SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN GHANA:

TEACHERS' AND HEADTEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES

By

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Declaration

I declare that this dissertation is the account of my own research and that the main content, except to the contrary, is not substantially the same as any other dissertation that has been submitted for a degree at any tertiary educational institution.

Signed: ....

(Peter Baffour-Awuah)

Abstract

School leaders use instructional supervision to improve teaching and learning by providing practising teachers with on-going support and guidance after their initial teacher training programmes. Public opinion and research studies have questioned the effectiveness of the supervisory process in Ghanaian public primary schools, however. The main purpose of this study is to better understand the practice of instructional supervision in the schools by examining teachers' and headteachers' perspectives about how they experienced and conceptualised instructional supervision. The study also sought to uncover aspects of instructional supervision that teachers and headteachers think should be practised.

A mixed method approach was employed to collect data from multiple sources including questionnaires, interviews, and policy documents on instructional supervision. Items for the questionnaires and interviews were guided by aspects of instructional supervision drawn from the literature and included both traditional practices such as monitoring and evaluating teachers' work as well as more contemporary practices such as coaching and mentoring. The questionnaire included 24 Likert scale items and 4 open-ended items. For each Likert scale item, participants were asked to answer how often they experienced a particular practice as well as the extent to which they agreed that it should be practised.

A municipal education district in Ghana was selected for the study. Two hundred and forty out of 336 teachers and 40 out of 44 heads returned their questionnaires. In addition, 10 teachers, 10 heads and two officers (the district head of supervision and one from headquarters) were interviewed. The Ghana Education Service (GES) policy document on supervision was also analysed.

The study found that the GES policy document on instructional supervision emphasised aspects of instructional supervision that related to monitoring teaching activities and ensuring maximum use of instructional time. Teachers and headteachers in this study practised,

experienced and conceptualised instructional supervision which comprised mainly "traditional" aspects. While the participants were mostly happy about these traditional practices, they also thought that all of the contemporary aspects of instructional supervision that were included on the questionnaire should be practised much more often than they currently experienced. Responses from both the open-ended items and interview showed that some of the GES support systems may negatively impact the conduct of instructional supervision in schools.

This thesis concludes by recommending that education authorities consult with teachers to revise the GES policy guide on instructional supervision to include more contemporary practices, and also plan a long term budgetary allocation to provide sustainable training programmes to teachers and supervision personnel to improve instruction, and ultimately outcomes for students, in Ghanaian primary schools.

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<center># Introduction</center>

Background to the Study

One widely held aim of education is to equip students with the knowledge, skills, attitudes and competencies that enable them to render useful services to themselves and to the society at large. Todaro (1992), for example, notes that the formal education system of a nation is the principal institutional mechanism used for developing human skills and knowledge. Education is, therefore, viewed as an indispensable catalyst that strongly influences the development and economic fortunes of a nation and the quality of life of its people.

In this context, nations, organizations and individuals spend huge sums on the provision and consumption of education for the citizenry. In many developing countries formal education is the largest industry and greatest consumer of public revenues (Todaro, 1992). In Ghana, for example, a great deal of human and financial resources is expended to support the public school system. As part of its expenditure, the government of Ghana invests significantly in designing and implementing policies, including the training of personnel, to supervise instruction in the schools.

The priority of all countries, especially the developing ones, is to improve the quality of schools and the achievement of students (De Grauwe, 2001) since learning outcomes depend largely on the quality of education being offered (Barro, 2006). Barro further notes that higher quality education fosters economic growth and development. But quality education partly depends on how well teachers are trained and supervised since they are one of the key inputs to education delivery (Lockheed & Verspoor, 1991). De Grauwe (2001) posits that national authorities rely strongly on the school supervision system to monitor both the quality of schools and key measures of its success, such as student achievement.

Many researchers believe that supervision of instruction has the potential to improve classroom practices, and contribute to student success through the professional growth and improvement of teachers (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Musaazi, 1985; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; and Sullivan & Glanz, 1999). Supervision is viewed as a co-operative venture in which supervisors and teachers engage in dialogue for the purpose of improving instruction which logically should contribute to student improved learning and success (Hoy & Forsyth, 1986; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Sullivan & Glanz, 1999;).

