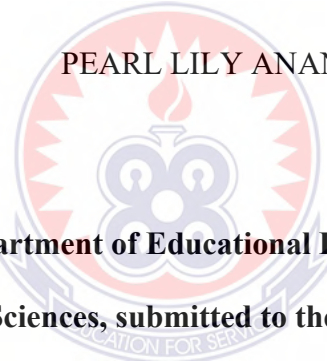


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

TEACHING AND LEARNING STYLES OF HISTORY TEACHERS AND STUDENTS
IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS

PEARL LILY ANANE

The logo of the University of Education, Winneba, is a circular emblem. It features a central torch with a flame, set against a background of a sunburst or starburst pattern. The emblem is surrounded by a circular border containing the text 'UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA' and 'EDUCATION FOR SERVICE'.

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

JUNE, 2016

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

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

SIGNATURE

DATE:



SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

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

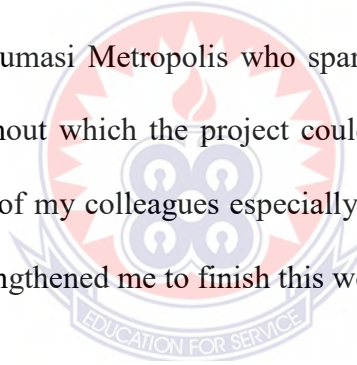
NAME OF SUPERVISOR: PROF. COSMAS COBBOLD

SIGNATURE

DATE:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I specially wish to acknowledge and express my profound gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. Cosmas Cobbold who meticulously went through every piece of the work I presented to him and offered a lot of productive criticisms which enabled me to complete the project. May the Almighty God richly bless him. I am most grateful to my dear husband Mr. Kofi Busia Anane for his support and encouragement during the writing of this piece. I also appreciate my lecturers especially Prof. Frederick K. Sarfo, Prof. Martin Amoah and Rev. Fr. Dr. Francis K. Sam for their advice which enabled me to finish this work. I also acknowledge the history teachers and students of the various schools in the Kumasi Metropolis who spared some precious time answering the questionnaires. Without which the project could not have been carried out. I am highly indebted to some of my colleagues especially Emmanuel Nchor Adongo for his moral support which strengthened me to finish this work.



DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late Father, Mr. David Amoah, my lovely husband, Mr. Kofi Busia Anane and my adorable daughter Abena Gyamfua Anane for their love, support and encouragement



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ABSTRACT

The quality of an educational system in Ghana highly depends on effective teaching and learning strategies adopted by teachers and students. Ghana cannot develop without adequate and sound educational performance through effective teaching and learning. This study sought to explore the teaching styles of history teachers and ascertain whether they match with students' learning styles in Senior High Schools (SHS) in the Kumasi Metropolis. The study utilized the cross-sectional descriptive survey design to investigate the teaching styles of senior high school history teachers, and learning styles of their students in the Kumasi Metropolis. The target population was all 21 history teachers and 875 history students of senior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. A simple random sampling technique was employed in selecting 11 SHS in the Kumasi Metropolis. Purposive sampling technique was adopted in selecting 21 teachers and Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for selecting sample size was used to select the 350 students. The most dominant teaching style of history teachers is the Learner-Centered and this was adopted because it puts students first by allowing them to participate in class activities. There was a positive relationship between gender, age, teaching experience and as against teaching style adopted. Moreover, the most preferred learning style of history students is kinesthetic which make students discoverers and tactile in nature. The choice of teaching style remains a prerogative of the teacher so far as it enhances students learning since there is no one approach to effective teaching and learning. Heads of senior high schools should provide teachers with adequate training and supervision to improve their teaching skills and students must cultivate the right learning habit.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The process of teaching and learning is one which is of interest and importance to many. The two key players in the teaching and learning process are teachers and students. The quality of education in schools as well as higher level educational institutions is based upon the quality of teaching. It is therefore, an admitted fact that teachers are the strongest causal force behind the educational standards in educational institutions (Golla & De Guzman, 1998). In the opinion of Abell (2007), teachers indeed control the learning environment and ultimately determine what is taught, when it is taught, and how it is taught. To be effective and productive in the classroom, teachers are required to do the following:

1. activate prior knowledge of students,
2. predict student difficulty with content,
3. adjust teaching approaches and strategies to better address diverse student learning needs,
4. make connections between concepts,
5. identify relevant connections between content and student lives,
6. provide opportunities for students to assess their learning,
7. use feedback on formative assessments to inform instruction, and
8. align instructional goals and methods with the topics being taught (Barnett & Hodson, 2001; Luft, 2006).

Teachers' ability to accomplish the tasks listed above depends, among other factors, on their teaching styles. Teachers are unique individuals who possess their own way

of teaching. Every physician has a unique style of interacting with patients and every clinical instructor has a distinctive style of teaching. There is no single right way to practice medicine. Similarly, there is no single preferred style to teach.

Teaching styles are the behaviours or actions that teachers show in the learning process. These behaviours and actions show the beliefs and values that teachers hold about the learners' role in the exchange (Heimlich & Norland, 2002). Research supports the concept that most teachers teach the way they learn (Stitt-Gohdes, 2001). Most teachers would teach based on the practice that best worked for them. The method, by which they learnt, provided for effective knowledge acquisition and therefore, in their opinion same method would provide for effective learning for their students.

The other party in the teaching and learning exchange is the student. Research has shown that just as teachers teach differently, so do students learn differently, although similarities can be found within different learning styles. Learning is in fact a personal journey of discovery. Nobody or nothing should determine or curb the learning process except the learner. Every individual has a unique style of processing and digesting information. This is known as their learning style. Learning style is the way in which human beings begin to concentrate on, absorb, process and retain new and difficult information (Dunn, 1999). The way in which an individual processes information eventually develops into the manner in which the individual delivers the information.

Our learning styles are as individual and unique as our characteristics (Muhundan, 2011). Keefe (1991) describes learning style as both a student characteristic and an instructional strategy. As a student characteristic, learning style is an indicator of how a student learns and likes to learn. Each learner has distinct and

consistent preferred ways of perception, organization and retention. These learning styles are characteristic, cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive instruction. If a student possesses a particular learning style but is taught in a style that opposes the way the student learns, the student will appear bored and disinterested. It does not necessarily mean no learning will take place. There will be some or little acquisition of knowledge. The process of attaining this knowledge will take longer and it will be a difficult process for the student. Every student learns and responds to information uniquely (Chang, 2010).

There is a correlation between teachers' style of teaching and students' style of learning. The teaching and learning styles of the classroom instructor and students have important implications for effective teaching. For many years educational leaders have recognized the need for alternative instructional approaches to meet the wide variety of students in classrooms. Teachers can become frustrated knowing they are failing to meet the needs of a portion of students in their classroom. Not being able to accommodate the unique learning styles of students is one reason for this problem (Friedman & Alley, 1984). This clearly suggests that the decision concerning what, when and how a teacher teaches is very critical in the teaching and learning process and should be made with students' learning styles in view.

According to Zhou (2011), in all academic classrooms, no matter what the subject matter is, there will be students with multiple learning styles and students with a variety of major, minor and negative learning styles. In his opinion, the most effective means of accommodating these learning styles is for teachers to change their own styles and strategies and provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles. He believes that if teachers do this, all students will have at

least some activities that appeal to them based on their learning styles, and they are more likely to be successful in these activities.

Zhou (2011) further indicated that students preferentially take in and process information in different ways: either by seeing and hearing, reflecting and acting, reasoning logically and intuitively, analyzing and visualizing. Teaching methods also should vary accordingly. According to him, how much a student can learn is also determined by the compatibility of the student's learning styles and the teacher's teaching styles. He suggested that it is important for teachers to know their learners' preferred learning styles because this knowledge will help teachers to plan their lessons or adapt their teaching and to provide the most appropriate and meaningful activities or tasks to suit a particular learner group at different stages. When teachers become aware of the ways in which their teaching styles and the learning styles of their students affect the overall instruction, teachers may be able to better tailor instruction to meet the learning needs of individual students (Lori, 1988). It is therefore incumbent upon teachers to professionally identify the unique styles of their students and present their teaching so that each student benefit from the teaching and learning exchange.

According to Fuller (2004), when learning styles are recognized and accounted for, learning becomes a lifelong journey, not one that stops after we have left school. This is because we develop a thirst for knowledge because the quest for it was fruitful and painless to begin with. In his view, this encourages a further quest and an unquenchable thirst. When one's learning styles are not met, we tend to feel we are incompetent and stupid, when in actual fact we simply need an alternative medium of interaction (Fuller, 2004). On the other hand, if teachers resort to teaching styles that sharply contradict the students' learning styles, the student's creativity,

enthusiasm, his spark and joy in learning are stamped out as soon as he steps into the classroom. Compatible teaching and learning styles improve student's achievement (Stitt-Gohdes, 2001; Henson, 2004; Hou, 2007).

According to Umeasiegbu (1991), "the level of performance in any school is closely related to the quality of its teachers" while "the quality of any school system is a function of the aggregate quality of teachers who operate it. His proposition succinctly agreed with Moore (1994) who asserts that competent teachers would improve effective teaching in schools. Gess-Newsome (1999) indicates that successful teachers are teachers who possess strong subject matter knowledge, understand the nature of the subject they teach, are able to translate concepts into meaningful learning experiences for their students, and highlight applications of what they teach within society and in the lives of students.

What this means is that, learning will not occur if history teachers fail to bring their teaching style into line with the students' learning experience. History teachers should therefore be able to present their subject matter in intelligible manner to the students. This can only be achieved by adopting teaching styles that harmonize favourably with the students' learning style. If this is done, students can easily comprehend the message delivered leading to better students' learning.

Zeeb (2004) posited that aligning learning styles of students with teaching styles of instructors could lead to an improvement in academic achievement. Sprenger (2003) therefore suggested that teachers should assess the learning styles of their students and adapt their classroom methods to best fit each student's learning style. Students can learn any subject matter effectively when the instructional procedures used are matched with their individual learning preferences by their teachers.

This therefore suggests that, if the experiences of history teachers are appropriately related to the experiences of the history students, they will largely reinforce each other, offer far larger significance, and greater unity of view, and thus be more effective educational programme; whereas, if the experiences are in conflict they may nullify each other. Students will be given fragmented and clumsy facts which always results in recall of information during examinations.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

It is assumed that students gain and retain more knowledge if their learning style matches with the teaching style of their teachers (Lage, Platt, & Treglia, 2000). Most times there is a mismatch between learning styles and teaching styles. When this happens, students are inattentive in class, or they perform poorly in tests. This can be frustrating for both learners and teachers (Apanpa & Oluranti, 2012).

History, in particular has always been a problematic subject to teach because it is deemed as a content rich subject with “a lot of memorization”. Students’ performance in the subject in both internal and external examinations has remained consistently low. In a West African Examinations Council (WAEC) report issued by the Chief Examiner on the performance of students in the 2005 and 2006 academic years as reported in Oforiwaa-Ansong (2011), it was stated that history students tend to recall, that is, ‘chew and pour facts’. This, according to the report, makes them deviate from what they are expected to write and ultimately lead them to performing poorly in their examination (Oforiwaa-Ansong, 2011). It is not known whether this poor learning style of the history students as reported by the chief examiner is as a result of the teaching style of the history teachers or not. This suspicion derives from the fact that poor methods of teaching have often been blamed for low academic

achievement. Unfortunately, less research has been done on teaching and learning styles, especially in history. In the Kumasi Metropolis of Ghana, no known study with this focus has been identified. This prompts a need to investigate the methods and techniques of teaching and learning employed by history teachers and students in the Kumasi Metropolis.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the teaching styles of history teachers and determine if they match with students' learning styles in the senior high schools. The study also focuses on whether there is any differences in teachers' style of teaching with respect to their gender, age and teaching experience.

1.4 Research Objectives

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

1. To explore the dominant teaching styles of senior high school history teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis.
2. To identify any relationship in senior high school history teachers' style of teaching with respect to their gender, age, and teaching experience.
3. To find out the preferred learning styles of senior high school history students in the Kumasi Metropolis.
4. To determine any relationship between the teaching styles of senior high school history teachers and the learning styles of history students

1.5 Research Questions

The following questions were set to guide the study:

1. What are the dominant teaching styles of senior high school history teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis?
2. What relationship, if any, exist between senior high school history teachers' style of teaching and their gender, age, and teaching experience?
3. What are the preferred learning styles of senior high school history students in the Kumasi Metropolis?
4. What relationship, if any, exists between the teaching styles of senior high school history teachers and the learning styles of history students?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study is significant for a number of reasons. The study would throw more light on any relationship between teaching styles and learning styles of history teachers and students. Teachers could use this knowledge to improve the teaching and learning of the subject and enhance student interest in the subject.

Secondly, the results from this study can help institutions that are involved in teacher education to appreciate the need to equip student-teachers with varied teaching styles. The information obtained from assessing learning and teaching styles will also help teachers modify their teaching styles to accommodate varying learning preferences, which can result in improving students' academic performance.

This study will again enable history educators to re-examine their own teaching styles, particularly the ones that dominate in their own teaching practices. Key insights into this topic might help teachers to become more aware of the way

they teach and to self-reflect on their own teaching. Self-knowledge is important to anyone wanting to become a reflective practitioner in any field (Schon, 1984).

Furthermore, recommendations from this study will alert senior high school history teachers to revise their teaching methods and adopt strategies and techniques which are significant to promote effective teaching and learning of history as a subject. It will therefore arm history teachers with the techniques to help students develop positive learning attitudes towards the study of history.

Finally, this study will equip future researchers with information on what needs to be done by way of further research in this area. The recommendations made may serve as a blueprint for a possible replication of the study in other subjects.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The issue of reluctance on the part of some teachers to respond to the study was a problem. It was a big problem for the researcher to get some teachers to answer the questionnaires. This was part of the reason for the failure to involve three teachers in the sample. Some were simply not interested in the survey and intentionally delayed responding to the questionnaire even though the academic purpose of the study were communicated effectively to them. There were not enough funds and time to cover more than one region and this is likely to have some adverse effects on generalisation of the results.

1.8 Delimitations of the Study

The study was focused on only history teachers and students of senior high schools in Kumasi without the entire Ashanti Region. In ascertaining the relationship of history teachers and students learning styles of some selected senior high schools in

Kumasi, it may not be fair to generalise the findings to Ghana as a whole since the coverage was not even the entire Ashanti region.

1.9 Organization of the Study

This was organised under five main chapters. Chapter one dealt with the background introduction to the study. It also covered the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study as well as research questions. The significance of the study, the delimitation and limitations of the study were also discussed.

Chapter Two is concerned with review of related literature. It describes in detail the theoretical framework within which the study is situated. The chapter also discusses the concepts teaching styles and learning styles; and reviews some empirical works relevant to the study.

Chapter Three describes the research design and methods adopted for the study. It also explains the population of the study, the sample and sampling procedures, the instruments for data collection, validity and reliability of the instruments, and data collection and analysis procedures. Chapter four presents and discusses the results of the data analysed.

The final chapter presents the summary of the findings of the study, conclusion drawn from the findings and recommendations for practice as well as areas for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the review of literature of relating to the topic. The review first covers the theoretical framework, followed key themes raised in the research questions such as: the concept of teaching, the concept of teaching styles, and models of teaching styles. Other areas also examined are the concept of learning styles models of learning styles, as well as relationship between teaching styles and learning styles. Finally, some empirical studies related to the topic are also reviewed.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Bransford et al. (2005) stressed that learning theorists have also explored different settings for learning including, preschool, school, experimental laboratory, informal gathering spots and workplace settings and they have used a variety of measurements of learning (e.g., neurobiological, behavioral, ethnographic). Furthermore, learning theorists work at time scales that range from milliseconds of processing time to lifespan and even intergenerational learning (Lemke, 2001; Newell, Liu & Mayer-Kress, 2001). Making sense of these different perspectives, and giving each their just due, is a challenging task. The general goal of behavioural theory was to derive elementary laws of learning and behavior that may then be extended to explain more complex situations. Inferences were tied closely to observed behavior in "lower organisms" with the belief that the laws of learning were universal and that work with laboratory animals could be extrapolated to humans. It was believed that a fundamental set of principles derived from the study of learning in a

basic or "pure" form could then be applied to the broader context of learning in schools. Three experimental approaches are related to the study of associationistic learning including:

1. The use of nonsense syllables and individual words to study the association of ideas.
2. The use of animals to study the association between sensations and impulses.
3. The use of animals to study association and Reflexology.

