that

internal and external quality assurance efforts are directed at ensuring that school programmes, activities and the resources used in facilitating school processes or operations do not compromise the desired expected results. Scholars explain that internal quality assurance includes all processes that education institutions use to monitor teaching, learning, school environment, assessment procedures and other associated activities (Nyamwesa, Magambo, & Onyango, 2020; Martin, 2018). Parri (2006) also defines internal quality assurance as internal policies and mechanisms to ensure that an educational institution is fulfilling its purposes and it is in conformance/compliance with the standards that apply to the institution. The preceding views suggest that internal quality assurance is carried out by school leaders and supervisors at the district level. Therefore, internal quality assurance in public basic schools could be conducted by the district assembly through the District Education Oversight Committees, district education officers like the School Improvement Support Officers (SISOs) as well as headteachers.

Martin (2018) explains external quality assurance is the process of ensuring that assessment and internal quality assurance activities have been conducted in a consistent, safe and fair manner. The author further adds that external quality assurance is conducted by a regulatory authority, which is oftentimes a government agency. Stensaker and Leiber (2015) also note that external quality assurance acts as governance tool that regulates the relationship between national authorities and education institutions. Therefore, external quality assurance acts as a bridge between educational institutions and the government. Martin (2018) observes that an essential function of external quality assurance is to inspire change and improvement in teaching and learning processes in education institutions. External quality assurance in public basic schools in Ghana is carried out by the government agencies like the

National School Inspectorate Authority (NaSIA) and the National Teaching Council (NTC). In this study, the researcher concentrates on internal quality assurance as conducted by the Deputy Director of Supervision, SISOs, and headteachers in Bosomtwe District.

2.4 Meaning of Supervision

There are several definitions of supervision. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2009), supervision is a "process of engaging teachers in instructional dialogue for the purpose of improving teaching and increasing student achievement" (p. 4). These authors argue that the main focus of supervision is to improve instruction and student learning. According to these scholars, supervision is a formative process which involves observation and dialogue focused on improving learning for all students. From the perspective of the above authors, supervision involves the participation of the supervisor and the supervisee in a discussion directed at improving teaching and learning as well as learning outcomes of students. According to Wiyono, Widayati, Imron, Latif and Dayati (2022), supervision is the process of supporting teachers through guidance, stimulation, consultations or other teachers' development programmes to improve the teachers' skills in accomplishing their tasks. This definition suggests that the focus of supervision is to augment the competences of teachers to empower them to discharge their duties effectively. Similarly, Glickman, Gordon and Gordon (2017) defined supervision as the act of directing, assessing, overseeing and evaluating employees in order to achieve the organizational goals. Assefa (2022) also conceptualise supervision entails activities of assisting, directing, advising, and fostering growth in teachers to increase teaching quality.

Mankoe (2007) defines supervision is a function of a person who, either through working with other supervisors, school heads or others at the central office level,

work together to contribute to improvement of teaching and the implementation of the curriculum. This definition suggests that supervision connotes a relationship between two or more parties who are engaged in a dialogue for the purpose of enhancing effective teaching and learning experiences of learners. Deductively, there cannot be a supervisor without a supervisee, and the supervisor is considered as a more experienced person who has the capacity to assist the supervisee(s) to improve their instructional delivery. Therefore, headmasters are expected to possess adequate knowledge and skills in instructional matters so as to help their teachers for improved instruction. Eya and Chukwu (2012) conceptualize supervision as any programme which helps teachers to achieve both qualitative and quantitative instructional delivery. It could be deduced from the above definition that supervision aims to increase work output of teachers and inefficiency in teaching processes. This is corroborated by Burton, Carper and Wilburn (2011, p.27) when they describe supervision as "efforts taken by the principal to support teachers and provide resources, including professional development, to facilitate teacher improvement." Thus, Burton and colleagues advance that supervision is concerned with the process of enhancing the competencies of the teacher for improved performance. Drawing on the above definitions, it could be concluded that ineffective supervision could stifle teacher professional development, reduce resource allocation, and impede teacher improvement. Nolan and Hoover (2008) define instructional supervision as "an organizational function concerned with teacher growth, leading to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning" (p.6). The definition of Nolan and Hoover implies that supervision is the act of working professionally with teachers to determine what works best in the classroom and what needs to be improved. Besides, students are the beneficiaries of supervision through enhanced learning opportunities.

Sullivan and Glanz (2009) also define supervision as a "process of engaging teachers in instructional dialogue for the purpose of improving teaching and increasing student achievement" (p.4). Two strands of thought emanate from this definition. Rather than a one-shot event, Sullivan and his colleague posit that supervision is a process implying a continuous series of activities. Additionally, supervision is a mutual activity where the supervisor engages the supervisee in the sharing if ideas to improve pedagogical processes and lead to better student performance.

A review of the definitions of instructional supervision highlights most of supervision focuses on the improvement of instruction and teachers' professional development which in turn result in enhanced students' academic performance. The process of supervision should be collegial, collaborative, and foster warm relationship among the actors. Therefore, supervisors need to respect and tolerate the capacities of teachers, and work with them to boost their instructional delivery. At the core of the definitions arise the hypothesis that the professional development of teachers, their motivation, instructional improvement, and student achievement would suffer to a large degree if supervision is unsuitable.

2.5 Models of Supervision

Researchers and authorities on institutional supervision have identified a variety of models that supervisors, including external officials, teachers, and headteachers use in their supervisory practices. These supervision models are relevant to the study because they address the efficiency of supervision in the provision of high-quality basic education. These models include peer supervision, clinical supervision, and developmental supervision.

Peer supervision typically refers to a reciprocal system where peers or employees work together for the benefit of both parties, emphasising developmental feedback and promoting self-directed learning and evaluation (Benshoff, 1992). Peer supervision has several benefits, such as increased accessibility to supervision, increased frequency of supervision, and reciprocal learning through experience sharing. Peer supervision also improves skills and self-awareness, reducing dependency on experienced managers (Benshoff, 1992). Peer supervision is a useful tool for expanding access to supervision for more people, which has an impact on the standard of client service. In a similar vein, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) describe how teachers agree to collaborate for their professional development in peer monitoring. In addition to the aforementioned perspective, teachers perform supervisory duties by visiting each other's classes to learn, share, and improve help; to critique each other's planning; to look over samples of students' work together; and to gauge the standard of teaching and learning that students are receiving.

A clinical supervision model is an approach to inquiry that aims to support reflection on and analysis of supervisory techniques as well as the development and testing of hypotheses regarding what is effective and why (Cook, 1996). According to this model of supervision, the classroom serves as a clinic, and the supervisor becomes an integral part of the educational activities that take place there, much like a doctor would, and who can make diagnoses and prescribe appropriate treatments (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). Therefore, in clinical supervision, supervisors collaborate with instructors and offer knowledgeable help to teachers to enhance instruction in the classroom. However, it facilitates discourse about teaching and learning and opens up lines of contact. It also offers objective, non-judgmental feedback to teachers about their instruction. Given that clinical supervision

recommended by Mosher and Purple (1972) requires meticulous planning from both the supervisor and supervisee It requires knowledge of both the task that will be carried out in the classroom and the context in which that activity will take place.