To achieve the objectives of supervision, supervisors of instruction generally advise, assist and support teachers (Hoy & Forsyth, 1986; The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP)/UNESCO Module 2, 2007; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002) and also inspect, control and evaluate teachers (IIEP/UNESCO Module 2, 2007). In a related way, Blasé and Blasé (1999) suggest that teachers do their best work when they are motivated. They note that effective instructional leadership impacts positively on teacher motivation, satisfaction, self-esteem, efficacy, teachers' sense of security and their feelings of support.

Improving the quality of education in Ghana, partly through the improvement of supervision, has been a priority of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports. The Government of Ghana introduced Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) in 1992 to make education accessible to all children of school age and to improve the quality of education delivery. FCUBE has three main components: improving the quality of teaching and learning; improving access and participation; and improving management efficiency (MOE, 1990; cited in Mankoe, 2006). The first and third components relate directly to the practice of supervision of instruction.

The Ministry of Education represents the sector in strategic (Government and Development Partners) dialogue, and has the overall responsibility for education sector policy formulation, planning, monitoring and evaluation. The Ghana Education Service (GES) is

responsible for service delivery including deployment of teachers, allocation of textbooks, and supervision of schools and teachers. The Education sector of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, in collaboration with the GES, has implemented a number of interventions to achieve the objectives of the components of the FCUBE. The Inspectorate Division at headquarters and Inspectorate Units at regional and district offices have been strengthened with the intention of providing effective supervision in schools. At the primary school level, for example, supervisory structures and practices have been put in place to improve instruction. The short-term goal of this initiative was to equip personnel involved in supervision in schools with the necessary competencies and skills to ensure effective delivery of education. In view of this, the government of Ghana occasionally provides in-service training courses and workshops at the national, regional and district levels to strengthen the management capacity of personnel in supervisory positions, and thereby to enhance their supervisory practices in the schools.

We do not know, however, the extent to which headteachers (school-site supervisors) in primary schools are implementing MOE/GES policies on supervision. We are not clear about teachers' and headteachers' understandings and perceptions about supervision of instruction in these schools. This study, therefore, addresses these issues.

Statement of the Problem

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

As mentioned earlier, the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in collaboration with the Ghana Education Service, has formulated policies to guide supervision of instruction in primary and secondary schools. GES has put supervisory structures in place and occasionally provides in-service training courses and workshops to personnel in supervisory positions (including headteachers) to provide supervision services in schools. Headteachers are, therefore, expected to provide effective supervision of instruction services, given the necessary resources and in-service training. Glickman, Gordon and Gordon (2004) also suggest that heads of institutions and any person entrusted with the responsibility to supervise instruction should possess certain knowledge and skills to plan, observe, assess and evaluate teaching and learning processes. With these interventions in place, it would seem reasonable and indeed necessary, to ask why questions remain about the effectiveness of supervision in public basic schools in Ghana (Oduro, 2008; Opare, 1999).

In his study of student achievement in public and private basic schools in Ghana, Opare (1999) found that pupils in the private schools out-performed their counterparts in the public schools in terms of achievement outcomes. Opare suggested that despite extensive internal and external supervision, public schools are not adequately supervised. But since Opare did not directly investigate supervision of instruction, we remain unable to judge the validity of this tentative explanation. That is, there remains insufficient empirical evidence to assess this claim.

A similar study carried out by the Institute of Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) at Cape Coast University in Ghana also attributed low quality basic education delivery to the poor performance of some headteachers (Oduro, 2008). The study, dubbed EdQual (Educational Quality Implementation through School Leadership and Management), aimed to help rectify poor leadership and teaching in basic schools in Ghana. This study, like that of Opare, did not directly investigate supervision of instruction in the basic schools and,

therefore, also lacked sufficient evidence about the quality of supervision in the schools.

Thus, many unanswered questions remain, such as: On what basis do commentators in the Ghanaian community judge the state of supervision of instruction in the schools? What does the policy on supervision of instruction require of school-site supervisors? What knowledge and skills do school-site supervisors require to be able to perform their duties effectively? Overall, what is the state of supervision of instruction in public primary schools in Ghana?