Gregorc (1979) describes his research as "phenomenological" in that it consists of the cataloging of overt behavior, analyzing the behavior to determine underlying causes, and drawing inferences regarding the nature of the learner. Gregorc also recognizes the dimensions of individual versus group activity {as well as the fact that any individual might prefer one or the other or function equally well in either situation}, environmental factors, and the student's age and stage of physical and emotional development (Gregorc, 1979). However, he believes that stylist characteristics are surface indicators of two deep levels of the human mind--"whole systems of thought, and peculiar qualities of the mind which an individual uses to establish links with reality".

A theory of person-environment congruence in which complimentary combinations of personal needs and environmental press can enhance student outcome was presented. Needs-Press theory has been popularized by Stern (1970). Needs are defined as "organizational tendencies which appear to give unity and direction to a person's behavior and may be identified by the characteristic spontaneous behavior manifested by individuals in their life transactions". Needs therefore, can be inferred from the daily routine activities and feelings that are characteristic of individuals (Stern, 1970). The closer the learning situation resembles

the students learning style the more the students will achieve. Consider the theory that dissonance is an anxious state that an individual avoids (Zajonc, 1960). Congruency between learning style and teaching style may form a consonant environment which enhances learning. Also possible is that extra effort by the learner is exerted if he/she is reinforced by the teaching style that he/she prefers. A third possibility is that students who feel that they are learning, attribute their feeling to the teaching style being received (Brown, 1965).

Lo (2012) emphasized that Social constructivism theory holds that learning is most effective when the learner is in an authentic environment and knowledge is distributed among the environment, the equipment used and the participants. Behaviorism is a theory of animal and human learning that only focuses on objectively observable behaviors and discounts mental activities. Behavior theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behavior (Nicholls, 2000). For instance, if a person wants to learn to be a sailor, the best way is to be an apprentice on a ship. If a person wants to be a tailor, the best way is to learn from a professional tailor. It is not important to be aware of the object of learning or what knowledge learners need to know, as knowledge is distributed in the environment. Individual constructivism advocates that teachers should not provide students with guidance except when it is absolutely necessary. In Hong Kong, this has been misunderstood by many teachers to mean that no guidance should be provided and that teachers should not 'teach'. This has led teachers to pay attention only to the activities that they will use to motivate students' interest to learn and the kinds of worksheets they should produce to give instructions to students about the arrangement of activities when preparing their lessons. They no longer study what they should

teach and how they should identify students' learning difficulties. Important questions such as the content that will best achieve the target objectives are no longer addressed.

Baars (1986) indicated that no single point in time signaled the end to the associationistic or behavioral era, and the beginning of the cognitive revolution. Early on, the cognitive revolution was a quiet one. However, as psychologists became increasingly frustrated with the limitations of behavioral theory and methods, and persuasive arguments against radical behaviorist theories were being put forth by linguists studying language development, the "time was right" for the emergence of cognitivism. Another prominent factor was the development of computers (Baars, 1986), which provided both a credible metaphor for human information processing, and a significant tool for modeling and exploring human cognitive processes. One major group of cognitive theories may be classified as cognitive-information processing learning theories. According to the cognitive information processing (CIP) view, the human learner is conceived to be a processor of information, in much the same way a computer is. When learning occurs, information is input from the environment, processed and stored in memory, and output in the form of a learned capability. Proponents of the CIP model, like behaviorists, seek to explain how the environment modifies human behavior. However, unlike behaviorists, they assume an intervening variable between the environment and behavior. That variable is the information processing system of the learner.

2.3 The Concept of Teaching

According to Golla and de Guzman (1998), the quality of education in schools as well as higher level educational institutions is based upon the teaching. Witthaya and Yan (2007) considered teaching as the teacher's major component to facilitate

students learning and develop their intellectual growth. According to them, teaching generally takes place where the students are formally taught and educated by the teachers, which is called school. They see teaching and learning as the most important instruments for keeping people changed in many ways such as social order, mental and behavioural development, economic competition, and other social processes.

Teaching occurs in a situation where a certain excess of skills or prestige prompts a human to try to pass on to another something of his competence in knowledge, feeling, value or action. In the opinion of Baafi-Frimpong and Adentwi (2010), in teaching, the contact may be between a child and an adult, two adults, two children, an employer and an employee, a parent and a child or an officially appointed teacher and a pupil. According to them, there could be institutionalized teaching and non-institutionalized teaching. They referred to institutionalized teaching as the type of teaching that occurs in schools, colleges, technical institutions and in Universities. Davis as cited in Adentwi and Baafi-Frimpong (2010) defines teaching as the “interaction of a student and a teacher over subject.” In his view, there may be one student or several in a class. The students can be young or old, bright or below average intelligence, “Normal” or physically challenged, highly motivated or “turned off,” rich or poor, male or female. The subject can be easy and straightforward or difficult and complex.

From the above discussion of teaching, the teacher is viewed in different light by different people. “To the sleeper, the teacher is the wake-up call of birds at sunrise. To clay, the teacher is potter, sculptor, and trainer in self-shaping. To the wanderer, the teacher is a knowing guide. To the developed mind, the teacher is colleague, listener, friend” (Grow, 1977). This clearly means that it is always appropriate to understand how students perceive teaching. What constitutes good teaching is

difficult to settle on. The following characteristics posited by Rossum and Hamer (2010) can therefore be used as a guide to judge good teaching.

According to Rossum and Hamer (2010), good teaching is presenting the subject matter to be learnt in such a way that it is not too dry (presented with humour if possible). They see good teaching as imparting clear and well-structured information. The subject matter needs to be explained well and presented in a well-organized way resulting in a situation where further learning by oneself does not lead to problems sometimes due to unorganized and unintelligible teaching. This conception of teaching depends upon the transfer of knowledge from the teacher to the student whose role in the teaching-learning process is minimal (Rossum & Hamer, 2010).

Good teaching is transmitting structured knowledge and acknowledging the receiver. For the students teaching needs to be clear, orderly, efficient, entertaining and include opportunities to ask questions, implying a limited type of student-teacher interaction in a still very teacher dominated environment (Rossum & Hamer, 2010). According to their report, there are teachers who twaddle on a whole hour about their holiday, or football and ruin every class. Even though Rossum and Hamer (2010) admit that it's fun to talk about other things in class once in a while, as an interruption, and then continue with the subject, they caution that a teacher needs to be clear, giving concrete examples, so you know what he/she is talking about. While the teacher in this conception is still dominant, students want to be recognized as the recipients of the message, through posing questions, become a little more involved. Students in this category are still very attached to structure and completeness of explanations (Rossum & Hamer, 2010).

There is also the predominantly teacher-directed view on teaching, characterized by teacher-dominated discussion, up-to-date examples, cases from practice, and an enthusiastic teacher who shapes and motivates the students using positive and negative feedback. In good teaching, talks need to be short and straight to the point, be more like a discussion group. Furthermore topics need to be current and connected to practice (Rossum & Hamer, 2010).

According to Rossum and Hamer (2010), an ideal teacher has the following characteristics:

1. A good teacher uses a lot of examples from practice and connects these to the literature, and he/she should invite discussions during the lecture so that sufficient interaction takes place.
2. In addition, it is important that a teacher motivates students for his subject using his enthusiasm.
3. Furthermore, it is important that a teacher gives feedback to his students in a positive way. This means not only emphasizing the negative, but also evoking the best in his students. This third conception of teaching is characterized by a wide range of elements displaying the student's growing need for involvement in the teaching-learning process and an emergent independence within the student-teacher relationship.

Rossum and Hamer (2010) indicated in their report that students attach a lot of importance to being heard, and it is also a deeper reason for the emphasis on discussion, giving them the opportunity to express their opinions. These opinions can be related to the subject matter, but may also apply to more organizational aspects of the course, while students do not indicate anywhere that these opinions need to be informed. In their view, the teacher should not be too authoritarian and should not

show that he thinks that he's superior to the students. Then the student wouldn't want to appear interested anymore and everybody will be talking at cross-purposes. Rossum and Hamer (2010) therefore advised that the teacher should not only make his own opinion about something clear, but that he should listen to students' opinions as well, so that these can be discussed.

Good teaching is stimulating the train of thought or looking for connections and using these for other purposes as well. The ideal type of teaching would be that connections are well documented and that you're not just taking anything at face value. The ideal teacher would be someone who consciously challenges the student to think to achieve a goal such as a good grade (Rossum & Hamer, 2010). In their opinion, the teacher should then just let the student go and not steer him too much. In this way the student can find out for himself whether something is or is not possible or true. Assessment should then need to focus on the process and not so much on the end result because the aim of teaching is not such much the knowledge accumulated, but to improve and broaden the way of thinking.

According to Morgan and Beaty (1997), good teaching is doing projects, a lot of learning and thinking for yourself. There are not right or wrong answers, only many ways of reasoning and many options. A good teacher is a coach and mentor, you must be able to walk in his door with problems and questions and not get the impression that you're badgering. Good teaching is to make students feel strong about themselves. At this stage the student has become an active participant in the teaching-learning process, while the teacher's role lies more in coaching the learning process. Both focus more on understanding and how solutions are found within a particular discipline, and less on finding 'the correct answer'.

Students at SHS level of thinking about teaching appreciate a teaching environment based on learning partnerships (Baxter, 2004); where teachers and students become equal partners in the mutual construction of knowledge. Good teaching is teaching that involves the students as much as possible in the subject. Furthermore Rossum and Hamer (2010) think that a teacher should be open to criticism, especially when it comes from the students: that he remains the teacher without putting himself on a pedestal. In their opinion, good teaching is working through a specific class, chapter or problem together and discussing it (teacher and students together) so that all parties can learn. As student you ought to have the impression that the whole group is on the same level and that you too can come out with a suggestion or solution. Then, the teacher is a guide who stands amongst the students.

In secondary education the teacher is still too far away from the students, which is not beneficial to a mutual relationship. The latter is, in my opinion, more important for the students than you would expect at first glance. A good teaching environment, at this level, seems to be defined almost exclusively in language referring to emotion, autonomy and reciprocal relationships and seems to boil down to mutual trust and caring. Students are always prepared to learn something only when they feel good about it, and when the teacher is an inspiration to them (Rossum & Hamer, 2010).

The students' view on teaching shows a relative dismissive approach to the teaching technique or method. For good teaching freedom, enthusiasm and inspiration— within an authentic teacher-student relationship – have become essential. Good teaching develops in a situation of total understanding between student and teacher. This was how one respondent expressed his conception of teaching in a report

by Rossum and Hamer (2010) “To me the teaching method is no longer important. As long as I can see that the man/woman in front of the group is really interested in the subject and in the people before him/her, it doesn’t really matter how the subject is communicated. If he/she clearly is not interested in me or the things I want to learn, then I will not open myself up to communication of knowledge”. In these descriptions of good teaching learning has become ‘endless’ and fickle and it flourishes best in a free environment and with an inspirational teacher (Rossum & Hamer, 2010). Exploring the kind of teaching that is most appropriate for these students, Perry (1970) concludes that teachers should do well to convince students of their care and be worthy of their trust.

2.4 The Concept of Teaching Styles

Teaching style is a concept that has been studied by only a few authors (Bowen & Marks, 1994; Harkins & Young, 2008). It is for this reason that there is no single definition. However, different authors (Graves, 2000; Zhang, 2008) offer their own definitions in order to clarify and characterize the concept itself. The next paragraph presents a chronology of five definitions of the concept of teaching styles.

According to Bennett (1976), teaching styles refer to the teacher’s pervasive personal behaviour and media used during interaction with learners. It is a teacher’s characteristic approach whatever the method used. (p. 27). Heimlich and Norland (1994) also viewed teaching styles as a predilection toward teaching behaviour and the congruence between educators’ teaching behaviour and teaching beliefs (p. 34). In the opinion of Brown (2001), teaching styles refer to a teacher’s personal behaviours and media used to transmit data to or receive it from the learner and involve the implementation of the teacher’s philosophy about teaching (p. 231). According to

Campbell and Kryszewska (1995), there are three classifications to identify teaching styles: (a) a didactic style which is teacher-controlled through lectures and students' note taking; (b) a Socratic style which is teacher directed through the use of questions to which the students responded; and (c) a facilitative style in which the teacher prepared the learning environment and the students are responsible for their own learning (p. 132). Finally, Grasha (1996) believes teaching styles represent those enduring personal qualities and behaviours that appear in how we conduct our classes. It is both something that defines us, that guides and directs our instructional processes, and that has effect on students and their ability to learn (p. 44). The above-mentioned definitions provide a general view of how these authors define teaching styles. Although they all have their own views, there is a common element that refers to teachers' behaviour and their impact on teaching (Scovel, 2001).

The above definitions all have three common themes. These are (i) the teacher's personality, (ii) the teacher's beliefs and finally the media employed by the teacher. The teacher's beliefs and the type of media used to teach the selected content is very important in helping students to learn. This implies that teachers have their own personal characteristics which make them unique; therefore, the concept of teaching styles emphasises the cognitive and affective dimensions of teaching that have a strong impact on students' way of learning.

According to Sicilia and Delgado (2002), to fully understand the concept of teaching style, educators should focus on what teaching style is not: it is neither a procedure nor a technique. It is not a strategy, a resource or a method either, but the combination of the educator's values, beliefs, and personality traits, which are reflected in how teachers behave during the teaching and learning process. Among the authors who attempt to conceptualize teaching styles, Grasha (1996) provides a sound

definition of the concept, validated instruments and techniques for analyzing teachers' teaching styles.

2.5 Models of Teaching Styles

Different models of teaching styles are presented in the literature:

Multimedia Teaching Style

Multimedia teaching style is the combination of variety of digital media types like text, picture, audio-visual and video into the integration of multi-sensory interactive application in order to deliver information to the students more effectively (Damodharan & Rengarajan, 2007). The teacher uses different multimedia elements to add up, make and modify the contents so as to present meaningfully. These media elements are in the digital forms such as sound, pictures, texts, graphics or still and motion pictures for the presentation towards students (Damodharan & Rengarajan, 2007). Vaughan (1998) described that multimedia project is very useful, exciting and challenging. A number of multimedia technologies are available for those who are creating innovative and interactive application to students. Furthermore, another benefit of using multimedia project in the classroom is to enhance students work in the group cooperatively and collaboratively, using the skills to finish their project in groups (Damodharan & Rengarajan, 2007). Mayer (2001) stated that "people learn more deeply from words and pictures than from words alone" (p. 47). He, however, cautions further that simply providing words to the images or picture will not be an effective way of multimedia learning style (Mayer, 2009). This implies that the history teacher must adopt appropriate and effective means to combine images with words to ensure adequate learning by students.

Traditional Teaching Style

In traditional teaching style, the teacher is considered as a dictator who controls the class entirely. Teachers deliver information by using a chalk and talk method. This direct instruction is very fundamental which has continuously been used for over decades as the instructional strategy in every school. According to Prendergast and O'Donoghue (2010), variety of teaching methods must be used to ensure more appealing lessons that engage the learning styles of students. In their view, past teaching styles relied too much on 'talk and chalk'. They believe that such a style of teaching is undoubtedly needed to some extent but must be combined with alternative approaches which include images and audios. In the opinion of Damodharan and Rengarajan (2007), teachers basically control the entire teaching-learning process in the class; its content is delivered with a one-way communication by a teacher which is considered as a sender focusing on the factual knowledge towards the students as the receiver. The concept of traditional teaching style is completely based on the teacher-centered instruction which the student act as the receivers who are waiting for the order from the teachers to be followed and done without having interaction. This causes the students lack of the basic communication skills, especially in the class (Damodharan & Rengarajan, 2007).