Thomas (2011) and Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1980) identified five stages of clinical supervision, including:

- i. Pre-observation conference
- ii. Observation
- iii. Analysis and strategy session
- iv. Conference stage
- v. Post-conference analysis

According to Cook (1996), the supervisor and the teacher should collaborate to make decisions during the first four major stages, but the supervisor should make all decisions during the final stage. The primary audience for the post-conference study is the supervisor, who frequently needs to assess whether the optimal supervisory techniques were applied to the teacher. This study offers a reflection activity to assist the supervisor in making changes for improved outcomes.

The Circuit Supervisors' Handbook (2009) states that the GES choose to use the clinical supervision model due to its significant advantages over conventional supervisory procedures. In clinical supervision, the teacher and the supervisor both adopt the role of instructional experts or colleagues, and the teacher frequently discusses issues or concerns with the supervisor, who then assists in finding solutions. The clinical supervision model is preferred over the traditional model of supervision because, in contrast to the traditional model, which makes the supervisor feel like an instructional expert or superior who is constantly telling the teacher what needs to be

done and how to be done, clinical supervision views teachers as individuals who have the motivation and personal resources to solve their problems.

Additionally, clinical supervision helps the supervisor to be more interactive than directive, more democratic than autocratic and more focused than unsystematic. The clinical supervision model promotes friendly interaction between the supervisor and the teacher and this helps to develop and improve teaching and learning for the benefit of the learners and the teacher as well. As a result, the supervisor clinically diagnoses the teaching problems of the teacher and they collectively find a lasting solution to the problem. According to the Supervisors' Handbook, clinical supervision is a five-step process that enables teachers to identify problems, clarify them for supervisors, and develop solutions. Each stage is highlighted in detail to ensure that the supervisors and the supervisees thoroughly apply the five phases described in the supervisors' handbook.

A focus on the supervisee's transition from novice to experienced professional through a defined step process with representative issues facing supervisees at each level is a feature of developmental models of supervision. Due to the peculiarities of each developmental stage, supervisors can increase effectiveness by making interventions that will help supervisees develop even more (Watkins, 2004). Inherent in developmental supervision is the assumption that because teachers operate at varying levels of conceptual understanding, ability, and effectiveness, they need to be supervised in ways consistent with their needs. As the teachers become self-regulated and self-directed learners, developmental supervisors naturally shift from expert to facilitator role, which is more collegial, cooperative, and nondirective. Research on the effectiveness of developmental supervision (Zellermayer & Margolins, 2005) indicated that supervisors who use this approach are more flexible because they can

shift their approaches based on the needs of teachers and groups. Developmental supervisors apply the nondirective strategy proposed by Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon in 2014 to provide a safety net for teachers to engage in a series of interdependent activities such as setting professional goals, developing self-improvement plans, monitoring progress, and thinking critically about teaching and learning. Given this, Glickman et al. (2009) suggested using four different developmental model methods: directive control, directive informative, collaborative, and non-directive practices. These can be employed to best meet the demands of teachers.

Bernard Discrimination model of supervision, on the other hand, is cited by Jeon (2017) and Bernard and Goodyear (2009) as one of the most extensively studied and applied integrative models of supervision. This paradigm provides three distinct focuses for supervision: intervention, conceptualization, and personalization, as well as three potential responsibilities for a supervisor (teacher, counsellor, and consultant).

2.6 Characteristics of Good Educational Supervisors

In educational institutions, an educational supervisor can be the principal, the head of the department, the subject leader, or the school leader. Like outstanding teachers and counsellors, effective educational supervisors seem to share many of similar traits. John (2010) argues that effective educational supervisors possess self-knowledge in their everyday leadership positions since educational supervision also involves leadership. They are sincere, friendly, and adaptable. According to Borders (2004), effective supervisors are aware of their strengths and weaknesses as well as how their personality and interpersonal style may influence how they perform supervision. Self-

awareness has a significant impact on how well a supervisor gets along with their coworkers, supervisees, and senior officers (Borders, 2004).

Effective supervision, according to Neagley and Evans (1970), calls for a strong sense of leadership. They argue that an effective supervisor should be bright, well-versed in educational psychology, likeable, experienced, and knowledgeable about the democratic group process as evidence in favour of this. Additionally, according to several academics, effective supervisors combine their technical and interpersonal talents. Brennen (2008) makes the argument that a competent supervisor who successfully integrates interpersonal and technical abilities is successful in enhancing education. He adds that a good boss should be able to foster mutual respect, selfacceptance, integrity, and trust between the two sides. According to the aforementioned, all scholars agree that educational supervision is beneficial if the supervisor demonstrates and possesses attributes and characteristics connected to educational knowledge, and interpersonal, and technical skills. By the aforementioned literature review, I contend that managers, supervisors, head teachers, and their staff should receive regular, adequate training and support to prepare them for their roles and to cope with the dynamism of society, in which the educational sector must operate. The provision of logistics for the performance of this position should be regular as this guarantees consistency of supervision for the improvement of students' teaching and learning results as well as for their professional leadership development.

2.7 Theoretical Framework

This study is underpinned by the Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2009) developmental supervision. Glickman et al. (2009) identified four practices of supervision, including directive control, directive informational, collaborative, and non-directive supervision. Directive informational supervision gives teachers more

control of their own evaluation process. Sullivan and Glanz (2005) explain that goal setting is a part of this type of supervision. Supervisors set goals for teachers and offer a list of options for achieving the goals. Teachers are allowed to choose from the list of options set by the administrator, the course that they would prefer. The directive informational supervision approach is used to help guide new faculty as they become more familiar and confident in their teaching styles and strategies. In this case, the supervisor still constantly takes a very active role in terms of "framing the direction and choice of the teacher," and is still primarily responsible for all aspects of supervision.

Non-directive supervisory practice engenders actions by the supervisees and assists them to think through consequences, and create their own action plans (Glickman et al., 2009). Dawursk (2011) indicates that in non-directive supervision, the teacher creates their own plan. The premise is simple: the teacher has the capability to self-analyse, self-critique, and implement viable solutions on their own. This form of self-direction hinges upon the teacher's intrinsic desire for improvement and positive change and necessitates that the teacher sees the need for change. This approach should be considered with veteran teachers who are experienced to regulate themselves within the common instructional goals. The standard clinical approach to supervision could be supplemented with a reflective analysis whereas the teacher analyses and interprets what the principal has observed. If a clinical approach is used, it is the teacher who determines the plan and solutions. Glickman et al. (2009) adds that in non-directive approach teachers are able to determine their own plans with some assistance by use of behaviours such as listening, reflecting, clarifying, encouraging, and problem-solving. He further adds that it should be used when

individual or group posses' greater expertise, commitment and responsibility for a decision than the principals do.