The nature and quality of instructional supervision within a school is presumed to have effects on the expertise, practice and job satisfaction of teachers and, by extension ultimately, on student outcomes such as achievement. But very little is known about supervision of instruction (school-site supervision) in Ghana. This study will contribute to the body of knowledge about the nature and practices of supervision of instruction in Ghanaian public primary schools; ultimately, through better understanding and improved practice, the study is seen as having the potential to improve Ghanaian students' schooling outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the understanding of supervision of instruction in Ghana from the perspectives of headteachers and teachers. Equally, it is to shed light on how instructional supervision is practised in selected schools. Teachers who are being supervised, and headteachers who are supervising, may have different views and expectations about supervisory programmes and practices. Based on its the findings, the study will be positioned to make recommendations about possible changes in supervisory practices.

Equally, the results of the study are intended to inform policy makers in Ghana and in similar less developed countries about the relationship between policy and practice in instructional supervision. This might in time contribute to the improvement of policy, planning and implementation of school supervision.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What does the Ghana Education Service (GES) policy on supervision of instruction in primary schools require of teacher supervisors (headteachers)?

2. How do participants conceptualise and experience supervision of instruction in primary schools?

3. Which aspects of instructional supervision do teachers and headteachers want to practise?

4. What are the differences, if any, between teachers and headteachers, in expectations and experiences of supervision of instruction?

5. What systemic challenges are likely to affect supervision of instruction in the schools?

Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are important in that they have the potential to:

1. Help those entrusted with policy formulation and implementation to gain better insight into the state of supervision of instruction in public primary schools in Ghana;

2. Identify future training and skills needed for school-based supervisors in primary schools;

3. Contribute to practical knowledge of the duties and responsibilities associated with supervision of instruction; and,

4. Contribute to the research literature about supervision of instruction for the educational systems of less developed nations, similar to Ghana.

Brief Context of School Supervision in Ghana

Ghana, a former British colony, is a small country located in West Africa. It shares boundaries with Togoland (Republic) to the east, La Cote d'Ivoire (Ivory Coast) to the west, Burkina Faso to the North and the Atlantic Ocean to the South. It lies at Latitude 5 degrees, 36 minutes north and Longitude 0 degrees, 10 minutes east on the world map. Ghana is about 238,540 square kilometres (92,000 square miles) in area, with a population of about 20

million people. About 55 percent of the population is involved in agriculture, mostly subsistence farming.

The education system in Ghana has experienced several changes both before and after independence from the British in 1957. The structure of the pre-tertiary education system after independence was six years primary school, four years middle school, five years secondary school and two years sixth form. The 1987 Education Reform changed the structure to six years primary, three years junior secondary and three years senior secondary school. In more recent reforms (2008), junior secondary and senior secondary schools have been renamed junior high and senior high schools respectively. Graduates from Junior High Schools can proceed to Senior Secondary Vocational and Technical Schools/Colleges. The latest reform has included pre-primary education as part of the basic compulsory education system (Ministry of Education (MOE), 2008). Students graduating from senior secondary school can enter a polytechnic, university, teacher training college, agriculture training institution, nursing college, etc. The main purpose of these changes has been to reduce the duration of pre-tertiary schooling and encourage technical and vocational education.

Supervision of instruction in Ghana has generally been the responsibility of school inspectors and personnel within the schools. External supervisors (those located outside the schools) include the Assistant Director of Education responsible for supervision (ADE Supervision) and circuit supervisors at the district offices, regional inspectors and headquarters inspectors in the Ghana Education Service. At the primary school level, inspectors (or circuit supervisors) from the district education offices inspect school facilities and provide assistance and support to teachers and headteachers, while inspectors at the regional offices and headquarters normally conduct inspection in senior high schools, technical and teacher training colleges. ADE Supervision coordinates and monitors circuit supervisors to supervise teaching and learning in public basic schools. Circuit supervisors,

however, do not directly supervise teaching and learning in private schools, but rather they inspect the facilities of these schools.