Ahmad and Aziz (2009) observe that teacher-centered teaching is the traditional teaching method where teachers are at the centre of the class activities: teach, talk and explain all the way. They note that in traditional classrooms, students have a definite and fixed perception and idea of their own roles and those of their teachers. Their experiences show that teachers behave in certain ways and have particular roles in the process. This view seems to regard teachers as "custodians of knowledge."

Learner-Centered Methods

Doherty and Hilberg (2007) pointed out that learner-centered pedagogy promoted student achievement. Eken (2000) noted that in a student-centered class, teachers are mere facilitators and students take on the discussion role. Students are seen as being able to assume a more active and participatory role vis-à-vis traditional approaches. This teaching style promotes active participation of students in classroom activities. Learner-centered pedagogy raises student achievement, promotes democratic classrooms, complex thinking and meets student's communication goals (Cummins, 2007). Teachers facilitate student's discussion and interject only when necessary, allowing students to put the language to use and to explore the aesthetics of the texts (Ahmad & Aziz, 2009). In the opinion of Froyd (2007) the standard features of student-centered pedagogy include collaborative learning, connecting new information to previous knowledge, higher-order thinking and conversations in teacher-directed small groups.

According to Grasha (2002), more is involved in the matter of capability than the mere knowledge and skills a learner possesses. He related capability also to a learner's ability to work independently, and the capacity to take initiative and accept responsibility. Although estimating capability is a somewhat subjective enterprise, teachers can make sure that they do not misread students' skills by obtaining information about their previous training and experience. Grasha advised teachers to interview students in detail about their prior knowledge and experiences before embarking on an independent study, clinical placement, or other one-on-one teaching project. Learners who are judged to be less capable along the dimensions described above would likely benefit from a more structured and directive approach from a teacher. Of course, as novice learners become more competent, teachers are advised

to use teaching processes that are less controlling and directive. Otherwise, students are likely to feel that they have not received credit for acquiring new skills and competencies. Such thoughts may lead to tension and frustration in the relationship.

2.6 Factors that Influence the Selection of Teaching Styles

There are five factors that are important for selecting a teaching style in close and professionally personal teaching encounters. For the purposes of this study, four of them are discussed here. These are capability of the learner, teachers' interest in building and maintaining productive interpersonal relationships, the teacher's need to maintain control over the task (Hersey, Angelini & Caracuhansky, 1982; Grasha, 1996; Grasha & Riechmann, 1975), and the demands of the situation. The factors and the constraints they place on teaching styles are explained below.

Capability of the Learner

According to Grasha (2002), students vary in their ability to handle tasks and problems. Their competence is typically related to their year in school but also to specific issues they face. Similarly, the recalling and analytic skills of a first-year SHS student studying history are improbable to match those of a senior in the program. Thus, the history teacher in selecting the learning activity should recognize and take into consideration the relative levels of experience, knowledge, and skill.

Interest in Developing Productive Interpersonal Relationships

Rapport with students is a critical factor for developing and maintaining productive relationships for learning. To build and maintain interpersonal relationships, teachers must do the following:

- a) Work hard to keep communication channels open.
- b) Listen carefully to learners and the concerns they have with tasks.
- c) Become sensitive to conflicts when they arise and be willing to work to resolve them.
- d) Provide positive feedback and encouragement.
- e) Use good interpersonal communication skills including active listening, checking assumptions, appropriately asking open and closed questions, and summarizing and paraphrasing what people say (Grasha, 2002).

In the opinion of Grasha (2002), not all faculty members or teachers, however, have an interest in building strong professional relationships with students. Students may only work with them for a short period of time, or the teacher may prefer a more formal relationship. For those teachers working with someone over a relatively long period (e.g., advising on a senior thesis, dissertation, clinical supervision practicum), building rapport and good communication are helpful for producing good outcomes.

Grasha proposed that, to build good relationships, less reliance on an Expert-Formal Authority style is needed, and more of the Personal Model, Facilitative, and Delegator teaching styles need to enter the ongoing interactions of teachers and students. The latter styles encourage close and professionally personal interactions because they take the teacher out of a didactic mode and into one where guiding, encouraging, and consulting with learners becomes the norm.

Teachers' Need to Control the Learning Task

According to Grasha (2002), teachers typically organize and define the parameters of a learning task, and some teachers believe they must maintain control over what happens. Teachers need to know when it is time to let go, but for some this

is extremely difficult to do. As a result they “micromanage” a student’s work beyond the point in a student’s development when tighter control is necessary. According to Grasha (2002), there is the need for the teacher to maintain control over what happens rather than the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the learner. On the other hand, taking less direct control often means using problem-based approaches to teaching and supervision. In the latter case, a teacher would rely more on his or her ability to use aspects of the Facilitator and Delegator styles. Some teachers are willing to teach in such ways as they see the capability of a learner increase. Conflict and frustration in one-on-one interactions occur when more capable students find themselves with a teacher who is not willing to relinquish control.

Teaching Techniques to Address All Learning Styles

According to Abbas (2012), depending on the type of course and class size, some of the following teaching strategies can be used by teachers in a class in order to encourage the learning processes:

1. Identify their own teaching styles as well as their learning styles in order to reflect about classroom practices to obtain better results in the classroom.
2. Provide challenging and novel problems to students.
3. Use examples that require analysis and synthesis.
4. Require application of information and concepts.
5. Encourage questions and discussion.
6. Combine visual, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic techniques.
7. Balance the teaching styles and adapt activities to meet students’ style.
8. Assign open-ended activities encouraging creativity.

9. Encourage tasks variation and creativity to enable learners to challenge the beliefs in the way they learn and acquire knowledge.

Dunnand Carbo (1981) have also provided the following as measures that can be employed by teachers to promote effective students' learning:

10. Motivate learning. As much as possible, relate the material being presented to what has come before and what is still to come in the same course, to material in other courses, and particularly to the students' personal experience (inductive/global).
11. Provide a balance of concrete information (facts, data, real or hypothetical experiments and their results) (sensing) and abstract concepts (principles, theories, mathematical models) (intuitive).
12. Balance material that emphasizes practical problem-solving methods with material that emphasizes fundamental understanding (intuitive/reflective).
13. Provide explicit illustrations of intuitive patterns (logical inference, pattern recognition, generalization) and sensing patterns (observation of surroundings, empirical experimentation, attention to detail), and encourage all students to exercise both patterns (sensing/intuitive). Do not expect either group to be able to exercise the other group's processes immediately.
14. Follow the scientific method in presenting theoretical material. Provide concrete examples of the phenomena the theory describes or predicts (sensing/inductive); then develop the theory or formulate the model (intuitive/inductive/ sequential); show how the theory or model can be validated and deduce its consequences (deductive/sequential); and present applications (sensing/deductive/sequential).

15. Use pictures, schematics, graphs, and simple sketches liberally before, during, and after the presentation of verbal material (sensing/visual). Show films (sensing/visual.) Provide demonstrations (sensing/visual), hands-on, if possible (active).
16. Use computer-assisted instruction-sensors respond very well to it (sensing/active).
17. Do not fill every minute of class time lecturing and writing on the board. Provide intervals-however brief-for students to think about what they have been told (reflective).
18. Provide opportunities for students to do something active besides transcribing notes. Small group brainstorming activities that take no more than five minutes are extremely effective for this purpose (active).
19. Assign some drill exercises to provide practice in the basic methods being taught (sensing/active/sequential)but do not overdo them (intuitive/reflective/global). Also provide some open-ended problems and exercises that call for analysis and synthesis (intuitive/reflective/global).
20. Give students the option of cooperating on homework assignments to the greatest possible extent (active). Active learners generally learn best when they interact with others; if they are denied the opportunity to do so they are being deprived of their most effective learning tool.
21. Applaud creative solutions, even incorrect ones (intuitive/global).
22. Talk to students about learning styles, both in advising and in classes. Students are reassured to find out that their academic difficulties may not all be due to personal inadequacies. Explaining to struggling sensors or active or global learners how they learn most efficiently may be an important step in helping

them reshape their learning experiences so that they can be successful (*all types*). While they are painfully aware of the drawbacks of their learning style, it is usually a revelation to them that they also enjoy advantages that their creativity and breadth of vision can be exceptionally valuable to future employers and to society. If they can be helped to understand how their learning process works, they may become more comfortable with it, less critical of themselves for having it, and more positive about education in general. If they are given the opportunity to display their unique abilities and their efforts are encouraged in school, the chances of their developing and applying those abilities later in life will be substantially increased.

2.7 The Concept of Learning

Learning is certainly a universal experience. Everyone must always be learning at every stage in life. Infants must learn to talk, to dress and to feed themselves. Children must learn social habits acceptable to the community. Adults must learn how to perform their jobs and how to meet the responsibilities of family life.

Rossum and Hamer (2010) view learning as a change in behaviour as a result of experience or education. According to them, the change in behaviour is relatively permanent, therefore, change in behaviour resulting from fatigue, drugs, alcohol and disease is not considered as learning. Also changes resulting from growth, maturation and injury are not learned. The formal definition of learning describes the process as "a relatively permanent change in behaviour based on an individual's interactional experience with its environment." We can observe the process of learning by noting

changes in behaviour or even the development of new responses through these interactions or experiences with the environment.

2.7.1 Concept of Students' Learning

Learning conceptions play an important role in students' study behaviour in higher (tertiary) education, because "we view the world through the lenses of our conceptions, interpreting and acting in accordance with our understanding of the world" (Pratt, 1992).

Different writers hold diverse opinions on students learning. Rossum and Hamer (2004) for example have described five of such learning conceptions as listed below.

- 1) Learning as the increase of knowledge.
- 2) Learning as memorizing.
- 3) Learning as the acquisition of facts and procedures, which can be retained and/or utilized in practice.
- 4) Learning as the abstraction of meaning.
- 5) Learning as an interpretative process aimed at the understanding of reality.

2.7.2 Learning as the Increase of Knowledge

This stage of learning is to learn new things, other things that you did not know before... a lot of things in History and so on, you did not know about that before (Saljo, 1979a, p. 12). In this stage the process seems to be collecting, and the outcome is fragmentary pieces of knowledge. Learning and knowledge are perceived as parallel tracks leading to the same destination. People "tend to equate knowledge with 'discrete units of information' or simply 'facts', and learning is consequently the

transfer of these discrete units into the head of the learner” (Saljo, 1979a, p. 446). The focus is on collecting and possession, picturing the learner as an ‘avid collector’, who, once in a specialty shop (the classroom), purchases everything the shopkeeper (teacher) has on offer, supports shortening the label to Increasing Knowledge, focusing it on the process. In history class, students are expected to increase their knowledge about events, personalities, and their communities. It is the responsibility of the teacher to ensure that history students learn new knowledge. Therefore the process of encouraging students to learn new things should be in tandem with the student’s learning styles so that learning will be effective.

Learning as Memorizing

Here, learning is equal to memorizing and the ability to reproduce what is memorized, usually in a school test setting. Reproduction is the product, while the process is memorizing. Like the previous conception, learning is seen in quantitative terms: learning more is being able to reproduce more. Here learning is seen as banking: “The students are not called upon to know, but to memorize the contents narrated by the teacher. Nor do the students practice any act of cognition, since the object towards which that act should be directed is the property of the teacher” (Freire, 2000, p. 80).

This conception of learning does not consider understanding of the learners. Educators and learners who hold this conception will be interested in how history students are able to commit into memory the content provided. The history students who view learning as memorizing may become accustomed to “chew and pour facts.”

Learning as the Acquisition of Facts or Procedures which can be Retained and/or Utilized in Future

Here the process of learning is selecting and memorizing those facts, procedures, ideas etcetera which may be useful later in life. Respondents value this process over the inferior process of memorizing only for (school) tests. The product is the “feeling” of being able to apply knowledge in practice later on (Rossum & Hamer, 2010). Here as well learning is seen as a quantitative phenomenon and application takes on the character of applying an algorithm or copying. The learner starts to reflect further upon what is learned to decide whether or not it might turn out to be useful in the future. Our metaphor here is ‘Rembrandt’s apprentice’ able to copy the master’s (teacher’s) brushstrokes, colour choice and composition in such a way that it is difficult to distinguish the apprentice’s painting from the real thing. This view on learning has a flavour of not only memorizing, but also “practicing until perfect” without changing the knowledge or the procedures (Rossum & Hamer, 2010).

Learning as the Abstraction of Meaning

At this level of thinking the focus shifts from taking in ready-made things (facts, procedures) existing ‘out there’ to constructing meaning (Rossum & Hamer, 2010). Saljo (1979a) describes this shift as follows “Learning is no longer conceived of as an activity of reproducing, but instead as a process of abstracting meaning from what you read or hear” (p. 16). The object of reflection here is understanding of the subjects studied. If I am studying history for example, it means that I should be able to understand a lot more about what development really is, sort of understand the process in a country or among a people in some way (Saljo, 1979b, p. 450). According to Rossum and Hamer (2010), the process within this learning conception

is understanding, which is reached through relating ideas within the subject, finding out things, looking at the subject matter in a lot more depth, collecting various viewpoints on the studied material and getting the big picture.

Learning is seen as using a way of thinking (a skill) to arrive at an “informed view” (Beaty *et al.*, 1997, p. 156). The students can perhaps be characterized as the “criminal investigator”, where the classroom is the crime scene and the product is to think through all the clues and follow up on leads in such a way as to come up with a plausible explanation to present to the judge (teacher). In an educational context this means that the learner must really understand the subject at hand, and we relabelled this fourth conception to Understanding subject matter.

Learning as an Interpretative Process Aimed at the Understanding of Reality

According to Saljo (1979), learning at this level is characterized by the expectation that what you learn should help you interpret the reality you live in, implying an important difference with the previous level: that learning moves outside the limits of the school situation. A second characteristic is that learning acquires personal meaning as opposed to the more technical view on learning in the previous stage. This interpretation is supported by Morgan *et al.* (1981, as quoted in Rossum and Taylor, 1987, p. 20) when they say “While to some extent this fourth conception involves the student as an active agent in learning, what is to be learnt is still not necessarily of personal significance.

Marton *et al* (1993) and Beaty *et al* (1997) expanded on Saljo’s original interpretation, using more examples to support and clarify the nature of this fifth learning conception. Discussing the process aspect of this conception, they refer to notions such as broadening your outlook on things, opening your mind and widening

your horizons. The outcome of this process (the product) is seeing things differently, a different view of the world, a provisional, personal and contextuated view of reality.

2.7.3 The Concept of Learning Styles

Learning styles may be defined in multiple ways, depending upon one's perspective. Here are a few definitions of learning styles. According to Brown (2000), learning styles are the manners in which individuals perceive and process information in learning situations. In his opinion, learning style preference is one aspect of learning style, and refers to the choice of one learning situation or condition over another. Celce-Marcia (2001) also views learning styles as the general approaches, for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual, that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject. It is the manner in which a learner perceives, interacts with, and responds to the learning environment. According to MacKeracher (2004), learning style is sometimes defined as the characteristic cognitive, affective, social, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment. A learning style can be defined as "an individual's natural, habitual, and preferred ways of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills which persist regardless of teaching methods or content area" (Kinsella, 1995, p.171).

Keefe (1991) describes learning style as both a student characteristic and an instructional strategy. As a student characteristic, learning style is an indicator of how a student learns and likes to learn. According to him, each learner has distinct and consistent preferred ways of perception, organization and retention. These learning styles are characteristic, cognitive, affective, and physiological behaviours that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with and respond to

the learning environment. Students learn differently from each other (Price, 1977). Reiff (1992) claims that learning styles influence how students learn, how teachers teach, and how they interact. Each person is born with certain preferences toward particular styles, but these preferences are influenced by culture, experience and development. The way we teach, or even the way we explain things is the way we have acquired the knowledge. In other words, the way we teach is the way we have attained the knowledge and processed it. In a way, teaching style represents the thinking process of the individual, the learning style of the person. Dunn (1999) therefore defines learning style as the way in which human beings begin to concentrate on, absorb, process and retain new and difficult information.