The directive control practice to supervision is utilized with teachers when it is assumed that the supervisor has greater knowledge and expertise regarding an issue or when teachers are lacking the appropriate skills within a given situation (Glickman et al., 2009). In this supervisory practice, the supervisor has all the control and teachers must adhere to the process set by the supervisor (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005). These authors further observed that supervisors who do not want opposing views generally choose this type of supervision. Supervisors might exercise this type of supervision over limited items like emergency procedures rather than over the entire supervisory process. The directive control may be used when a teacher refuses to comply with a school policy. In this approach, the final decision always lies with the supervisor. The directive control approach has its roots in the early inspection models of supervision but should not necessarily connote an adversarial relationship. It does however indicate that the supervisor has selected what should work best for the given situation and that the she is willing to take responsibility for that decision (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2009). Directive supervision is used when either the faculty member is very new and needs more directive guidance, or when the faculty member is struggling and needs close monitoring and/or guidance. It helps in controlling teacher actions and will end with the supervisor making the final decision.

The approach with the lowest level of supervisor intervention is called nondirective. This approach is generally reserved for expert teachers who know more about the issue than the supervisor or when the teachers are going to be accountable for the decision or are highly committed. Glickman et al. (2009) suggested that the ultimate goal of supervision is to continuously move towards a nondirective approach.

Nondirective supervision is the mode that is designed for the exceptional supervisee. While both the supervisee and the supervisor are considered equals and colleagues, the individual teacher is considered more of an expert in the particular area than the supervisor (Glickman et al., 2009).

In the collaborative practice, there listening, presenting, problem solving, and negotiating and in which the supervisor and teacher propose alternative actions for improvement, and discuss and alter actions until a joint plan is agreed upon. The role of a teacher in this process cannot be underestimated (Glathorne, 2000). Decisions are arrived at jointly by clarifying, listening, reflecting, presenting, problem solving, negotiating and standardizing. This approach should be used when teachers and principals have similar levels of expertise, involvement and concern with problem. Its purpose is to provide for cooperative, equal decision-making (Glickman et al., 2009). Dawursk (2011) agrees that the approach allows the teacher and principal to negotiate a plan of action where neither side's viewpoint is excluded. The end product is often a contract and both the principal and teacher share responsibility in its completion. This approach is a more preferred method of supervision as it allows the supervisor to express their opinion and participate in the problem solving but does not mandate their way as the only way. It allows the teacher and principal to share the ownership of the plan and proposed solution. This is especially helpful in areas where the supervisors are not experts or have little or no experience. Through collaboration, the most informed individual expresses their knowledge but everyone participates in the decision-making process.

Collaboration is best used with teachers that are functioning at medium to higher developmental levels or when the supervisor and the teacher have relatively equal expertise regarding an issue. In the collaborative approach, both the teacher and the supervisor are held responsible for the outcomes. One major concern in supervisors utilizing this type of approach is developing a true collaborative relationship. Supervisors who withhold power during the collaboration aspects of this approach will undermine their attempt at collaboration (Glickman et al., 2009). Researchers (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000) have emphasized the importance of the collaborative effort of all participants involved in the supervisory process. This supervisor practice concentrates on the professional development of the teachers to enhance their job performance (Tyagi, 2010).

Directive informational practice utilizes the expertise of the supervisor to provide alternative choices for the teacher regarding a specific goal. The supervisor still determines the goal required for the teacher to meet. Directive informational approaches are generally used when teachers are at relatively low developmental levels or when they are confused about what to try in their classrooms. The supervisor still retains the expert role in providing choices, so therefore the success of the selected choice is still the responsibility of the supervisor (Glickman et al., 2009). The supervisor standardizes and restricts choices during the meetings, with the result of a supervisor-suggested plan of action. This orientation is used to direct teachers to consider and choose from clearly delineated alternative actions. Such an approach is useful when the expertise, confidence, and credibility of the supervisor clearly outweigh the teachers' own information, experience, and capabilities (Glickman et al., 2009).

2.8 Empirical Review

2.8.1 Supervisory Practices in Educational Institutions

Previous studies have revealed that supervisors use varying types of styles in their supervisory activities. Hoque, Kenayathulla, Subramaniam and Islam (2020) conducted a study on supervisory practices in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The researchers adopted a quantitative approach where a questionnaire was used to collect data which was analysed using descriptive statistics like mean and standard deviation. Simple random sampling was used to select 400 participants for the study, including 300 teachers and 100 supervisors. The study revealed that all the supervisory practices were rated as high. However, the non-directive supervisory practice was dominant (M=3.89), followed by collaborative supervisory practice (M=3.83) and directive supervisory practice (M=3.64). Therefore, the study recommended that school supervisors and headmasters should choose the right kind of supervisory practices which can contribute to better teaching performance.

Thobega and Miller (2007) found that cooperating teachers preferred nondirective over collaborative, directive informational, and directive styles of developmental supervision. Like cooperating teachers, university supervisors tend to practice nondirective supervision (Justen, Strickland, & McJunkin, 1999). Based on the literature reviewed, it is evident that both supervisors and supervisees have their preferences for supervisory styles.

Thobega (2006) discovered that the supervisors most frequently used nondirective supervision where it was revealed that 34.6% of respondents rated their supervisors as nondirective. Directive informational supervision was the second most commonly (33.3%) used style followed by collaborative supervision (28.4%) and directive supervision (3.7%). In another study, Thobega and Miller (2008) established that

supervisors were perceived to use mainly nondirective, collaborative, and directive-informational styles of developmental supervision, but a few used the directive style. It could be concluded from the findings of above studies that nondirective supervision is dominant among supervisors whilst the directive style is rarely used.

Several studies relating teacher and supervisor preferences for developmental supervision practices have revealed conflicting results. For instance, in a survey of teachers and supervisors in Catholic high schools, Rossicone (1985) examined teacher preferences for and perceptions of directive, nondirective and collaborative supervisory styles in Brooklyn Diocese, Jamaica, and New York. Seventy-six percent of the teachers preferred their supervisors to use a collaborative style, 20% preferred nondirective, and 4% preferred a directive style of supervision. In a similar study, Akinniyi (1987) sought to determine the relationship between a supervisor's perceptions of his/her supervisory behaviour and the teachers' actual perceptions and preferences for supervision in the state of Wisconsin, United States. Seventy-five percent preferred collaborative practices, 22% preferred the nondirective practice, and 3% preferred the directive approach. These studies indicate that, in general, teachers prefer a collaborative approach to supervision.

2.8.2 Indicators of Quality Assurance

Several institutions have outlined the indicators of quality assurance that should constitute the focus of attention. According to the European Education Quality Benchmark, the main components of quality education provision is teaching and learning, and its main focus is on the pedagogical, didactical and content (Kristen, 2007). These components have five indicators, namely, teaching, learning, curriculum, student assessment, and learning materials. Consequently, a sound quality assurance culture would therefore mainly pay attention on these components.

Internal quality assurance system can be designed based on the quality award model issued proposed by Malcolm Baldrige in United States of America. In the Criteria for Performance Excellence (Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, 2010) guidelines cited in Febriadi and Riharjo (2022), quality assurance carried out by educational institutions should be based on a standard that guarantees quality. The institution proposed eight indicators of quality assurance. These include quality leadership, human resource development, quality strategy, source of information, quality assurance on processes and products, satisfaction of human resources, customer satisfaction, and social and environmental impacts.

According to Stoica and Ghilic-Micu (2009), quality assurance should focus on three concerns, including the quality of education process itself (class/course support, platform, technology), quality of instructor (professional training, qualification, teaching skills and abilities, teaching methods), and quality of a person attending the course/class (learning, body-of-knowledge, involvement, motivation to acquire knowledge). For the purpose of this study, the indicators of quality assurance include effective leadership, orientation of new teaching staff, checking teacher's record of work, provision of professional development, lesson observation, monitoring punctuality and regularity, effective assessment of learning.

2.8.3 Relationship between Supervisory Practices and Quality Assurance

Research has revealed a positive relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance. Studies have established that supervisors have the responsibility of ensuring quality assurance in education in terms of their production resources, production processes and the final products so as to attain the general goal for which the school was established. These scholars add that education supervisors have the responsibility of applying both internal and external methods to ensure that quality is

promoted in educational programmes and activities that are under their jurisdiction. Again, Asuquo and Emeribe (2019) noted that supervision ensures quality control in education, maintains high standard of education at all levels, determines the quality of the teacher input, and determines the level of adequacy of the facilities available for quality control. Therefore, the authors concluded that supervision sustains quality assurance in educational institutions. The issue of concern to the researcher is 'what is the relationship between instructional practices and quality assurance in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District?

2.9 Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for the study is presented in Figure 1.

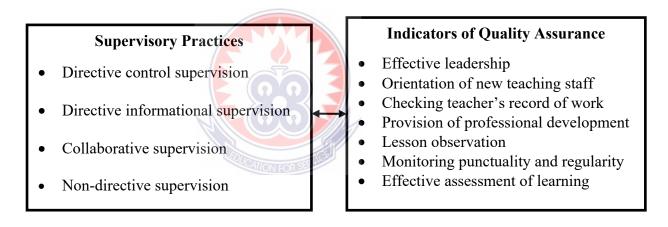


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the Study Source: Researcher's Construction (2022)

There are two sets of variables, including supervisory practices and quality assurance. Supervisory practices are the independent variables while quality assurance is the dependent variable. Supervisory practices included directive control, directive informational, collaborative, and non-directive supervision. The indicators of quality assurance include effective leadership, orientation of new teaching staff, checking teacher's record of work, provision of professional development, lesson observation,

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monitoring punctuality and regularity, effective assessment of learning. The researcher seeks to examine the relationship between the supervisory practices and quality assurance indicators outlined in the study.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology that was adopted in carrying out the study. It begins with the philosophical underpinning, then the research design, population, sample and sampling technique, instruments and their validity and reliability, data collection procedures, and data analysis procedures. The chapter ends with a discussion on ethical issues that were followed on conducting the study.

3.1 Philosophical Underpinning of the Study

Research philosophy refers to research assumption, knowledge, and nature of social realities (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2012). Research philosophy connotes the belief systems that researchers subscribe to, and which inform the basis of their decisions relative to the approaches they adopt in studying social phenomena (Pranas, Jolita & Regina, 2018). The study was guided by the positivist philosophy. This philosophical thought is based on quantitative data and observation with the goal of being independent from subjective opinions (Bryman & Bell, 2011). These authors further add that the positivist philosophy is the natural science procedure for collecting data about an observable reality and search for regularities and relationships to create generalizations. Therefore, it is said that positivist researchers adopt structured methodology to facilitate replication (Gill & Johnson, 2010). In addition, a positivist approach to research is conducted in a value-free manner, and

the outcome is entirely objective. Saunders et al. (2012) note that a central part within positivism is testing theories, generating and testing hypotheses and relationships.

From these descriptions, it is deduced that the positivist philosophical viewpoint suggests that the only reliable and valid knowledge is derived from structured and controlled procedures as contained in the natural sciences like Chemistry, Biology, and Physics. In essence, social scientists are required to adopt structured processes to arrive at knowledge that is acceptable. With the positivist tradition, this study required the use of structured questionnaires to gather quantifiable data for statistical analysis to test theories and hypotheses. Despite the assertion that the positivist's philosophy helps to arrive at objective findings, the positivist view has been criticized as superficial because it is unable to arrive at in-depth knowledge (Cavana, Delahaye & Sekaran, 2001). Despite this flaw, the researcher adopted this philosophy because it was deemed most appropriate in providing answers to the research questions outlined in the study.

3.2 Research Approach

In line with the philosophical underpinning of this study, that is positivism, the researcher adopted the quantitative research approach. According to Apuke (2017), this research approach deals with quantifying and analysing variables to provide answers to hypotheses or research questions. It involves the generation and analysis of numerical data using specific statistical techniques to answer research questions. Creswell (2012) explains that in the quantitative approach, researchers are able to examine relationships between two or more variables. In the quantitative methodology, the researcher uses statistics and surveys with the aim to generalize the findings to a greater extent, hence quantitative methodology permits large sample size (Shiu, Hair, Bush, & Ortinau, 2009).

Despite the justification for the use of the quantitative approach, it is not without weaknesses. According to Macnee and McCabe (2008), the quantitative research is unable to consider the individuality of human experience. Creswell and Plano-Clarke (2011) add that the quantitative research is seen to be weak in understanding the context or setting in which people talk and the voices of respondents are not directly heard and documented. However, the researcher adopted the quantitative approach because of the numeric data that was collected through the use of questionnaires to statistically examine relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance.

3.3 Research Design

A research design of a study refers to the overall plan for collecting and analysing data needed to find answers to the research questions (Polit & Beck, 2018). A research design is the master plan that determines the sources and processes involved in generating data, organizing and analysing the data, and interpreting the results so as to provide answers to the research questions. Therefore, a research design guides the researcher at every stage of the study.