2.7.4 Learning Style Model

Currently there are 13 major models of learning styles that can be found in the literature (Coffield *et al.*, 2004). Two of the most predominant and widely used are Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (LSI) and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). The LSI, developed in 1981, is derived from an experiential theory and model of learning developed by Kolb. This test categorizes learners into four prevalent learning categories: Diverging, Assimilating, Converging, and Accommodating (Kolb, 1981). Divergers are best at viewing concrete situations from many different points of view and prefer brainstorming sessions as a way to generate ideas. Assimilators can logically process and organize a wide range of information and are more interested in ideas and abstract concepts. Convergers are best at finding practical uses for ideas and theories and enjoy solving problems. Accommodators often rely heavily on information from others and take actions based on instinct rather than logical analysis.

According to Kolb's model, individuals may exhibit a preference for one of the four styles depending on their approach to learning.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator classifies individuals along four different personality scales. The scales identify how the individual relates to the world (Introvert or Extrovert); processes information (Sensing or Intuitive); makes decisions (Thinking or Feeling); and evaluates the environment (Judging or Perceiving) (Lage *et al.*, 2000). Whereas Kolb's experiential learning model focuses on how students take in and process information, the MBTI focuses on how students' personality traits affect their learning styles and their preferred methods of teaching. In essence, the MBTI is meant to determine how the ways in which individuals reach conclusions affect their interests and motivations.

In order to fathom the learning preferences of history learners, VAK (Visual, Audio and Kinesthetic) learning style model was reviewed for this study. The VAK learning styles model suggest that most people can be divided into one of three preferred styles of learning. These three learning styles are as follows:

Visual Learners: Someone with a visual learning style has a preference for seen or observed things, including pictures, diagrams, demonstrations, displays, handouts, films, flip-chart, etc (Abbas, 2012). Visual learners are learners who learn by sight. They are able to visualize the solution to a problem. They see it in their head like a photograph and are then able to write it down. They are not able to follow verbal instruction well and works best when there is a list of things to do rather than being told what to do.

Auditory Learners: Someone with an auditory learning style has a preference for the transfer of information through listening: to the spoken word, of self or others, of sounds and noises (Abbas, 2012). Auditory learners are learners who listen and

learn. They digest information by simply listening. They are able to sit through long lectures easily and walk away from the lecture with valuable and important knowledge attained.

Kinesthetic learners: Someone with a kinesthetic learning style has a preference for physical experience - touching, feeling, holding, doing, and practical hands-on experiences (Abbas, 2012). Kinesthetic learners are learners who learn when their body is active. They need movement to digest information. They learn from touching and experiencing for themselves rather than being told a theory and made to understand it. They tend to misunderstand instructions when presented orally or visually.

People commonly have a main preferred learning style, but this will be part of a blend of all three. Some people have a very strong preference; other people have a more even mixture of two or less commonly, three styles. There is no right or wrong learning style. The point is that there are types of learning that are right for our own preferred learning style (Abbas, 2012).

Felder and Solomon (2005) categorize learning styles and their strategies into eight as follows:

Active and Reflective learners

Sensing and Intuitive learners

Visual and verbal learners

Sequential and Global learners

Active and Reflective Learners

According to Felder and Silverman (1988), the complex mental processes by which perceived information is converted into knowledge can be conveniently

grouped into two categories: these are active experimentation and reflective observation. According to Kolb (1984), Active experimentation involves doing something in the external world with the information, discussing it or explaining it or testing it in some way while reflective observation involves examining and manipulating the information introspectively. An “active learner” is someone who feels more comfortable with, or is better at, active experimentation than reflective observation, and conversely for a reflective learner.

Dunn and Carbo (1981) opined that active learners do not learn much in situations that require them to be passive (such as most lectures), and reflective learners do not learn much in situations that provide no opportunity to think about the information being presented (such as most lectures). Active learners work well in groups; reflective learners work better by themselves or with at most one other person. Active learners tend to be experimentalists; reflective learners tend to be theoreticians. At first glance there appears to be a considerable overlap between active learners and sensors, both of whom are involved in the external world of phenomena, and between reflective learners and intuitors, both of whom favour the internal world of abstraction. The categories are independent, however. The sensor preferentially selects information available in the external world but may process it either actively or reflectively, in the latter case by postulating explanations or interpretations, drawing analogies, or formulating models. Similarly, the intuitor selects information generated internally but may process it reflectively or actively. “Active” signifies that students do something in class beyond simply listening and watching, e.g., discussing, questioning, arguing, brainstorming, or reflecting. Active student participation thus encompasses the learning processes of active experimentation and reflective observation. A class in which students are always passive is a class in which neither

the active experimenter nor the reflective observer can learn effectively. As is true of all the other learning style dimensions, both active and reflective learners are needed as engineers.

How to teach both active and reflective learners: Primarily, the instructor should alternate lectures with occasional pauses for thought (reflective) and brief discussion or problem-solving activities (active), and should present material that emphasizes both practical problem solving (active) and fundamental understanding (reflective). An exceptionally effective technique for reaching active learners is to have students organize themselves at their seats in groups of three or four and periodically come up with collective answers to questions posed by the instructor. In his opinion, the groups may be given from 30 seconds to five minutes to do so, after which the answers are shared and discussed for as much or as little time as the instructor wishes to spend on the exercise. Besides forcing thought about the course material, such brainstorming exercises can indicate material that students do not understand; provide a more congenial classroom environment than can be achieved with a formal lecture; and involve even the most introverted students, who would never participate in a full class discussion. One such exercise lasting no more than five minutes in the middle of a lecture period can make the entire period a stimulating and rewarding educational experience (Felder, 1988).

According to them, active learners tend to retain and understand best by doing something active with it- discussing it or explaining it to others. Reflective learners prefer to think about it quietly first. Active learners tend to like group work more than reflective learners who prefer working alone. Sitting through lectures without getting to do anything physical but take notes is hard for both learning types, but particularly hard for active learners. There is a concrete difference between each type

of learning style, based on the learner's interpretation of experience as well as common comments the learner would make in regards to knowledge acquisition.

Sensing and Intuitive Learners

In his theory of psychological types, Carl Jung introduced sensing and intuition as the two ways in which people tends to perceive the world. Sensing involves observing, gathering data through the senses; intuition involves indirect perception by way of the unconscious speculation, imagination, hunches. Everyone uses both faculties, but most people tend to favour one over the other (Felder & Silverman, 1988).

According to Felder and Silverman (1988), sensing learners like facts, data, and experimentation; intuitors prefer principles and theories. Sensors like solving problems by standard methods and dislike "surprises"; intuitors like innovation and dislike repetition. Sensors are patient with detail but do not like complications; intuitors are bored by detail and welcome complications. Sensors are good at memorizing facts; intuitors are good at grasping new concepts. Sensors are careful but may be slow; intuitors are quick but may be careless. These characteristics are tendencies of the two types, not invariable behaviour patterns: any individual, even a strong sensor or intuiitor may manifest signs of either type on any given occasion. An important distinction is that intuitors are more comfortable with symbols than are sensors. Since words are symbols, translating them into what they represent comes naturally to intuitors and is a struggle for sensors. Sensors' slowness in translating words puts them at a disadvantage in timed tests: since they may have to read questions several times before beginning to answer them, they frequently run out of time. Intuitors may also do poorly on timed tests but for a different reason, their

impatience with details may induce them to start answering questions before they have read them thoroughly and to make careless mistakes. Most engineering courses other than laboratories emphasize concepts rather than facts and use primarily lectures and readings (words, symbols) to transmit information, and so favour intuitive learners (Felder & Silverman, 1988).

Many engineering tasks require the awareness of surroundings, attentiveness to details, experimental thoroughness, and practicality that are the hallmarks of sensors; many other tasks require the creativity, theoretical ability, and talent at inspired guesswork that characterize intuitors. To be effective, history education should reach both types, rather than directing itself primarily to intuitors. The material presented should be a blend of concrete information (facts, data, observable phenomena) and abstract concepts (principles, theories). The two teaching styles that correspond to the sensing and intuitive learning styles are therefore called concrete and abstract.

Sensing learners tend to like learning facts; intuitive learners often prefer discovering possibilities and relationships. Sensors often like solving problem by well-established methods and dislike complications and surprises; like innovation and dislike repetition. Sensors are more likely than intuitive learners to resent being tested on materials that have not been explicitly covered in class. Sensors tend to be patient with details and good at memorizing facts and doing hands-on (laboratory) work; intuitive learners are often better at grasping new concepts and are more comfortable than sensors with abstractions and mathematical formulations. Sensors tend to be more practical and careful than intuitive learners; intuitive learners tend to work faster and to be more innovative than sensors.

Visual and Verbal Learners/Auditory Learners

According to Felder and Silverman (1988), the ways people receive information may be divided into three categories, sometimes referred to as modalities: visual-sights, pictures, diagrams, symbols; auditory-sounds, words; kinaesthetic-taste, touch, and smell. According to them, an extensive body of research has established that most people learn most effectively with one of the three modalities and tend to miss or ignore information presented in either of the other two. There are thus visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learners.

Visual learners remember best what they see: pictures, diagrams, flow charts, time lines, films, demonstrations. If something is simply said to them they will probably forget it. Auditory learners remember much of what they hear and more of what they hear and then say. They get a lot out of discussion, prefer verbal explanation to visual demonstration, and learn effectively by explaining things to others. Visual and auditory learning both have to do with the component of the learning process in which information is perceived (Barbe & Milone, 1981; Waldheim, 1987). Visual learners remember best what they see-pictures, diagrams, flow charts, time lines, films, and demonstrations. Verbal learners get more out of words- written and spoken explanations. Everyone learns more when information is presented both visually and verbally.

Most people of senior high school teachings are verbal: the information presented is predominantly auditory (lecturing) or a visual representation of auditory information (words and mathematical symbols written in texts and handouts, on transparencies, or on a chalkboard).

Sequential and Global Learners

Most formal education involves the presentation of material in a logically ordered progression, with the pace of learning dictated by the clock and the calendar. When a body of material has been covered, the students are tested on their mastery and then move to the next stage. Some students are comfortable with this system; they learn sequentially, mastering the material more or less as it is presented. Others, however, cannot learn in this manner. They learn in fits and starts: they may be lost for days or weeks, unable to solve even the simplest problems or show the most rudimentary understanding, until suddenly they get it, the light bulb flashes, the jigsaw puzzle comes together. They may then understand the material well enough to apply it to problems. These are the global learners (Silverman, 1987). Sequential learners follow linear reasoning processes when solving problems; global learners make intuitive leaps and may be unable to explain how they came up with solutions. Sequential learners can work with material when they understand it partially or superficially, while global learners may have great difficulty doing so. Sequential learners may be strong in convergent thinking and analysis; global learners may be better at divergent thinking and synthesis. Sequential learners learn best when material is presented in a steady progression of complexity and difficulty; global learners sometimes do better by jumping directly to more complex and difficult material. School is often a difficult experience for global learners. Since they do not learn in a steady or predictable manner they tend to feel out-of-step with their fellow students and incapable of meeting the expectations of their teachers. They may feel stupid when they are struggling to master material with which most of their contemporaries seem to have little trouble. Some eventually become discouraged with education and drop out. However, global learners are the last students who should be

lost to higher education and society. They are the synthesizers, the multidisciplinary researchers, the systems thinkers, the ones who see the connections no one else sees. They can be truly outstanding historians if they survive the educational process.

Everything required to meet the needs of sequential learners is already being done from first grade through graduate school: curricula are sequential, course syllabi are sequential, textbooks are sequential, and most teachers teach sequentially. To reach the global learners in a class, the instructor should provide the big picture or goal of a lesson before presenting the steps, doing as much as possible to establish the context and relevance of the subject matter and to relate it to the students' experience. The students should be given the freedom to devise their own methods of solving problems rather than being forced to adopt the teacher's strategy, and they should be exposed periodically to advanced concepts before these concepts would normally be introduced. A particularly valuable way for instructors to serve the global learners in their classes, as well as the sequential learners, is to assign creativity exercises: problems that involve generating alternative solutions and bringing in material from other courses or disciplines and to encourage students who show promise in solving them (Felder, 1988).

Sequential learners tend to gain understanding in linear steps, with each step following logically from the previous one. Global learners tend to learn in large jumps, absorbing material almost randomly without seeing connections, and then suddenly "getting it" Sequential learners tend to follow logical stepwise paths in finding solutions; global learners may be able to solve complex problems quickly or put things together in novel ways once they have grasped the big picture, but they may have difficulty explaining how they did it (Felder, 1987). According to Fuller (2004), learning styles are unique to each and every person. There may not be general

classifications for each and every style. Each person possesses a combination of two or three of these styles.

2.8 Teacher Characteristics that Affect Teaching Styles of Senior High School

Teachers

According to Kosgei, Kirwa, Odera, and Ayugi (2013), the term “teacher characteristics” can be referred to as qualities that can be measured with tests or derived from their academic or professional records. They indicate that teacher characteristics does not generally refer to the direct observation of their influence on students’ learning in terms of either students’ test performance or teaching behaviours. Ashton (1996) indicates that these characteristics could include qualities of teachers that are viewed as personal such as mental ability, age, gender or as “experiential” – such as certification status, educational background, previous teaching experience and the like.

The effectiveness of the teaching and learning process depends on the excellence of the teacher in class which means that teacher is the one who is responsible in ensuring and determining the success of their teaching and in ensuring that the students understand their lesson well. Certain background variables such as the age, gender educational qualification and professional status of the teacher therefore ought to be examined to unravel their impact on teacher’s delivering style. The important role of the teachers in the learning is unquestionable. Teachers have a lot of influence on their classroom practices. Teachers should have and apply specific abilities without which their influence may not be reflected in their students’ performance in the subject. For students to be able to make connection between what

is taught in school and its application in problem solving in real life, the teacher has to be effective in their teaching.

Ali (2009) observes that there was statistically significant relationship between teacher characteristics and student academic achievement. Adeyemo (2005) notes teacher characteristics influenced teaching and learning in classrooms. Olaleye (2011) establishes that there was relationship between teachers characteristics and pupils performance. Gravestock and Gregor-Greenleaf (2008) states that the explanations for good or poor student's academic performance have been quite exhaustive yet controversy still exists among scholars as to what contribute singly or jointly to students' poor performance. The teacher characteristics found to be dominant in cross-country studies are related to; qualification, experience, attitude and personality.

2.9 Teacher Experience and Student Academic Achievement

Teacher experience has a significant effect on pupil performance in primary schools and at upper secondary level. Experienced teachers have a richer background of experience to draw from and can contribute insight and ideas to the course of teaching and learning, are open to correction and are less dictatorial in classroom. Teachers' experience and student achievement was that students taught by more experienced teachers achieve at a higher level, because their teachers have mastered the content and acquired classroom management skills to deal with different types of classroom problems (Gibbons et al., 1997). Furthermore, more experienced teachers are considered to be more able to concentrate on the most appropriate way to teach particular topics to students who differ in their abilities, prior knowledge and backgrounds (Stringfield & Teddlie, 1991).

Teachers attendance of in – service training are one of the indicators of experience. Teachers’ motives to attend in-service training can be manifold e.g. increase in salary, career planning, keeping up with developments, filling in lacunae, removing insecurity and meeting colleagues. Therefore, the more the teachers know about students, the better the teachers can connect with them and the more likely they will be able to benefit from the teachers’ experience in reconstructing their world. The knowledge that teachers need about students in order to connect with them is gained through interaction. For many reasons, measuring the real impact of experience on a teacher’s effectiveness is complex, more so than measuring any other teacher attribute. Consequently, many well-constructed research attempts to interpret the relationship between experience and effectiveness have produced varying results that reveal no particular pattern.

Murnane (1996) found that teacher effectiveness improves rapidly over the first three years of teaching and reaches its highest point between the third and fifth year but found no substantial improvement after year five. Ferguson (1991) reveals that at the high school level, students taught by teachers with more than nine years of experience had significantly higher test scores than students whose teachers had five to nine years of experience. Rivers & Sanders (2002) suggest that teacher’ effectiveness increases dramatically each year during the first ten years of teaching”. Sternberg and Grigorenko (1995) found that the high experienced teachers had intended to select conservative teaching methods more than low experience teachers.