This study adopted the descriptive survey design. Mugenda and Mugenda (2009) explains that the descriptive design is used to gather information about prevailing conditions or situations for the purpose of description and interpretation. It is appropriate for when the researcher intends to make comparisons, identify trends and relationships between variables. This design was appropriate for the study which sought to investigate the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance. Neuman (2014) also argues for the choice of the descriptive design when participants are required to self-report about particular behaviours, beliefs, attitudes, opinions, characteristics, expectations, and knowledge. The supervisory practices and

quality assurance were based on the views of supervisors and teachers in the Bosomtwe District which made this design appropriate for the study.

Scholars like Saunders et al. (2012) argue that the descriptive survey is versatile to collect quantitative and qualitative data, allow the collection of a large amount of data from a large population in a highly economical way and quickly. Additionally, surveys are useful instruments for describing characteristics of large sample population to generate quantitative or numerical data about teachers' behaviours and perceptions that could later be statistically analysed (Fowler, 2014). This study employed the quantitative approach where numeric data were generated to ascertain the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance, thereby justifies the selection of the descriptive survey. The cross-sectional type of descriptive survey which Bryman (2015) explains that it requires that the researcher collects data once at a particular period. Therefore, the researcher collected data once to investigate the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance.

3.4 Population of the Study

A research population as the group on which results of research can be applied or to which the research findings can be generalized (Satishprakash, 2020). Additionally, the population of a study refers to all the people, events or objects to which a researcher wishes to generalize the results of a research (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). The target population of the study was all education supervisors and teachers in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District in 2022 academic year. The target population comprised 1 Deputy Director of Education in charge of supervision in the Bosomtwe District, 5 SISOs, 62 headteachers, and 608 teachers in the public basic schools, totalling 676.

3.5 Sample Size Determination

Sample size is the number of participants that are required to provide data in a study so as to ensure the validity of findings, and ensure the generalization of findings to the larger population (Kothari & Garg, 2014). A sample size of 338 respondents was selected to participate in the study. This included 68 education supervisors, and 270 teachers. This sample size constituted about 50% of the target population (676). Quantitative researchers argue that large sample size is appropriate to generate robust data and findings (Saunders et al., 2012). Therefore, the sample size constituted 50% of the target population as proposed by Mugenda and Mugenda (2009) that 50% of the target population is adequate in quantitative studies.

3.6 Sample and Sampling Technique

A sample is a subset of the population of interest selected to participate in a study and is representative of the total population that one desires to study (Polit & Beck, 2018). The sample of a study is therefore those who are chosen from the target population to participate and actually produce data for the study. Therefore, the supervisors and teachers who took part in the study constituted the sample of the study.

Sampling involves taking a portion of the population, making observation on this smaller group and then generalizing the findings to the larger population (Orodho, 2009). Sampling therefore is the process of selecting the participants of the study so that any conclusions drawn on the sample describes the population. This study combined census sampling and proportionate stratified random sampling to select supervisors and teachers respectively for the study.

Census sampling involves collecting information from each and every person of interest in a study (Babbie, 2010). According to Black (2009), census sampling is

most appropriate in research because it eliminates sampling error and enhances the representativeness of the sample than any probability sampling techniques. This sampling strategy was used to select all the headmasters for the study because of their relatively small number. The researcher was aware of the challenges associated with the census sampling technique in terms of time and high cost (Black, 2009). This sampling technique was used to select all the supervisors in the Bosomtwe District in 2022 so as to obtain all the supervisors' opinion about leadership styles and task performance in the schools. This sampling technique was employed because the researcher was convinced that the views of all the supervisors were crucial in analysing the constructs under investigation. Also, the number of supervisors was relatively small in relation to the teachers, hence all of them were considered in the study. Therefore, all the 68 supervisors in the Bosomtwe District in 2022 were selected to participate in the study.

Mugenda and Mugenda (2009) explain proportionate stratified random sampling as where study participants are selected in such a way that existing subgroups in the target population are equally replicated in the sample. Popoola (2011) also describes the stratified random sampling as a sampling technique in which the heterogeneous population is first divided into a set of mutually exclusive sub-populations (strata), and thereafter random samples are then selected from each stratum for a study. Scholars like Proctor, Allan and Lacey (2010) maintain that the use of probability sampling technique like the proportionate stratified random sampling technique in quantitative research reduces errors and biases in the study.

In carrying out the proportionate stratified random sampling technique, a sampling frame was drawn which is a list of members of the research population from which a random sample may be drawn (Gill & Johnson, 2002). The teacher population was

put into two strata by sex, and a proportionate sampling procedure was followed to select from each stratum so that the sample is representative of the population. Therefore, the target population for the teachers was put into two strata based on gender (male/female), and there were 316 male teachers representing 52% and 292 female teachers representing 48% out of the total of 608 teachers. Using the same proportions, 140 (52%) male teachers and 130 (48%) female teachers out of the sample size of 270 teachers were selected for the study.

3.7 Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaires were used to collect data in the study, particularly the structured questionnaire. A structured questionnaire requires that the respondents respond to a series of pre-developed questions posed by the researcher with closed-ended items and a rating scale with pre-determined response options such that respondents respond to the same items (Polit & Beck, 2018). Therefore, structured questionnaire limits the responses of participants to that provided by the researcher. Polit and Beck (2018) support the use of structured questionnaire in quantitative studies because it enhances the objectivity of data collected and supports statistical analysis. The choice of structured questionnaire was also influenced by Denzin and Lincoln's (2018) argument of its advantages such as relatively low cost, structured information leading to straightforward analysis, quick results, as well as its stable, consistent, and uniform method of collecting data.

The questionnaire was made up of two parts. Part One gathered the bio-data of the respondents such as age, academic qualification, and work experience. Part Two contained items based on supervisory practices. There were 12 items in this questionnaire which were measured in 5-point Likert scale for each dimension such that 1= Never, 2= Rarely, 3=Sometimes, 4=Often, and 5=Always. The indicators of

quality assurance were measured on a 5-point Likert scale with 1= Strongly Disagreed, 2= Disagreed, 3=Neutral, 4=Agreed, and 5=Strongly Agreed. The supervisory practice questionnaire was adapted where the adaptation involved rephrasing some of the items in the original questionnaire to suit the context of the study. The quality assurance items were self-developed by the researcher. To ensure that a more valid data was collected based on respondents' perception, both the supervisors and teachers responded to the same items so as to triangulate data from multiple sources. The respondents were required to choose only one option in each item to reflect their perception.

3.8 Pre-testing of instruments

Pre-testing of research instruments is described as "A preliminary study carried out before the full research to test out data collection instruments and other procedures" (Gerrish & Lacey, 2006, p. 538). The pre-test was meant to check out any problems which may arise in the course of data collection and correct them before the actual study began. Pre-testing of an instrument is also necessary for checking its validity and reliability (Mugenda & Mugenda, 2009). Therefore, the questionnaire was pre-tested in Ejisu Juaben Municipal with 34 participants. This sample size of the pre-test test was within Cooper and Schilder's (2018) rule of thumb that 10% of the sample size should constitute the pre-test sample.

3.8.1 Validity of the Questionnaire

Validity of an instrument is the extent to which it measures what it is intended to measure (Oso & Onen, 2011). Both face validity and content validity were ensured in the study. Face validity refers to whether the instrument appears as though it is measuring the appropriate construct (Polit & Beck, 2018). The questionnaire was given to colleagues on the master's programme to examine whether they were in line

with the research questions. Their views on the length of some items and ambiguities were considered in fine-tuning the instrument. Scholars have argued that the inputs of research supervisors are vital in determining content validity since it depends on expert judgment (Gall et al., 2007). Therefore, the questionnaire was given to the supervisor who made suggestions in reshaping it in ensuring content validity.

3.8.2 Reliability of the Questionnaire

Reliability refers to the consistency of results if a study is repeated, and is concerned with stability, internal reliability and inter-observer consistency (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Reliability is also described as the likelihood of obtaining the same results when the researcher measures the same variable more than once or when more than one person measures the same variable (Brink, 2006). In this study, reliability of the questionnaire was checked through internal consistency where Cronbach alpha coefficient was computed to determine the reliability based on the data collected in the pre-test. The reliability results are presented in Table 1.

Table 3.1: Reliability Results

Cronbach Alpha Coefficient
0.789
0.845
0.810
0.794
0.842
0.931
0.769
0.834
0.774
0.899
0.787

Source: Field Data, 2022

The Cronbach alpha coefficient of each variable in the instrument exceeded 0.70 which according to George and Mallery (2016) is acceptable level of reliability.

3.9 Data Collection Procedure

Data collection is the gathering of information needed to address a research problem (Polit & Beck, 2018). Therefore, data collection is a process of gathering data for analysis and interpretation so as to provide answers to research questions or hypotheses. Prior to the commencement of data collection, the researcher obtained all the necessary documents including an introduction letter from the Department of Educational Foundations, University of Education, Winneba, and permission letter from the Bosomtwe District Education Directorate of the Ghana Education Service. Data collection was carried out in October, 2022 and lasted for one month. The researcher personally distributed the questionnaires to the respondents in their respective schools. The researcher was available in the schools during data collection to clarify any concerns from the participants.

3.10 Data Analysis

Data analysis is the systematic organization and synthesis of research data, and the testing of a research hypothesis using the data collected (Polit & Hungler, 1999). The returned questionnaires were cleaned, and those that were not responded to or poorly answered were eliminated. The survey data were coded and entered into Statistical Package for Service Solution (SPSS) version 26. Data coding involves assigning numerical values to the variables. For instance, the categories of respondents were coded as 1 for supervisors and 2 for teachers. The data were explored to identify missing data and outliers using descriptive statistics such as percentages and frequencies.

The data was transformed using the SPSS compute function. This involves finding the mean of items that represented a variable. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, mean, and standard deviation were used to describe the data which were organized into tables. Descriptive statistics enabled the researcher to reduce, summarize, and describe quantitative data obtained from empirical evidence (Polit & Beck, 2018). Specifically, frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the bio-data whiles mean and standard deviation were used to analyse research questions one and two.

Inferential statistics, particularly Pearson Product Moment correlation was also used to answer research question three. In order to determine the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance, the Pearson product moment correlation was employed because it is suitable for determining the bivariate correlation between two variables (Bryman, 2015). Pearson correlation was used for bivariate relationship to examine the strength and direction of relationships between supervisory practices and quality assurance at a significance level of 0.05 as commonly used by social scientists (Agresti & Finlay, 2009). According to Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken (2013), correlation coefficient of 0 implies no relationship between two variables; correlation coefficients are considered small when they range from 0.10 to 0.30, moderate when it is between 0.31 to 0.50, and large when it is 0.51 to 1.0. These cutoff points were used to assess the strength of the relationship.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

According to Polit and Beck (2018), research ethics is a system of moral values that is concerned with the degree to which research procedures follow professional, legal and sociological obligations to the study participants. The researcher adhered to ethical principles such as anonymity, confidentiality, and informed consent. Anonymity occurs when nobody could link a participant with the information for that person

(Polit & Beck, 2018). This was maintained when the researcher omitted the names and other personal details of the participants in the questionnaire and in the final report. Instead, the researcher marked the questionnaires by giving each a code to assist in data capturing and checking during the phase of data management and analysis.

Confidentiality demands that participants are protected in a study such that individual information provided is not publicly disclosed without their consent (Polit & Beck, 2018). The filled in questionnaires were locked in a cabinet, and data in SPSS were secured in a password. The completed questionnaires were shredded after the study.

Informed consent means that participants have adequate information regarding the research, are capable of comprehending the information and have the power of free choice, enabling them to consent or decline participation in the research (Polit & Beck, 2018). The respondents were reminded of their voluntary participation, and that they were free to decline to answer the questionnaire if they so wished. However, after explaining the purpose of the study to the respondents, they voluntarily participated in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter dwells on the presentation of the findings of the analyses of data as well as their discussion. The chapter is presented under three major themes. Firstly, the response rate is discussed, and then the demographic characteristics of the respondents are shown. The third sub-section delves into the presentation of results of the research questions and their discussion.

4.1 Response Rate

Out of the 338 questionnaires distributed to the respondents, 300 were completely filled and returned, representing a response rate of 88.8%. This response rate was realized because 5 questionnaires were not returned while 3 had many missing data which could distort the findings if they were included in the analysis. Nevertheless, this response rate was adequate for statistical analysis based on the suggestion of Dillman (2000) that a response rate of 70% is adequate in questionnaire administration.

4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents such as sex, age and academic qualification were examined, and the results are presented in Table 2.

Table 4.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percent
Sex			
	Male	159	53.0
	Female	141	47.0
	Total	300	100
Academic Qualification			
	Diploma	95	31.7
	Bachelor's Degree	157	52.3
	Masters	48	16.0
	Total (1)	300	100
Age	Valley Heast wheel		
	Less than 29	37	12.3
	30 to 39	126	42.0
	40 to 49	78	26.0
	50 and above	59	19.7
	Total	300	100

Source: Fieldwork Data (2022)

The information also disclosed that more males 159(53%) than females 141(47%) were involved in the study. The composition of the respondents based on academic qualification showed that more than half of the respondents had Bachelor's Degree 157(52.3%) as compared to Diploma holders 95(31.7%), and Masters 48(16%) holders respectively. It was also revealed that majority of the respondents were 30-40 years 126(42%) than those 41-49; 78(26%), 51 and above 59(19.7%) years, and less than 29; 37(12.3%) respectively. The demographic compositions of the respondents were vital to the study in two ways. Firstly, they confirmed that data was collected from a sample with diverse backgrounds which suggested that the data was rich. Secondly, the demographic characteristics like sex and academic qualification were used as the basis of comparison of the supervisors on their supervisory practices.