2.10 Teachers’ Gender

Feldman (1992), and Nuhfer (2002) found that gender of instructor was not a significant predictor of overall student evaluations. Whitworth, Price, and Randall

(2002), however, found that female instructors were consistently rated higher than were males. Bachen, McLaughlin, and Garcia (1999) concluded that female students gave higher ratings to female than to male instructors, but male students' evaluations did not vary by instructor's gender. The apparently contradictory findings are partly due to the difference in evaluative instruments that were used. Gendered perceptions of instructors might be related to differences in teaching styles. Lacey, Saleh and Gorman (1998) found male instructors' styles to be more dominant and exacting, while female's styles were more informal and open toward students and their ideas. Similarly, Crawford and MacLeod (1990) found that female instructors were perceived by students to be more effective in creating a participatory climate for their students. Whether or not they find overall gender differences in evaluations by students, studies consistently find that male and female instructors are perceived differently in ways that are consistent with stereotypically gendered expectations of communication and interactive patterns (Kimmel, 2000). Basow (1995) found that male instructors were perceived by students to be more knowledgeable, but female instructors were thought to be more sensitive and respectful of student ideas.

2.11 Teacher Qualification and Student Academic Achievement

Darling – Hammond (1998) defines well qualified teacher as one who was fully certified and held the equivalent of a major in the field being taught. Although the formal qualification of teachers is an important indicator for their knowledge and competence in teaching, it has only limited utility in analyzing how well prepared teachers are for what they have to teach in schools. More detailed knowledge of the courses they have taken during their training needs to be compared to the actual content and skills required to teach the high school's curriculum. Ruthland and

Bremer (2002) refer to teacher qualification in two ways - traditional and alternative qualification routes. Traditional certification is when an individual completes an undergraduate degree or post graduate program in education. Alternative routes of certification are based on coursework in pedagogy and subject area without a degree in education. Hardy and Smith (2006) cite short term activities such as mentoring, peer evaluations and workshops as ways other than formal qualifications for improving teaching. More often graduates teachers with first degree content go into teaching if they cannot find another job right away. Although they often get somewhat lower salary than a fully qualified teacher; they choose not to enroll in the one year post- graduate professional training and therefore lack a basic foundation for teaching.

Maundu (1986) concludes that there was significant correlation between teacher qualification and pupil performance in Kenya. The good performance was attributed to excellent instructions given by qualified teachers in addition to other inputs. Maundu (1986) establishes that teachers who had graduated from Kenya Science Teachers College were more practically oriented than those who had degrees from public universities. Wilson et al. (2001) suggest that even with the shortcomings of current teacher education and licensing, fully prepared and certified teaches are more successful with students than teachers without this preparation. Ashton (1996) notes that teachers with regular state certification receive higher supervisor ratings and student achievement than teachers who do not meet standards.

Laczko and Berliner (2002) assert that the impact of certification status on student achievement in two large urban school districts in the United States of America. These school districts provided information about teachers hired for the 1998-1999 and 1999-2000 school years. Information included the school where they were currently teaching, the grade level taught, the teacher's certification status,

highest degree earned, date and institution where it was achieved, age, and number of years teaching experience. It has been evidenced that in many countries, teacher qualifications that are considered to be related to student learning have become desirable targets of teacher education reform. Some of these reforms call for the professionalization of teacher education by making it longer, upgrading it to graduate programs, and regulating it through mechanisms of licensure, certification, and promotion aligned with standards (Darling-Hammond et al., 2001; 2002).

Findings related to teachers' academic degrees (for example; bachelors or masters among others) are inconclusive. Some studies suggest positive effects of advanced degrees (Rice, 2003; Wayne & Youngs, 2003). Some argue that the requirement of a second degree raises the cost in terms of teacher education and the time it involves and may prevent quality candidates from choosing this profession (Murnane, 1996). This characteristic is related to the subject-matter knowledge teachers acquire during their formal studies and preservice teacher education courses. The evidence gained from different studies is contradictory. Several studies report a positive relationship between teachers' preparation in the subject matter they later teach and student achievement (Goldhaber & Brewer, 2000), while others have less unequivocal results. Monk and King (1994) find both positive and negative effects of teachers' in-field preparation on student achievement

2.12 Students' perspective on teaching styles

Students' interactive instruction is the most powerful method of teaching (Chika, 2012). Chika (2012) further notes that learning occurs most in collaborative classrooms where students are encouraged to ask questions, define problems and lead conversations. His study used Flanders Interaction Analysis Categories (FIAC)

system as an instrument for classroom observation and found that teacher talk dominated most classrooms. Similarly, this study adapted FIAC system of classroom observation and found that teachers did not actively engage learners in the communicative process of teaching and learning Kiswahili language. Teachers should therefore shift their role primarily from information givers to facilitators. Anorue (2004) noted that an effective classroom is one in which the teacher uses varied teaching styles for instruction. In a study on approaches to teaching and learning life sciences, Tanner (2009) observed that teachers dominated classroom talk and students talked only when called upon like in the case of answering questions. Callahan (2005) found that the lecture-based format of most secondary school instruction lacked the flexibility necessary to meet the linguistic and academic needs of learners.

Roblyer (2006) noted that constructivists believe that knowledge is generated by the learners through experience-based activities rather than directed by instructors. Chika (2012) opined that learners are to be responsible for their own learning. He also feels that they need tasks that are challenging, authentic and multidisciplinary. Instructors develop a teaching style based on their beliefs about what constitutes good teaching, personal preferences, their abilities, and the norms of their particular discipline (Watson, 2003). Some believe lessons should be teacher-centered, where the teacher is the expert and the authority in presenting information. Others take a learner-centered approach, viewing their role as more of a facilitator of student learning (Ahmad & Aziz, 2009).

Teacher-Centered Methods

Ahmad and Aziz (2009) observe that teacher-centered teaching is the traditional teaching method where teachers are at the centre of the class activities:

teach, talk and explain all the way. They note that in traditional classrooms, students have a definite and fixed perception and idea of their own roles and those of their teachers. Their experiences show that teachers behave in certain ways and have particular roles in the process. The view seems to regard teachers as “custodians of knowledge.” In their study on students’ perceptions on the teachers teaching of literature, Ahmad and Aziz (2009) noted that in teacher-centered classrooms, participation was at a minimum and was allowed only when teachers recognized it as appropriate. Participation was totally teacher controlled. Their research was only based on students’ perceptions on teaching styles in the teaching and learning of English literature.

A study by Tella, Indoshi and Othuon (2010) found that the traditional or teacher-centered methods of teaching resulted in learners not enjoying lessons and missing the benefits of discovering on their own. In the long run pupils were left with no choice but remained passive during the teaching and learning process.

2.13 The Relationship between Teachers Teaching Styles and Students Learning Styles

In all academic classrooms, no matter what the subject matter is, there will be students with multiple learning styles and students with a variety of major, minor and negative learning styles. An effective means of accommodating these learning styles is for teachers to change their own styles and strategies and provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles. Then all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them based on their learning styles, and they are more likely to be successful in these activities. A recommendation has therefore been made by Gregorc (1977) to the instructors to identify the learning styles of the

students as well as their teaching styles and then vary their teaching methods to meet the range of learners' preferences. By expanding and varying the teaching style, history teachers can provide openings for students with different learning styles to increase their learning during history lessons.

The majority of teachers teach the way they learn (Stitt-Gohdes, 2003). Since many teachers have experienced an academic success in learning environments that were instructor-centered and relied heavily on lecture, it is understandable that their preferred style of teaching would be to repeat what worked with them. These teachers are field independent, that is, they are more content oriented and prefer to use more formal teaching methods, favouring less student involvement and more structured class activities (Hayes & Allinson, 1997), and Pithers (2001). According to them, this style works especially well for field-dependent students who want to be told what they should learn and given the resources to acquire the specified body of knowledge or skills. This may be why most training is provided through instructor-led classrooms in the corporate environment (Caudron, 2000).

The way in which an individual processes information eventually develops into the manner in which the individual delivers the information. If a student possesses a particular learning style but is taught in a style that opposes the way the student learns, the student will appear bored and disinterested. It does not necessarily mean no learning will take place. There will be some or little acquisition of knowledge. The process of attaining this knowledge will take longer and it will be a difficult process for the student. However, if the teaching style matches the learning style of the student, the learning process becomes more efficient and more effective.

According to Dunn (1999), if a person needs to learn quickly how to operate a new piece of equipment, every effort should be made to try to match the method of

instruction to that person's learning style. In his view, one-on-one instruction makes this possible, but in a classroom situation where there are numerous learning styles, it is not possible for the instructor to accommodate all styles. In this case, the learner needs to become more resourceful by trying to align more closely to the style of the teacher. There may still be a noticeable mismatch between the learner and the teacher but matching learning style to teaching style is always the best approach (Dunn, 1999).

Learning styles are preferences for how people prefer to learn (Grasha, 1996, 2002). He is of the view that some blends of learning styles are more dominant than others. This occurs for two reasons. One reason is that students' learning experiences have encouraged the development of attitudes and behaviours associated with specific learning styles. The second reason is that the teaching styles of teachers encourage and reinforce certain learning styles. In this regard, Grasha equates one-on-one teaching encounter to a dance. A faculty member employs a particular style (i.e., leads a "partner" in a certain direction), and the student either follows or offers resistance. This engagement of teaching and learning style eventually produces an equilibrium point where both partners are able to function effectively. This therefore suggests that the closer the learning situation resembles the students learning style the more the students will achieve in their studies.

Fischer (1979) stated that, different instructional problems arise and different outcomes are achieved depending on the combinations found in various classrooms. For example, the incremental learners who functions most effectively in a explicitly structured classroom will function quite differently with a teacher who has a subject centered, task-oriented style than will a classmate whose style may be intuitive and favouring a more open structure.

Teachers are more likely to develop teaching strategies which are congruent with their own learning styles rather than those of their students if they are unaware of the learning/teaching styles literature (Barbe & Milone, 1980). This fact implies that teachers need to guard against over-teaching by their own preferred learning styles. To teach with one's own learning style is a natural tendency because teachers subconsciously operate on the assumption that the way they learn is most effective way for someone else to learn. Therefore, teachers have an obligation to broaden their teaching styles to support opportunities for students to broaden their learning styles (Friedman & Alley, 1984).

In every case, students who were matched with methods, resources, or environments that complimented their reported strong preferences achieved statistically higher; they achieved statistically less well when they were mismatched with their preferences. Because experiments both in laboratories and in classroom studies have yielded consistently significant scores, it is only reasonable to conclude that students achieve better when taught through their strength (Pizzo, 1981; Shea, 1983; Dunn, 1984).

2.14 Empirical Review on Teaching and Learning Styles

Several studies have been done on teaching and learning styles across the world and how the former affects the latter. The empirical review covers some of such related studies.

Research conducted by Chang (2010) indicated that constructivist teaching style affected students' perceptions towards physics teaching and learning. Chang explored views of students who were instructed with a constructivist approach and a traditional approach. Students placed more value on having the opportunity to actively

participate in group discussions and to examine concepts they learned when they were taught through the constructivist approach rather than the traditional approach. The study suggested that the constructivist teaching style fosters greater flexibility in teaching, and brings about students' use of deep learning strategies (thinking and discussing) and knowledge construction. In contrast to Chang's study, Kim's (2005) research in Korea indicated that even though students who received a constructivist teaching style had greater use of learning strategies than those who received a traditional teaching style, there was no significant difference between learning strategies used by these two groups.

Effective use of learning strategies can greatly improve learners' achievement. In Hamisi District in Kenya, secondary school students have continued to attain poor results in Kiswahili subject in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (K.C.S.E) examination. From the year 2007 to 2011, the mean scores in Kiswahili language ranged between 5.11 and 5.53 out of the possible 12.00. This poor performance has been blamed on poor teaching styles. The population of the study consisted of 1,800 Form 4 students and 76 teachers of Kiswahili language. The study found a positive relationship between teaching styles and learners' academic achievement in Kiswahili language. Achievement was seen to increase with more learner-centered teaching styles. Ng'ong'a (2002) observed that Kenyan school leavers continue to perform poorly due to poor teaching strategies.

A study by Tella, Indoshi and Othuon (2010) found that the traditional or teacher-centered methods of teaching resulted in learners not enjoying lessons and missing the benefits of discovering on their own. In the long run pupils were left with no choice but remained passive during the teaching and learning process.

In the 1960's the United States Office of Education sponsored a series of research projects to determine which set of instruction would result in the most effective learning by students. The results of the study indicated that the teacher rather than the materials or method made the difference (Bond & Dykstra, 1967).

In their study on students' perceptions on the teachers teaching of literature, Ahmad and Aziz (2009) noted that in teacher-centered classrooms, participation was at a minimum and was allowed only when teachers recognized it as appropriate. Participation was totally teacher controlled. Their research was only based on students' perceptions on teaching styles in the teaching and learning of English literature.

The H.M. Inspectorate (1988) surveyed the effective use of audio visual resources in most History departments in Scotland. The results revealed that film strips, videos and audio tapes were commonly used as a basis for class lessons to stimulate pupils' interest and develop their understanding. According to their report, History is indeed best learned by helping students to relive the past through the use of videos and audios to replay the past to the students.

Not only the learning style or teaching style is being influenced by the students' outcome, the findings of past studies showed as follows: for example Visser et al (2006), Ghada et al (2011) and Zhou (2011) explained that a learner's achievement in any class was determined by factors such as the native ability, and the level of congruence between the students' learning style and the teachers' teaching style. They were highly opportuned to find out that both the congruence (matching) and non-congruence (mismatching) in every classroom. Matching had a positive impact on the students' outcome and satisfaction whereas mismatching had a negative impact on the students' outcome and this resulted to many problems in learning (Ford

& Chen, 2001; Naimie et al., 2010). This is the most important reason to explain various patterns between matching and mismatching.

Farkas (2003) investigated the effect of teaching styles on two groups of seventh-grade students. Students in the experimental group preferred similar learning styles and were taught according to their preferences, while the control group was taught with a conventional teaching style. In this study, the students in the experimental group, who received a teaching style that matched their preferred learning styles, outperformed the control group academically. The experimental group also showed more positive attitudes towards learning, more understanding of people's feelings, and an increased ability to transfer what they had learned from one area to another.

An exploratory non-experimental research study by Díaz Larenas, Moran and Poblete (2011) whose main objective was to compare the teaching styles of a group of thirty (30) teachers of English working in either public or private secondary education in Chile. In order to collect the required data, two instruments were administered to the participants: a teaching style inventory and a personality type index proposed by Grasha. Results indicated that public sector participants show a facilitator teaching style and an extrovert personality type, whereas private sector participants reveal a more authoritative teaching style and an introverted type of personality.

2.15 Implication of Literature Review for the Study

The literature review has confirmed that it is important to study learning styles because recent studies have shown that a match between teaching and learning styles helps to motivate students' process of learning. That is why teachers should identify their own teaching styles as well as their students learning styles to obtain better

results in the classroom. The aim is to have a balanced teaching style and to adapt activities to meet students' style and to involve teachers in this type of research to assure the results found in this research study. Some of the learning styles identified are auditory, visual, or kinesthetic. The review increased knowledge and explained the relationships between teaching styles and learning styles.

Discovering these learning styles will allow the students to determine their own personal strengths and weaknesses and learn from them. The review has shown that teachers can incorporate learning styles into their classroom by identifying the learning styles of each of their students, matching teaching styles to learning styles for difficult tasks, strengthening weaker learning styles.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methods that were employed in the conduct of the study. These include the research design, population, sample and sampling procedures. The instruments used for data collection, pilot testing of the instruments, data collection and data analysis procedure are also explained.

3.2 Research Design

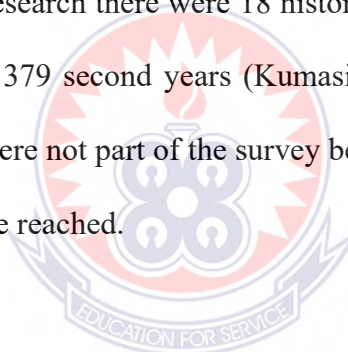
A research design, according to Burns (1997) and Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000), is essentially a plan illustrating the strategy of investigation by the researcher. The design is seen as the blue print that spells out how data relating to a problem should be collected and analysed. The study utilized the cross-sectional descriptive survey design to investigate the teaching styles of senior high school history teachers and learning styles of their students in the Kumasi Metropolis. The choice of the descriptive survey design for the study was based on the advantages associated with the design. First, the total cost of a sample is much less than that of a complete enumeration covering the same items of inquiry. Secondly, surveys use the sampling technique, which covers a greater scope regarding the variety of information required. Finally, a survey allows for higher quality of work as more accurate data can be provided within short periods.

It is acknowledged that sample surveys have some disadvantages when it comes to eliciting basic information required for every unit of the population. For example, errors due to sampling tend to be higher for small sample sizes. Fraenkel

and Wallen (2002) also intimate that getting a significant number of questionnaires completed and returned so that meaningful analysis could be made could pose a challenge to the use of the descriptive survey design. Nonetheless, steps such as pilot-testing of the questionnaire, assuring respondents of confidentiality and anonymity, self-administering of the questionnaires were taken to reduce the weaknesses to the slightest level.

3.3 Population

The target population for the study comprised all history teachers and history students in senior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis in the 2014/2015 academic year. At the time of the research there were 18 history teachers, history students made up of 496 first year and 379 second years (Kumasi Metro Education Office, 2015). The third year students were not part of the survey because they had completed school and therefore could not be reached.



3.4 Sample and Sampling Procedures

The sample consisted of a total of 350 students pursuing history, and 18 history teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis. The choice of the sample size was informed by Krejcie and Morgan's table for selecting sample size. According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), the ever increasing demand for research has created a need for an efficient method of determining the sample size needed to be representative of a given population. The total number of all the eleven selected Senior High Schools had their students number ascertained. This gave a fair view of the number of history students in each school. In the distribution of the questionnaire, the researcher used the stratified sampling technique. The researcher divided the

population into sub groups and then randomly selected the participants. This technique ensured that each history student in the selected schools had equal and independent chance of being selected to participate in the study. Table 1 presents the population and sample of the study.

A purposive sampling method was used to select 18 history teachers out of 21 from the senior high schools. This was due to the absence of the three teachers at school during the survey. Purposive sampling occurs when a researcher chooses a particular group or place to study because it is known to be the type that is wanted for the study (McNeill & Chapman, 2005). Purposive sampling method was used to select the teachers because the study targeted a specific group of people who had the requisite information in the area of teaching styles that was being researched. The history teachers were therefore better placed to provide information regarding their teaching styles.

Table 1: Population and Sample size of the Study

Institution	No. of Teachers	Sample	No. of Students	Sample
Kumasi Anglican SHS	3	2	102	40
Asanteman SHS	2	2	73	30
Adventist SHS	1	1	63	25
Ahmadiyya SHS	2	2	100	40
Kumasi Girls	2	2	101	40
Kumasi High	2	2	74	30
Serwaa Nyarko SHS	2	1	81	30
Prempeh College	3	2	101	40
Opoku Ware SHS	2	2	101	40
Yaa Asantewaa SHS	1	1	30	15
Armed Forces SHS	1	1	40	20
Total	21	18	875	350

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

3.5 Research Instruments

Questionnaires and Observation schedule were the main instruments used to collect data for the study.

3.5.1 Questionnaire

There were two sets of questionnaires: one for the teachers and another for the students (See Appendix A and B). Each questionnaire had closed-ended items on a five-point likert scale format. Both sets of questionnaire had two sections (A and B). Section A sought personal data and background information about the respondents while Section B had items related to the main issues being investigated, that is, the teaching and learning styles of the teachers and students respectively.

3.6 Validity and Reliability of the Research Instruments

Reliability refers to whether a particular technique, applied repeatedly to the same subjects, would yield the same result each time while validity, on the other hand, is the “extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration” (Babbie & Mouton 2006, p. 274). In order to establish the face validity of the questionnaire, drafted copies were handed to my supervisor for his perusal and scrutiny. After his careful inspection, some items were eliminated while others were reframed. The valuable suggestions he offered were well noted and necessary changes done accordingly. For instance, items on the bio-data which were considered by my supervisor as irrelevant were discarded. Reliability of the questionnaires was ascertained through pre-testing. During the pre-test, the questionnaires were administered to history teachers and 30 General Arts students pursuing history at Nkawie Senior High Technical School. This was done in

April 2015. The pre-test was to determine the suitability of the items of the questionnaire as well as the reliability of the instrument.

The reliability coefficient for the teachers questionnaire was found to be 0.76 using Cronbach alpha formula while that of the students' questionnaire was 0.78. Alpha values of above 0.7 are considered highly reliability (De Vellis, 2003; Kline, 2005; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). Therefore the values obtained from the pre-test showed that items in the survey were highly correlated and reliable capable of eliciting the desired information for the study.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

Data for the study was collected in July 2015. Access was gained to the research sites through an introductory letter from the Dean of School of Graduate Studies, University of Education, Winneba after permission was obtained from the heads of the selected schools. The researcher made personal contacts with the respondents in order to administer the instruments. The researcher made two visits to the respondents in each case. The first was to give advance information to the students and teachers through their Heads of Departments, and to make the necessary arrangements for the administration of the instruments. The second was the collection of the data through the administration of the questionnaire.

In the first visit, the time and place were agreed for the questionnaire administration. On the second visit the researcher met the students in the agreed classrooms. The time was purposely arranged to coincide with history lessons to ensure that all the students were present. The purpose of the study was explained to them.

The researcher distributed the questionnaire to the history teachers and students at the selected schools and stayed on until the respondents completed their responses. The answered questionnaires were then collected on the spot. This procedure ensured 100% retrieval of questionnaire, while saving a lot of time.

3.8 Data Analysis Procedure

The quantitative data entry and analysis was done by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software. The researcher edited the data collected through questionnaire to help ensure that all the information gathered was ready to be used. This was followed by coding to make the data be analyzed by the use of the SPSS software into tables and percentages. Lastly, the researcher used descriptive statistics to interpret the data.

The qualitative data (from observation) were analyzed by the use of the interpretive method based on the themes arrived at in the data collection. The researcher related the themes to the research questions and interpreted the number of issues that came up during the observation. These were based on the issues outlined on the semi-structured observation schedule. Some relevant issues observed were quoted to support the discussions.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

The researcher paid particular attention to the issue of confidentiality and anonymity by making conscious efforts to keep all the information participants provided in confidence. These were addressed by first explaining the essence of the study to the respondents. The confidentiality of the information collected from participants was concealed by ensuring that their names and other information that

could bring out their identities were not disclosed in the data collected. Where information provided by participants was adjudged to be potentially injurious to them or others when disclosed, such information has been used with great caution and in a manner that would not be linked to their providers. To achieve anonymity of the data gathered from respondents, personal data such as names and addresses of respondents who answered the questionnaires were left out in the design of the instruments. This way, it becomes impossible to trace any information to a particular participant. Finally, to avoid imposing the questionnaires on respondents, or in order not to force participants to partake in the study against their will, they were given the choice to opt out if the exercise would affect them in any way.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the results of the study. It presents and discusses the findings. The chapter is structured into two sections. The first section deals with the background information of the respondents. The second section deals with data related to the substance of the study as captured in the research questions.

4.2 Background information of Teachers

This section presents the background information of the teachers who participated in the study. The information includes their gender, age, educational qualification, professional qualification and years of experience in teaching. Tables 2 to 6 present a summary of the findings.

Table 2: Gender Distribution of Teachers

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	11	61
Female	7	39
Total	18	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From Table 2, it could be observed that, out of the 18 history teachers used for the study, 11 (61%) were males while 7 (39%) were females. This implies that most of the teachers used for the study were males. Since almost all the history teachers in the study area took part in the study, it can be stated that, there are more male than female teachers teaching history in Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis.

Table 3 presents the age distribution of the teachers.

Table 3: Age Distribution of Teachers

Age (years)	Frequency	Percent
Below 31	1	6
31-35	4	22
36-40	4	22
41-45	6	33
46-50	3	17
Above 50	-	-
Total	18	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From Table 3, it can be observed that, most of the teachers, 6 (33%) were between the ages of 41 to 45 years. Again, 3 (17%) of the teachers were between 46 to 50 years. Also, 4 (22%) were between 31 – 35 and 36 – 40 each. This implies that, most of the teachers used for the study were between 31 to 50 years. This finding seems good for the teaching of history since most of the teachers have more teaching years ahead of them and would have the opportunity to impact positively on the students' life if the teachers' teaching styles matched the learning styles of their students.

Table 4 presents the academic qualification of the teachers.

Table 4: Academic Qualification of Teachers

Academic Qualification	Frequency	Percent
B.Ed Arts	8	44
B.A Arts	2	11
B.A Social Sciences	1	6
B,Ed Social Sciences	4	22
Master of Arts	1	6
M.Phil	2	11
Total	18	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

It can be observed from Table 4 that, 8 (44%) of the teachers had a Bachelor's degree in Education (Arts), 4(22%) had Bachelor's degree in Education (Social Sciences) and 2 (11%) indicated that they had a Bachelor's degree in Arts. However, 2 (11%) indicated that they have an MPhil. It appears that majority of teachers had some considerable level of formal academic qualifications with the least been first degree holders. In addition to the academic qualification of teachers who responded to the study, it was found that all had professional qualifications in education and this is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Years of Teaching History

Teaching Experience (in years)	Frequency	Percent
1 – 5	5	28
6 – 10	8	44
11 – 15	4	22
16 – 20	1	6
Above 20	-	-
Total	18	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From Table 5, it can be noticed that, 13 out of the 18 teachers have taught for 6 years or more with 8 (44%) of them having between 6 – 10 years of teaching experience and 1 (6%) having 16 – 20 years teaching experience. Given that teaching style depends on experience, it would be expected that the teachers would have developed teaching styles that connect with their students' learning styles.

4.3 Background Information of Students

This section presents the background information of the students who participated in the study. The background information comprised only the gender and age of the students. Tables 6 and 7 present a summary of the findings.

Table 6: Gender Distribution of Students

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	186	53
Female	164	47
Total	350	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From Table 6, it could be observed that, out of the 350 students used for the study, 186 (53%) are males while 164 (47%) are females. This indicates that most of the history students used for the study were males.

Table 7 presents the age distribution of the students.

Table 7: Age Distribution of Students

Age	Frequency	Percent
Below 15	72	21
15 – 19	182	52
Above 20	96	27
Total	350	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From Table 7, it can be seen that, 182 (52%) of the students were between the ages of 15 to 19 years, 96 (27%) were above 20 years while 72 (21%) were below 15 years. This means that, majority of the history students used for the study were between 15 to 19 years.

4.4 Research Question One: What are the dominant teaching styles of senior high school history teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis?

Teaching can be described as both a science and an art. As a science, it follows laid down principles that the teacher should strictly adhere to in the process of instructional delivery. Also, as an art, the teacher needs to combine the principles and procedures he/she has learnt and make a determination as to when and how to use which style during an instructional period. It is based on these that research question one sought to find out the dominant teaching styles of senior high school history teachers.

In order to answer this, the teachers were given a number of statements describing different teaching styles, and were asked to indicate their agreement or disagreement to each statement by ticking Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Undecided (U), Disagree (D), and Strongly Disagree (SD). In the analysis, the

statements were grouped under the following learning styles: Multimedia, Learner-Centred and Traditional and the responses given the values: SA=5, A=5, U=3, D=2, SD=1. The summary of results is presented in Table 9.

Table 8: Teaching styles of history teachers

Description	Mean	SD
<i>Learner- Centred</i>		
I provide concrete examples of the phenomena and relate to practical life of students	4.95	.21
Students receive frequent verbal and or written comments on their performance	4.86	.20
I always provide my students with some open-ended problems and drill exercises that call for analysis and synthesis.	4.79	.20
I use small group discussions to help students develop their ability to think critically	4.78	.34
I typically allow students to work on individual and group projects alone with little supervision by me.	4.68	.34
I always review students' previous knowledge before teaching a new topic.	4.58	.36
I engage my students with activities such as project works	4.55	.19
I employ team teaching regularly by relying on other interdisciplinary subject teachers e.g. Geography.	4.36	.42
My teaching goals and methods addresses a variety of student learning styles.	4.29	.17
I regularly embark on field trips with my students to important historical sites e.g. castles, museums	4.29	.15
I frequently invite resource persons and guests speakers from the community to explain things to my students	4.25	.18
I prefer to guide, encourage, and consult with my students on what should be done in the classroom	4.15	.17
I use the question and answer method frequently in my	4.02	.22

Description	Mean	SD
teaching (both close ended and open ended questions)		
I solicit students' advice on how and what to teach in this course	3.68	.24
I assign open-ended activities encouraging creativity in my students.	3.68	.21
<i>Average Weighted Mean and SD</i>	4.39	.24
<i>Multimedia</i>		
I use pictures, diagram, graphs and simple sketches before, during, and after the presentation of verbal material to enhance my students' understanding.	4.12	.17
I often show students how they can use various concepts through audio visual media	3.98	.34
<i>Average Weighted Mean and SD</i>	4.05	.26
<i>Traditional</i>		
It is my responsibility to define what students must learn and how they should learn it.	3.68	.09
I normally write notes on the board for students to copy	1.98	.14
Lecture method (teacher talk) is normally used in my lesson.	1.21	.25
<i>Average Weighted Mean and SD</i>	2.29	.16

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Mean ranges: Strongly Agree (4.1 – 5.0), Agree (3.1 – 4.0), Undecided (2.1 – 3.0), Disagree (1.1 – 2.0), Strongly Disagree (0.0 – 1.0)

From Table 8, it was found that Learner-Centred approach of teaching was the most prevailing model adopted by history teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis. This approach is highly meant to improve achievement of students through active participation of class activities. It deals with collaborative learning through student-centred to acquire knowledge and skills at school. As stated by Cummins (2007), Learner-centred teaching style model raises student's achievement, promoted

democratic classrooms and helps in achieving communication goals. It can be observed that, the style of teaching where “*provide concrete examples of the phenomena and relate to practical life of students*” recorded the highest mean value ($M = 4.95$, $SD = .21$). This implies that, History teachers in Senior High Schools try to deal with the abstract nature of the subject by providing concrete examples of events and making them more practical to the everyday life of the student. A mean value of 4.95 indicates that, the teachers strongly agree that they use this style of teaching. One of the issues the critics of the History subject always mention is the abstract nature of the subject, however, it appears from the view of the teachers that, they are using various techniques to make the history lesson more practical, relevant to the student’s life as well as concrete for easy understanding and appreciation of the events being discussed. Again, history teachers in their quest to encourage the student employ a teaching style that ensures that “*Students receive frequent verbal and or written comments on their performance*” ($M = 4.86$, $SD = .20$). This means that, the history teacher constantly provide feedback to the students on their level of performance. The import of such a style is that, the teacher on a regular basis monitors the progress of the student and provide comments to encourage him/her to do well if they are not and to keep it up if they are. From the observation, “it was noticed that some of the teachers who adopted learned-centered approach involved students in class activities through questions and answers out of which discussions are made to clarify issues and building better understanding to students”.

Furthermore, it can be observed from Table 9 that, teaching styles such as, “*I use small group discussions to help students develop their ability to think critically*”, “*I always review students’ previous knowledge before teaching a new topic*”, “*I typically allow students to work on individual and group projects alone with little*

supervision by me”, *“I engage my students with activities such as project works”* and *“I always provide my students with some open-ended problems and drill exercises that call for analysis and synthesis”* all had mean values greater than 4.5 ($M > 4.51$) which implies that the teachers strongly agree that they employ these styles during their instructional periods to be emphatically stated that, these styles are more of learner-centred and is geared towards the involvement of the learner in the teaching and learning process while the teacher only serves as a facilitator. Even though, these styles recorded different standard deviations ($SD < .30$), they were all less than .30 which suggest a form of closeness of the responses to each other. For instance, the use of small group discussions and allowing students to work on individual and group projects are all meant to build in the student the act of team work and working independently. Teachers with such teaching styles are able to bring out the best in their students as well as prepare them for the future. According to the literature, Bennett (1976), teaching styles refer to the teacher’s pervasive personal behaviour and media used during interaction with learners. It is a teacher’s characteristic approach whatever the method used (p. 27). One other teaching style that is worth mentioning is *“I regularly embark on field trips with my students to important historical sites e.g. castles, museums”* ($M = 4.29$, $SD = .15$). Field trips is one of the numerous methods available to the history teacher. To make the lesson more practical and not boring and to ensure that the students appreciate the essence of what they are being taught, the teachers agreed that they embark on field trips to historical sites all in an attempt to concretise their lessons and make it relevant.