4.3 Analysis of Research Question

4.3.1 Research Question One: What are the supervisory practices of supervisors in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District?

This research question examined the supervisory practices of education supervisors in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District. The supervisory practices involved in the study included directive control supervision, directive informational supervision, collaborative supervision, and non-directive supervision. Descriptive statistics, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse the data, and the results are shown in Table 3.

Table 4.2: Supervisory Practices of Education Supervisors

Supervisory Practices	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Non-directive supervision	1	5	2.803	1.179
Directive control supervision	1	5	2.790	1.153
Directive informational supervision	1	5	2.780	1.176
Collaborative supervision	1	5	2.687	1.183

Source: Fieldwork Data (2022)

The results in Table 4.2 revealed that the supervisors practiced all the supervisory practices outlined in this study. The general practice of supervision was scored with a mean score of 2.765 and a standard deviation of 1.070. However, the findings showed that supervisors rated highest on non-directive supervision (M=2.803, SD=1.179), followed by directive control supervision (M=2.790, SD=1.153), directive supervision (M=2.780, SD=1.176), collaborative supervision informational (M=2.687, SD=1.183). This implies that the supervisors employed several supervisory practices in the schools. Based on the 5-point Likert scale used in the questionnaire where the mean score is 3.0 [1+2+3+4+5÷5], the findings established that the practice of supervision among the supervisors was above average for all the practices outlined in this study. The finding of the study that supervisors in the schools highly practiced a mixture of supervisory practices agree with the finding of a precious study carried out in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia by Hoque et al. (2020). The finding of the current study also agrees with precious studies (Hoque, 2020; Thobega & Miller, 2007; Thobega, 2006) non-directive supervision practice was dominant among supervisors.

4.3.2 Research Question Two: Which indicators of quality assurance were carried out in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District?

The second research question examined the indicators of quality assurance among supervisors in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District. The indictors included effective leadership, orientation of new teaching staff, checking teacher's record of work, provision of professional development, lesson observation, monitoring punctuality and regularity, and effective assessment of learning. The data was analysed using descriptive statistics, mean and standard deviation, and the results are shown in Table 3.

Table 4.3: Quality Assurance Indicators in the Schools

Indicators of Quality Assurance	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Effective leadership		5	2.897	1.235
Orientation of new teaching staff	9	5	2.427	0.939
Effective assessment of learning		5	2.317	1.055
Checking teacher's record of work	1	4	2.200	0.933
Provision of professional development	1	5	2.110	0.924
Monitoring punctuality and regularity	1	5	2.030	0.944
Lesson observation	1	5	1.980	0.884
Overall Quality Assurance	1	4	2.280	0.638

Source: Fieldwork Data (2022)

The findings in Table 4.3 revealed that the supervisors demonstrated quality assurance in several areas in the schools. Specifically, the findings showed that ensuring effective leadership was scored highest among the quality assurance indicators (2.897, SD=1.235), followed by orientation of new teaching staff (M=2.427, SD=0.939), effective assessment of learning (M=2.317, SD=1.055), checking teacher's record of work (M=2.200, SD=0.933), provision of professional development (M=2.110, SD=0.924), monitoring punctuality and regularity (M=2.030, SD=0.944), and lesson observation (M=1.980, SD=0.884) respectively. The general maintenance of quality assurance was rated at 2.280 with a standard deviation of 0.638. With the 5-point Likert scale used in the questionnaire where the mean was 3.0, the researcher concluded that except lesson observation which was rated low, all the other indicators of quality assurance was rated high. The findings of this study concur with the findings of previous studies (Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, 2010; Kristen, 2007) which variously pointed that the indicators outlined in this study should be the focus of quality assurance in educational institutions. It is inferred from the finding of this study as well as the findings of previous studies that quality assurance ensures quality of the education system; hence there should be a conscious effort to ensure that the various elements and programmes of the schools are implemented effectively.

4.3.3 Research Question Three: What is the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District?

The third research question examined the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance. The Pearson product moment correlation was used to analyse the relationship between the variables. The interpretation of the strength of the correlation coefficients was based on the recommendation of Cohen et al. (2013). The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4.4: Pearson Correlation Matrix between Supervisory Practices and Quality Assurance

	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Overall Supervisory Practice	1					
2.	Directive control supervision	0.909*	1				
		0.000					
3.	Directive informational supervision	0.924*	0.799*	1			
		0.000	0.000				
4.	Collaborative supervision	0.914*	0.790*	0.782*	1		
		0.000	0.000	0.000			
5.	Non-directive supervision	0.901*	0.732*	0.791*	0.761*	1	
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000		
6.	Overall Quality Assurance	0.418*	0.425*	0.358*	0.379*	0.364*	1
		0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	

N=300

*Correlation is significant at p<0.05

Source: Fieldwork Data (2022)

The results in Table 4.4 indicated that generally, there was moderate and statistically significant positive relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance (r=0.418, p<0.05, 2-tailed). The results further indicated that there was moderate and statistically significant positive relationship between directive control supervision and quality assurance (r=0.425, p<0.05, 2-tailed); there was a moderate and statistically significant positive relationship between directive informational supervision and quality assurance (r=0.358, p<0.05, 2-tailed); there was a moderate and statistically significant relationship between collaborative supervision and quality assurance (r=0.379, p<0.05, 2-tailed); and there was a moderate and statistically significant relationship between non-directive supervision and quality assurance (r=0.364, p<0.05, 2-tailed). Therefore, the study concluded that supervisory practices are good determinant of quality assurance in public basic schools in Bosomtwe District. There consensus between the finding of this study and that of previous studies (Horokhova et al., 2022; Asuquo and Emeribe, 2019) which established a positive relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance. This implies that when supervisors carry out their supervisory practices effectively, quality assurance is enhanced in the schools. Conversely, when supervisors renege on their supervisory role, then quality assurance suffers in the schools.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary, conclusions, recommendations as well as areas for further studies. The chapter is organised in five sections. Section one provides a summary of the study by highlighting the major components of the study. The second section highlights the major findings of the study while the third section presents the conclusions derived from the findings. In the fourth section, the recommendations of the study are presented, while suggestion for further studies is outlined in the fifth section.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the supervisory practices of supervisors in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District, and examine the relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance in the public basic schools in Bosomtwe District. The study used a descriptive survey design to collect quantitative data for the study through the use of structured questionnaire. The sample for the study involved the Deputy Director of Education in charge of supervision, SISOs, headteachers and teachers. Using the census and proportionate stratified random sampling techniques, a sample size of 338 participants comprising 68 supervisors and 270 teachers. However, data from 300 respondents were involved in the analysis and interpretation, representing a response rate of 88.8%. The data were analysed using both descriptive (mean, frequency, standard deviation) and inferential (Pearson correlation) statistics

with the aid of SPSS. Ethical principles such as anonymity, confidentiality, and informed consent were addressed in the study.

5.2 Major Findings of the Study

The major findings of the study included the following:

- 1) The study found that the supervisors practiced a mix of supervision in the schools. However, the findings showed that the supervisors practiced the non-directive supervision most, followed by the directive control supervision, directive informational supervision, and collaborative supervision.
- 2) It was discovered in the study that except lesson observation which was rated low, all the other indicators of quality assurance were rated high in the schools. However, the findings showed that ensuring effective leadership was scored highest among the quality assurance indicators, followed by orientation of new teaching staff, effective assessment of learning, checking teacher's record of work, provision of professional development, monitoring punctuality and regularity, and lesson observation respectively.
- 3) The study found that there was a significant positive relationship between supervisory practices and quality assurance.

5.3 Conclusions

The study has gathered evidence to prove that education supervisors in the Bosomtwe District conduct their supervisory practices in the quest to ensure quality assurance in the schools. This implies that the supervisors were aware that quality assurance plays a crucial role in promoting quality education in the schools. Conversely, quality education in the district will suffer if the supervisors fail to carry out their supervisory practices effectively in the schools. The point is that supervision is a critical

determinant of quality assurance in educational institutions. Therefore, it is necessary that the supervisors are empowered and well-equipped to discharge their supervisory role so that quality assurance is strengthened in the schools.

5.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are made in line with the major findings of the study:

- 1) It is recommended that the Ghana Education Service through the Bosomtwe Education Directorate should organize refresher training programmes for the supervisors on the effective practice of supervision to enable them to balance their supervisory practices in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District.
- 2) It is further recommended that the Ghana Education Service through the Bosomtwe Education Directorate should adopt measures to enhance quality assurance in public basic schools in the Bosomtwe District, especially in relation to lesson observation.
- 3) Also, it is recommended that the Ghana Education Service through the Bosomtwe Education Directorate should organize orientation programmes for headteachers to carry out their supervisory practices effectively so as to enhance quality assurance in public basic schools in the district.

5.5 Suggestion for Further Studies

This study was conducted in the Bosomtwe District. Hence, it is suggested that a similar study is carried out to develop national strategies to enhance quality assurance in public basic schools in Ghana.

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APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SUPERVISORS

This questionnaire contains questions that describe supervisory practices and quality assurance in your schools. This questionnaire is strictly for an academic exercise, and you are please requested to provide accurate and frank information that will assist the researcher in obtaining the correct data for this exercise. Your responses will be treated in strict confidence. You are please requested to circle (0) a number that best

describes your view. Thank you.
Part One
Instruction: Please tick ($$) as appropriate.
1. Gender: Male Female
2. Age: Less than 29 30 to 39 40 to 49 50 and above
3. Academic Qualification:
SSSCE/ WASSCE Diploma Bachelor's Degree Masters

PART TWO

Instructions: On a scale of 5–1, rate your views on the following statements.

(Please rate EVERY option according to the scale).

		Please Choose ONLY ONE Option				NE
		Ne ve r	Rar	S o m	O f t	A l w
S/N	As a supervisor, I		el y	et i m es	e n	a y s
1.	Make my teachers to follow the process of supervision set by me	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Make sure that the final decision in supervision always lies with me	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Select what would work best in a given situation during supervision in my school	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Allow the teachers to create their own plan for supervision in my school	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Respect the teachers as capable of self-direction in supervision in my school	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Allow teachers to control the supervision process in my school	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Set instructional goals for my teachers to meet within a specific time	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Encourage my teachers to choose an option that they would prefer in achieving instructional goals.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Offer a list of options for achieving instructional goals in my school.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Ensure that instructional decisions are arrived at jointly by involving teachers	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Respect the views and suggestions of the teachers in instructional matters.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Create a feeling that I and my teachers are held responsible for	1	2	3	4	5

PART THREE

On a scale of 5 - 1 (5 = Strongly Agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Undecided, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly Disagree), rate your views on the following statements.

	SD	D	U	A	SA
There is effective leadership in the school.	1	2	3	4	5
The leadership in the school helps to achieve the school's goals.	1	2	3	4	5
I check teachers' output of work.	1	2	3	4	5
I monitor teachers' lesson plans and scheme of learning.	1	2	3	4	5
I promote professional development of the staff.	1	2	3	4	5
I encourage staff to seek professional development opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5
I monitor punctuality of staff.	1	2	3	4	5
I monitor regularity of staff.	1	2	3	4	5
I make informal visits in class during teaching.	1	2	3	4	5
I observe teachers in class and give feedback.	1	2	3	4	5
There is effective assessment of learning in this school.	1	2	3	4	5
I employ many strategies to ensure assessment of learning.	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU

APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

This questionnaire contains questions that describe supervisory practices and quality assurance in the schools. This questionnaire is strictly for an academic exercise, and you are please requested to provide accurate and frank information that will assist the researcher in obtaining the correct data for this exercise. Your responses will be treated in strict confidence. You are please requested to circle (0) a number that best

describes your view. Thank you.
PART ONE
Instruction: Please tick ($\sqrt{\ }$) as appropriate.
1. Sex: Male Female
2. Age: Less than 29 30 to 39 40 to 49 50 and above 50
3. Academic Qualification:
SSSCE/ WASSCE Diploma Bachelor's Degree Masters

PART TWO

Instructions: On a scale of 5–1 (5= Always, 4= Often, 3= Sometimes, 2= Rarely, 1=Never), rate your views on the following statements. (Please rate EVERY option according to the scale).

		Please Choose ONLY ONE Option						
S/N	My supervisor	N e v e r	Ra rel y	So met ime s	Often	Alwa ys		
1.	Makes teachers to follow the process of supervision set by him/her	1	2	3	4	5		
2.	Makes sure that the final decision in supervision always lies with him	1	2	3	4	5		
3.	selects what would work best in a given situation during supervision	1	2	3	4	5		
4.	Allows the teachers to create their own plan for supervision	1	2	3	4	5		
5.	Respects the teachers as capable of self-direction in supervision		2	3	4	5		
6.	Allows teachers to control the supervision process	1	2	3	4	5		
7.	sets instructional goals for teachers to meet within a specific time	1	2	3	4	5		
8.	Encourages teachers to choose an option that they would prefer in achieving instructional goals.	1	2	3	4	5		
9.	offers a list of options for achieving instructional goals in this school	1	2	3	4	5		
10.	Ensures that instructional decisions are arrived at jointly by involving teachers	1	2	3	4	5		
11.	Respects the views and suggestions of the teacher in instructional matters.	1	2	3	4	5		
12.	Creates a feeling that he/she and teachers are held responsible for the outcomes	1	2	3	4	5		