Also, Heimlich and Norland (1994) also viewed teaching styles as a predilection toward teaching behaviour and the congruence between educators’ teaching behaviour and teaching beliefs (p. 34). However, in the opinion of Brown

(2001), teaching styles refer to a teacher's personal behaviours and media used to transmit data to or receive it from the learner and involve the implementation of the teacher's philosophy about teaching (p. 231). According to Campbell and Kryszewska (1995), there are three classifications to identify teaching styles: (a) a didactic style which was teacher-controlled through lectures and students' note taking; (b) a Socratic style which was teacher directed through the use of questions to which the students responded; and (c) a facilitative style in which the teacher prepared the learning environment and the students were responsible for their own learning (p. 132). Finally, Grasha (1996) believes teaching styles represent those enduring personal qualities and behaviours that appear in how we conduct our classes.

Also, in the world of technology, it is imminent for the history teacher to employ multimedia materials in his/her teaching. Multimedia teaching style involves the use of text, picture, video and audio-visual of various digital instruments to impart knowledge and information to students. Learning becomes easier for students when there is combination of images with words. It helps in portraying exactly what is taught orally by teachers and this promotes easy understanding of issues relating historical events taught in class. For instance, an items like *"I use pictures, diagram, graphs and simple sketches before, during, and after the presentation of verbal material to enhance my students' understanding"* (M = 4.12, SD = .17) and *"I often show students how they can use various concepts through audio visual media"* recorded a mean value (M = 3.98 ~ 4.0, SD = .34) all indicating that the teachers agree that they employ these styles during their teaching of history in the Senior High School. This tie in with the view that the teachers provide concrete examples to the students. Pictorial and multimedia materials appeal to more than the one sense of the student. This makes the student more interested in the lesson and has the tendency to

increase retention rate among history students. It was observed that ‘‘one of the teachers used projector to present images and audio of Dr. Kwame Nkrumah speeches to students in dealing with Ghana’s independence’’. This gave better insight to students on actual statements made by the first Ghanaian president during independence’’.

However, three items identified are in favour of Traditional approach. The traditional approach is more teacher-centred where teachers take control of class activities and determines how issues should be handled and to meet his/her demands or expectations. These items were ‘‘ It is my responsibility to define what students must learn and how they should learn it’’ (M=3.68, SD = .09). With this, students are supposed to go according to directions and instructions of teachers without questioning issues that may need further clarity or opinions. Damodharan and Rengarajan (2007) stressed that with traditional approach of teaching, teachers’ control entire teaching and learning process in class and students are expected to be receivers of knowledge emanating from teachers as factual. However, two items recorded the lowest mean scores and are ‘‘*Lecture method (teacher talk) is normally used in my lesson*’’ (M = 1.21, SD = .25) and ‘‘*I normally write notes on the board for students to copy*’’ (M = 1.98, SD = .14). This implies that, the history teachers disagree that they employ the style of writing notes on the board or lecturing the students. This confirms the earlier views mentioned since the initial responses indicated that, they employ more of student-centred methods of teaching, it makes sense that they would disagree with the use of these styles. The effect of these styles are that, they stifles student initiative, makes the instructional session lopsided and kills the interest of the student in the lesson. Teachers who employ such styles could

lose the attentiveness and concentration of his/her class. Table 10 presents a summary of the teaching styles of history teachers.

Table 9: Summary of the Teaching Styles of History Teachers

Teaching Styles	Mean	SD
Multimedia	4.03	.25
Traditional	1.86	.19
Learner-Centred	4.75	.12

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Mean ranges: Strongly Agree (4.1 – 5.0), Agree (3.1 – 4.0), Undecided (2.1 – 3.0), Disagree (1.1 – 2.0), Strongly Disagree (0.0 – 1.0)

From Table 9, three teaching styles are identified according to literature. These were obtained by grouping the individual styles into three. It can be seen that, Learner-centred teaching styles recorded the highest mean value ($M = 4.75$, $SD = .12$). This is followed by Multimedia ($M = 4.03$, $SD = .25$) and then Traditional teaching style with the least mean value ($M = 1.86$, $SD = .19$).

It can be inferred from the mean values recorded that, the dominant teaching style of history teachers in the Senior High School is the Learner-centered teaching style. This is the type of style that puts the interest of the student first while the teacher only facilitates during the period of instructional delivery. History teachers prefer this style because they need to sustain the interest of their students throughout the period of the lesson. To be able to do that, learner activities should dominate to keep the learner occupied during the entire period of the lesson. Doherty and Hilberg (2007) pointed out that learner-centered pedagogy promoted student achievement. Eken (2000) noted that in a student-centered class, teachers are mere facilitators and students take on the discussion role. Students are seen as being able to assume a more active and participatory role vis-à-vis traditional approaches.

Learner-centered pedagogy raises student achievement, promotes democratic classrooms, complex thinking and meets student's communication goals (Cummins, 2007). Teachers facilitate student's discussion and interject only when necessary, allowing students to put the language to use and to explore the aesthetics of the texts (Ahmad & Aziz, 2009). In the opinion of Froyd (2007) the standard features of student-centered pedagogy include collaborative learning, connecting new information to previous knowledge, higher-order thinking and conversations in teacher-directed small groups.

Next to learner-centred teaching style is multimedia teaching style. Teachers who use multimedia always want to appeal to all the senses of the student and not only his ability to hear. Using pictures, videos, audios among others to deliver a lesson makes it more practical and appreciative than resorting to only talking without any multimedia use. The teachers agreed ($M = 4.03$) that they employ the multimedia teaching style. Multimedia teaching style is the combination of variety of digital media types like text, picture, audio-visual and video into the integration of multi-sensory interactive application in order to deliver information to the students more effectively (Damodharan & Rengarajan, 2007). Vaughan (1998) opine that multimedia project is very useful, exciting and challenging. Mayer (2001) stated that "people learn more deeply from words and pictures than from words alone" (p. 47).

Finally, a mean value of 1.86 is an indication that, the teachers made less use of traditional teaching styles in teaching history. The traditional teaching styles encompass notes dictation, writing notes on the board for students to copy and lecturing. These styles are not student friendly and do not encourage effective classroom interaction between the teacher and the students. The students are reduced to a bunch of receivers of knowledge while the teacher is seen as a repertoire of

knowledge. The use of traditional style of teaching reduces the classroom situation to master-servant relationship instead of partners. According to Prendergast and O'Donoghue (2010), variety of teaching methods must be used to ensure more appealing lessons that engage the learning styles of students. In their view, past teaching styles relied too much on 'talk and chalk'. They believe that such a style of teaching is undoubtedly needed to some extent but must be combined with alternative approaches which include images and audios.

4.5 Research Question Two: What relationship, if any, exist between senior high school history teachers' style of teaching and their gender, age and teaching experience?

Research question two sought to establish a relationship (if any) between the gender, age, teaching experience and professional qualification of history teachers and their style of teaching. Tables 10 to 12 presents a summary of the results for each variable.

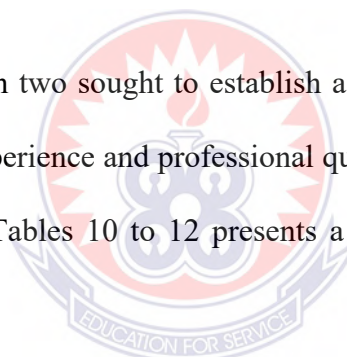


Table 10: Cross-tabulation between gender and history teachers' style of teaching

	Multimedia F (%)	Traditional F (%)	Learner-centred F (%)	Total
Male	3 (27.3)	3 (27.3)	5 (45.4)	11
Female	1 (14.3)	2 (28.6)	4 (57.1)	7
Total	4	5	9	18

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From Table 11, it can be established that, out of the 11 male teachers used for the study, 3 males (27.3%) used Multimedia, only 1 female indicated (14.3%) she

used Multimedia. Five (5) males (45.4) indicated that they used the learner-centred. This shows that, most of the male teachers used the learner-centred method as against the other teaching styles available to the History teacher. On the side of the female teachers, it can be observed that out of the 7 female teachers, 1 (14.3) indicated that they used multimedia, 2 females (28.6) mentioned that they employ the traditional method when teaching while 4 females (57.1) indicated they used learner-centered style of teaching. Comparatively, it can be seen that, most of the teachers, that is, both males and females used the learner-centred method when teaching history, however, the number of male teachers exceeds that of the female teachers. It can also be observed that that, the female teachers rarely used multimedia during the instructional delivery of History lessons as compared to male teachers. This means that, gender of a teacher might have a relationship with the style of teaching used. Male teachers are likely to use learner-centered and multimedia styles of teaching whilst females adopt learner-centered as well as traditional style of teaching. This might be due partly to involvement and interest by most men in the field of ICT than their female counterparts. Most females prefer to present issues as they perceive them to students without use of demonstrations and discussions.

Table 11: Cross-tabulation between age and history teachers' style of teaching

	Multimedia F (%)	Traditional F (%)	Learner-centred F (%)	Total
Below 30	1	0	0	1
31 – 40	5 (62.5)	1 (12.5)	2 (25)	8
41 – 50	2 (22.2)	5 (55.6)	2 (22.2)	9
Total	8	6	4	18

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From Table 11, it can be seen that, teachers between the ages of 31 – 40 (62.5%) prefer the usage of multimedia as compared to those between 41 and 50 (22.2%), while those between 41 and 50 (55.6) indicated that they used more of the traditional method. It can be inferred that, as a history teacher’s age increases, there is a corresponding increase in the choice of teaching style used. This finding shows that, older history teachers are more likely to employ traditional teaching style and learner-centred as compared to young history teachers. This is because, older history teachers are not conversant with in-depth use of ICT related programmes and would prefer to involve students in class activities through discussion. Young history teachers mostly have adequate knowledge in the use of ICT equipment and tools and would therefore employ multimedia as their most preferred style of teaching. There is a relationship between the age of the History teacher and the teaching style adopted.

Table 12: Cross-tabulation between teaching experience and history teachers’ style of teaching

	Multimedia	Traditional	Learner-centred	Total
	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	
Less Experienced	1 (20)	3 (60)	1 (20)	5
Experienced	3 (25)	2 (16.7)	7 (58.3)	12
More Experienced	0	0	1	1
Total	4	5	8	18

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

From Table 12, out of 12 experienced teachers (those who have taught History between 5 to 10 years), 7 (58.3%) indicated that they employed the learner-centred method, 3 (25%) mentioned that they used the multimedia method and 2 (16.7%) said

they employed the traditional method. This is distinct from the less experienced History teachers (those who have taught History between 1 to 5 years), in that, it can be observed that, out of the 5 teachers, 3 (60%) mentioned that they used the traditional method of teaching History. Thus, an improvement in the teaching experience of the history teacher seems to influence the choice of teaching style of the history teacher. This is because, as the teacher continuously handles a history class, he/she acquires the relevant skills and appreciates which styles work and which ones do not. Experienced teachers are more likely to use learner-centered and multimedia provided the teacher is conversant with computer skills. Inexperienced teachers are likely to use traditional style of teaching. Teachers' experience and their choice teaching styles have implications for student achievement. This is because students taught by more experienced teachers achieve higher level, as the teachers have mastered the content and acquired classroom management skills to deal with different types of classroom problems (Gibbons et al., 1997). Furthermore, more experienced teachers are considered to be more able to concentrate on the most appropriate way to teach particular topics to students who differ in their abilities, prior knowledge and backgrounds (Stringfield & Teddlie, 1991).

4.6 Research Question Three: What are the preferred learning styles of senior high school history students in the Kumasi Metropolis?

Learning style differs from one student to the other. While some learn by doing something active, others learn by memorising facts or understanding the theory behind the concepts. Research question three focused on identifying the preferred learning style of history students in the Kumasi Metropolis. Table 15 presents the summary of the individual preferred learning styles of the students.

Table 13: Preferred learning styles of senior high school history students

Description	Mean	SD
<i>Kinaesthetic</i>		
I prefer to learn facts, models, events and concepts that have relevance in real life and can be put into practice.	4.98	.16
I learn best by being patient with details , memorising facts and doing hands-on work	4.86	.25
I understand best if lesson is presented sequentially whereby each person follows chronologically from previous lesson.	4.68	.28
I learn better through small group discussions and debates	4.58	.14
I always require models, and facts in order to participate in the learning process.	4.22	.15
I prefer to work alone and think quietly about things first before I understand	4.12	.15
I am able to learn complex models or materials quite easily but sometimes with difficulty in explaining the connection between them.	4.08	.33
I retain and understand best by doing something active such as discussing or explaining things to others in the form of group work	3.95	.18
I often prefer discovering possibilities and relationships.	3.68	.34
<i>Average Weighted Mean and SD</i>	4.35	.22
<i>Visual</i>		
I remember best what I see in the form of pictures, diagrams, flow charts, films, and demonstrations.	4.22	.25
Frequent field trips organised to important historical sites e.g. castles, museums induce better understanding.	4.08	.25
<i>Average Weighted Mean and SD</i>	4.15	.25
<i>Auditory</i>		
I learn more out of words –written and spoken explanations.	4.48	.15
I learn best by understanding the theory behind the concepts.	4.44	.31

Description	Mean	SD
I'm often better at grasping new concepts and more comfortable with abstractions.	3.02	.15
I learn best if teacher normally uses the lecture method in lesson delivery	2.14	.25
<i>Average Weighted Mean and SD</i>	3.52	.22

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Mean ranges: *Strongly Agree (4.1 – 5.0), Agree (3.1 – 4.0), Undecided (2.1 – 3.0), Disagree (1.1 – 2.0), Strongly Disagree (0.0 – 1.0)*

Kinaesthetic learning was the most dominant and preferred learning style of history students in Kumasi Metropolis. Kinaesthetic learning style is the type of learning style which is also referred to as tactile learning in which learning takes place by the students carrying out physical activities, rather than listening to a lecture or watching demonstration. This style of learning makes the student discoverers. Thus, when the student is learning, there is the need to be doing something in order to retain information. This style differs from the visual and auditory learners such that, while the two (visual and auditory) requires the student to listen or watch an activity, the kinaesthetic learner would have to connect with the activity to enable him/her retain what he/she has learnt. From Table 15, it can be observed that the highest means recorded ($M = 4.98$, $SD = .16$) was for the item “*I prefer to learn facts, models, events and concepts that have relevance in real life and can be put in practice*”. This indicates that, the students give prominence to issues that are relevant to their daily life and which they think can put into practice. Student who learn by this mode are able to understand what is being thought and show particular interest during class activities because they realise they are not learning in a vacuum but for their present and future purposes. From the observation, “ it was realised that most students are interested in learning concepts and ideas that can affect their real lives”.

According to Brown (2000), learning styles are the manners in which individuals perceive and process information in learning situations. In his opinion, learning style preference is one aspect of learning style, and refers to the choice of one learning situation or condition over another. Celce-Marcia (2001) also view learning styles as the general approaches, for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual, that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject.

Again, in terms of the learning style whereby students *learn best by being patient with details, memorising facts and doing hands-on work*, recorded a mean value ($M = 4.86$, $SD = .25$) suggested that, the students strongly agree that, this is one of their most preferred learning styles. Following this approach of learning, students are able to learn effectively through capturing of essential details of class activities and acting on it to achieve academic goals. Again, *“I understand best if lesson is presented sequentially whereby each person follows chronologically from previous lesson”* recorded a mean value ($M = 4.68$, $SD = .28$) suggesting that the students generally strongly agree to this item as a preferred learning style. Teaching is supposed to be from the known to unknown and simple to complex. The essence of this is that, the teacher moves sequentially in order to present a pattern in the mind of the student. It is therefore not surprising that most of the students indicated that this is their preferred learning style.

Furthermore, it is evident that the students preferred *to learn through small group discussions and debates* ($M = 4.58$, $SD = .14$) because it serves as a platform for sharing ideas and learning from each other. It is evident that not all students are able to learn independently, some learn through group discussions and team activities. This enables students to correct themselves and encourages peer review.

Again, the second most preferred learning style according to the students used for the study is the visual learning style ($M = 4.15$, $SD = .13$). This type of learning style also called Spatial learning style is a way of learning in which information is associated with images. This learning style requires that learners first see what they are expected to know. Visual learners in school typically remembers what they read rather than what they hear, they prefer reading a story rather than listening to it, learn from seeing things written out on the board and more importantly use diagrams and charts to understand ideas and concepts. From Table 15, it can be observed that the highest means recorded ($M = 4.22$, $SD = .25$) was for the item “ *I remember best what I see in the form of pictures, diagrams, flow charts, films, and demonstrations*”. Learning becomes easier and simpler for students when ideas and concepts are taught in combination of pictures, words, sound and demonstrations. Students get easy understanding of intended purpose of class activities delivered by teachers using this option of learning. Abbas (2012) opined that students with visual learning style has a preference for seen or observed things, including pictures, diagrams, demonstrations, displays, handouts, films and flip-chart to mention a few. Moreover, the item “*Frequent field trips organised to important historical sites e.g. castles, museums induce better understanding*” recorded ($M = 4.08$, $SD = .25$). The use of field trips to historical sites enrich practical understanding of history concepts and ideas to students. Through fieldtrips, students are enlightened with real issues on the ground and this facilitates deeper understanding of issues already discussed in class by teachers.

Finally, the third preferred learning style is the auditory learning style ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .16$). A mean value of 3.52 indicates that the students were not sure as to their preference for this style of learning. This is a learning style in which a person

learns through listening. An auditory learner depends on hearing and speaking as a main way of learning. Auditory learners must be able to hear what is being said in order to understand and may have difficulty with instructions that are drawn but if the writing is in a logical order it can be easier to understand. They also use their listening and repeating skills to sort through the information that is sent to them. It must be stated however that, auditory learners are good at writing responses to teachers that have heard. They are also good at oral exams, effectively by listening to information delivered orally, in lectures, speeches and oral sessions. It can be observed from Table 15 that, learning styles such as, ‘*I learn more out of words –written and spoken explanations*’, ‘*I learn best by understanding the theory behind the concepts*’ and ‘*I’m often better at grasping new concepts and more comfortable with abstractions*’ all had mean scores which signifies students preferred it as a learning style though it was the least among the three stated styles.

4.7 Research Question Four: What relationship, if any, exists between the teaching styles of senior high school history teachers and the learning styles of history students?

Research question four sought to establish (if any) the relationship between the teaching style of senior high school history teachers and the learning styles of history students. Table 16 presents a summary of the correlation that existed between the two variables.

Table 14: Correlation between teaching styles and learning style

			Teaching Styles	Learning Styles
Pearson	Teaching Styles	Correlation coefficient	1.000	.706
		Sig. (2-tailed)		.005
		N	368	368
	Learning Styles	Correlation coefficient	.706	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	
		N	368	368

Source: Fieldwork, 2015

Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

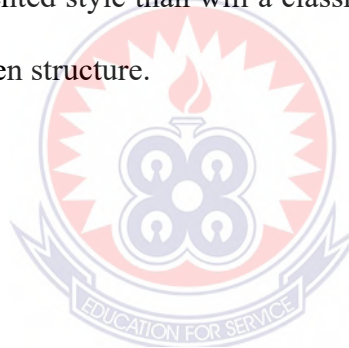
From Table 16, a Pearson's correlation coefficient of .706 indicates a strong positive relationship between the teaching styles of history teachers and the learning styles of history students. This means that, as the choice of teaching styles of history teachers, have a corresponding influence in the learning style of students of history. The relationship is significant at the .05 alpha level ($.005 < .05$).

Teaching styles, for the purpose of this study includes learner-centred teaching style, multimedia teaching style and traditional teaching styles. A choice of teaching style of history teachers means a migration from the traditional teaching style to a student-centred teaching style which would put the student at the fore front of the teaching and learning process thereby pushing the student to employ more favourable learning styles that ensures that learning takes place during an instructional period. According to Gregorc (1977), instructors identify the learning styles of the students as well as their teaching styles and then vary their teaching methods to meet the range of learners' preferences. These teachers are field independent, that is, they are more content oriented and prefer to use more formal teaching methods, favouring less

student involvement and more structured class activities (Hayes & Allinson, 1997; Pithers, 2001).

This may be why most training is provided through instructor-led classrooms in the corporate environment (Caudron, 2000). According to Dunn (1999), if a person needs to learn quickly how to operate a new piece of equipment, every effort should be made to try to match the method of instruction to that person's learning style.

Fischer and Fischer (1979) stated that, different instructional problems arise and different outcomes are achieved depending on the combinations found in various classrooms. For example, the incremental learners who function most effectively in an explicitly structured classroom will function quite differently with a teacher who has a subject centred, task-oriented style than will a classmate whose style may be intuitive and favouring a more open structure.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of findings which emanated from the survey, conclusions drawn from it and recommendations based on the findings. In addition, suggestion for future studies is also presented in this chapter.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study is to explore the teaching styles of history teachers and determine if they match with students' learning styles in the senior high schools. The study also focuses on any differences in teachers' style of teaching with respect to their gender, age, teaching experience and professional qualification.

The study employed the descriptive survey design. The target population comprised all history teachers and history students in Senior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis in the 2014/2015 academic year. A sample size of 21 teachers and 350 students were selected. Questionnaire was used as the main research instrument and comprised both open and close ended questions. The data gathered from respondents were edited and coded, and statistically analyzed using the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) software version 22. Research Questions One to Four were analysed using means and standard deviations. The key findings of the study are:

1. The study revealed that the dominant teaching style of history teachers in the Senior High School is the Learner-centered teaching style ($M = 4.75$, $SD = .12$). This approach puts students' first by ensuring that teachers give

opportunity to students to participate in class activities. This approach encourages collaborative learning through student-centered to acquire needed skills and knowledge at school.

2. Multimedia teaching style was next to Learner-centered style and it involves the use of combination of pictures, video, text and audio-visual instruments to educate students. Through this approach, history teachers are able to use pictures, diagrams, graphs and other simple sketches before, during and after presentation of verbal ideas to enhance students understanding.
3. However, responses from the study indicate that Traditional approach to teaching was the least of three methods of teaching identified in Table 9 adopted by SHS history teachers in Kumasi Metropolis. The Traditional approach is more of teacher-centered where teachers control class activities in ways deemed appropriate based on their expectations. Students are not given the nod to express their views and comments on subjects or topics under-study. Students are expected to adhere to directions and instructions of teachers without questioning issues under-study. For instance, teachers write notes on board for students to copy and take it as factual.
4. The study brought to light that, there is a positive relationship between the gender of the history teacher, his/her age, teaching experience and professional qualification as against the teaching style adopted by the history teacher. The relationships were significant at .05. This means that for instance, the gender of a history have significant influence on choice of teaching style.
5. The study found out that the preferred learning style of history students is Kinaesthetic learning style ($M = 4.62$, $SD = .10$). This was followed by the visual learning style ($M = 3.56$, $SD = .13$). However, the students were not

sure as to their preference for this style of learning which is the auditory learning style ($M = 3.23$, $SD = .16$).

6. Pearson's correlation coefficient of .706 indicates a strong positive relationship between the teaching styles of history teachers and the learning styles of history students. This means that, the choice of teaching styles of history teachers have corresponding influence in the learning style of students of history. The relationship is significant at the .05 alpha level ($.005 < .05$).

5.3 Conclusions

The performance of students and teachers in senior high schools highly depend on the choice of teaching and learning styles adopted. The quality of teaching and learning in SHS dwells on right models adopted by teachers and students. The type of model or style adopted for teaching and learning process are influenced by demographic characteristics of teachers and students. The use of Learner-centered approach of teaching history have been predominant in SHS in the Kumasi Metropolis. This approach is adopted by most teachers to inculcate in students confidence to participate and contribute to class activities. This is to ensure improvement in students performance through collaborative means to acquire knowledge and skills. These were done through provision of concrete examples of phenomena and relate to practical life of students, reviewing previous lesson to students, group discussions, individual and group project work, provision of open-ended problems and drill exercise that call for analysis and synthesis and field trips. The use of Multimedia and Traditional styles of teaching were practiced among some teachers but are not common as compared to the Learner-centered style. The most preferred learning styles among history students in the Kumasi Metropolis is

Kinaesthetic which is highly centered on physical activities rather than mere listening to concepts and ideas. This approach has been preferred by most student due to its ability to connect with activities learnt which visual and auditory style lacks. It is appropriate to state that the choice of teaching and learning styles adopted by teachers and students are influenced by desires and opportunities made available in schools. Therefore, there cannot be only one approach to effective teaching and learning process in SHS in the Kumasi Metropolis but the necessity should be centered on a given situation.

5.4 Recommendations

The following recommendations are given based on the findings:

- It is imperative for history students to adopt right learning styles based on a given situation. Every given situation will demand a suitable learning style to help improve the acquisition of knowledge and skills in schools. Adopting appropriate learning styles helps students understanding of issues taught in class and beyond. In view of these, teachers should take into account appropriate styles of teaching to handle a given situation as expected of them.
- Teachers are expected to ensure easy delivery of information or impart knowledge to students through appropriate teaching styles deemed fit at a given point in time.
- To enhance the quality of teaching and learning of history in SHS in the Kumasi Metropolis, it is prudent for schools to ensure adequate provision of necessary materials and logistics that facilitate teachers and students toward academic exercise. In view of this, Government of Ghana should provide

adequate resources for schools to procure needed logistics for teaching and learning activities in schools.

- Training programmes should be organized for teachers to equip and improve their skills toward teaching. Improvement in their skills will have positive effect on student learning and performance.
- Appropriate supervision should be carried out by heads of SHS in the Kumasi Metropolis to monitor progress and performance of teachers and students in schools to ensure that teaching and learning processes achieve set or expected standards.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies

This study focused on investigating the methods and techniques of teaching and learning employed by teachers and students in the Kumasi Metropolis. It is expected that future studies capture the entire Ashanti Region and beyond to ascertain whether the findings can be largely generalised. It is also imperative for future studies to concentrate on assessing the impact of teaching styles on performance of students in Senior High Schools in Ghana.

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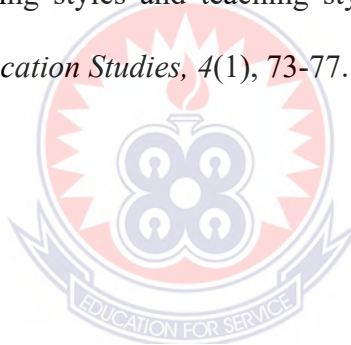
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APPENDIX A
STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this questionnaire is to seek information for the appraisal of teaching and learning styles of history teachers and students in senior high schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. The exercise is purely academic, so responses to these questions in the research shall be treated exclusively confidential.

Biographic Data

1. Gender male [] females []

2. Age below 15yrs [] 15-19yrs [] above 20yrs []

**Learning Styles of Senior High School History Students in the Kumasi
Metropolis**

Respond to each of the items below in terms of how you normally learn best in history. Try to answer as sincerely and as objectively as you can.

Rating scale: 1 = Strongly Disagree (SD) 2 = Disagree (D) 3 = Undecided (U) 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree (SA)

No.	Students' Learning Styles	SD	D	Un	A	SA
1	I retain and understand best by doing something active such as discussing or explaining things to others in the form of group work					
2	I prefer to work alone and think quietly about things first before I understand					

3	I learn best by being patient with details , memorising facts and doing hands-on work					
4	I often prefer discovering possibilities and relationships.					
5	I remember best what I see in the form of pictures, diagrams, flow charts, films, and demonstrations.					
6	I learn more out of words–written and spoken explanations.					
7	I understand best if lesson is presented sequentially whereby each person follows chronologically from previous lesson.					
8	I am able to learn complex models or materials quite easily but sometimes with difficulty in explaining the connection between them.					
9	I learn best by understanding the theory behind the concepts.					
10	I prefer to learn facts, models, events and concepts that have relevance in real life and can be put into practice.					
11	I always require models, and facts in order to participate in the learning process.					
12	I learn best if teacher normally uses the lecture method in lesson delivery					
13	I learn better through small group discussions and debates					
14	Frequent field trips organised to important historical sites e.g. castles, museums induce better understanding.					
15	I'm often better at grasping new concepts and more comfortable with abstractions.					

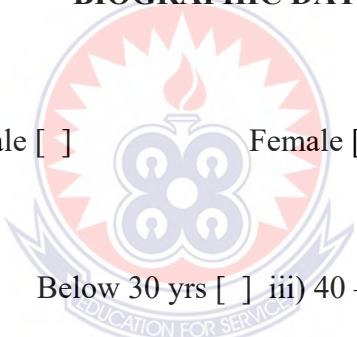
APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

This questionnaire seeks information on teaching and learning styles of history teachers and students in senior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis. The information given is purely for academic purpose in fulfillment of the requirement for the award of master of philosophy degree (M.Phil Educational Leadership). You are therefore assured of confidentiality and anonymity.

PART ONE

BIOGRAPHIC DATA

- 
1. Gender: Male [] Female []
2. Age: i) Below 30 yrs [] iii) 40 – 50yrs []
ii) 30 – 39yrs [] iv) above 50yrs []
3. What is your highest Academic Qualification?
i) Graduate [] ii) Postgraduate [] iii) HND []
4. What is your highest Professional Qualification?
i) Cert A [] (ii) PGCE [] (iv) B. Ed []
ii) (v) M. Ed [] (vi) M. Phil in Ed []
vii) None []

5. Total years of teaching experience

- i) Below 5 yrs. [] (ii) 6 – 10 yrs. [] (iii) 11- 115yrs []
 ii) iv) 16-20yrs [] (v) above 20yrs []

Teaching Styles of Senior High School History Teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis

Respond to each of the items below in terms of how you teach History. Try to answer as honestly and as objectively as possible.

Rating scale:1 = Strongly Disagree (**SD**)2= Disagree (**D**)3 = Undecided (**U**)4 = Agree
 5 = Strongly Agree (**SA**)

No	Teaching Styles of History Teachers	SD	D	Un	A	SA
1	I often show students how they can use various concepts through audio visual media					
2	I use small group discussions to help students develop their ability to think critically					
3	I regularly embark on field trips with my students to important historical sites e.g. castles, museums					
4	I employ team teaching regularly by relying on other interdisciplinary subject teachers e.g. Geography.					
5	Lecture method (teacher talk) is normally used in my lesson.					
6	I normally write notes on the board for students to copy					
7	I always review students' previous knowledge before teaching a new topic.					
8	I solicit students' advice on how and what to teach in this course					

9	I typically allow students to work on individual and group projects alone with little supervision by me.					
10	My teaching goals and methods addresses a variety of student learning styles.					
11	Students receive frequent verbal and or written comments on their performance					
12	It is my responsibility to define what students must learn and how they should learn it.					
13	I frequently invite resource persons and guests speakers from the community to explain things to my students					
14	I use the question and answer method frequently in my teaching (both close ended and open ended questions)					
15	I engage my students with activities such as project works					
16	I prefer to guide, encourage, and consult with my students on what should be done in the classroom					
17	I provide concrete examples of the phenomena and relate to practical life of students					
18	I use pictures, diagram, graphs and simple sketches before, during, and after the presentation of verbal material to enhance my students' understanding.					
19	I always provide my students with some open-ended problems and drill exercises that call for analysis and synthesis.					
20	I assign open-ended activities encouraging creativity in my students.					