Internally, headteachers in primary schools and headmasters in junior high schools supervise instruction, while assistant headmasters or headmistresses and heads of department in senior high schools, and vice principals in technical and teacher training colleges (who are responsible for academic work) hold these responsibilities. It is worthy of note that heads of primary and junior high schools in Ghana perform administrative and managerial duties in addition to supervision of instruction. The Ghana Education Service mandates assistant headteachers and assistant headmasters/headmistresses in primary and junior high schools respectively to be at the helm of affairs while the heads are away on official duties or absent from school. At the district level other structures such as District Education Oversight Committees (DEOCs), School Management Committees, District Teacher Support Teams (DTSTs) and Parent-Teacher Associations (PTAs) have been established to contribute to school supervision. These bodies are to see to it that teachers attend school regularly and punctually, and make good use of instructional hours. Some teachers are in the habit of reporting to school late, "clocking off" earlier than the normal time and absenting themselves from school.

It is also worthy of note that the Ghana Education Service recognises the importance of external supervision as a complement to on-site school supervision. This is evident in a speech read on behalf of the Director General of Education of the Ghana Education service (GES) at Saltpond (Director General of Education, 2008). The Director General observed that quality education depends, among other things, on effective supervision and "that is the more reason why GES is encouraging and empowering School Management Committees (SMCs) and Parent Teacher Associations (PTAs), which are important agents of school supervision." This study concentrated only on supervision in public primary schools wherein headteachers

are the direct supervisors of instruction. However, other external supervisors were invited to provide information on the policy requirements and expectations of school heads.

Decision-making about Supervision of Instruction within the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service

The Ghana Education Service (GES) is the main agency of the Ministry of Education charged with the implementation of pre-tertiary (Basic and Secondary School Education, including Technical and Vocational Institutions) educational policies in accordance with the GES Act 506 of 1998 (Mankoe, 2006). The service is governed by the GES Council, which is responsible for formulating educational policies and programmes, including supervision of instruction. Educational policies are formulated by the council and sent to GES headquarters for implementation at the regional, district and school levels. Decision-making about education in Ghana is basically a top-down process. Education policies that directly affect teachers, such as those related to supervision of instruction, are formulated at the top and handed down to teachers and headteachers for implementation. When new policies about supervision arise and funds are available, regional and district supervision personnel are given in-service training at the national level for onward transmission to classroom teachers and headteachers for implementation. Circuit supervisors use the outcomes of training programmes and the headteachers' appraisal guides (including supervision of instruction) formulated at the top to assess the performance of headteachers. Headteachers are also responsible for the management of affairs at the school level, yet they are accountable to the district directorate.

Even though, as part of the 1997 Education Reforms, educational management has been decentralised to the district level, teachers (including headteachers) are not involved in making decisions which directly affect the conduct of their instructional practices. Decentralisation is mainly concerned about budgeting and the disbursement of funds

(financial management).

Decision-making and implementation in the GES are guided by bureaucratic processes, and are rarely seen to be influenced by political or cultural values. Politically, the regional and district directorates of education are accountable to the Regional Ministers and District Chief Executives respectively. However, the implementation of educational policy is supervised by regional and district directorates of education. Moreover, political figures are not likely to meddle with educational management and administration. Political figures do not appoint education officers and heads of educational institutions. The appointment to educational management positions is guided by bureaucratic procedures. In the GES, appointments of officers and heads of institutions are based on rank, years of service and performance during a selection interview.

Similarly, gender and ethnic issues do not affect decision-making in the GES. The selection of personnel to supervision positions is also based on merit, and not the tribe or gender or social standing of the individual. Prospective officers are not required to indicate either their religious affiliation or tribal group. My belief is that teachers would like to work under the supervision of a head who is qualified in his or her capacity. Gender is also not an issue in the GES in terms of decision-making. Males and females alike take instructions from a female officer or head of institution. There are several women in management positions in the GES including the current head of supervision (Chief Inspector).

In sum, decisions about education are taken at the highest level and handed down to teachers and heads for implementation. Teachers have little input about matters affecting instructional practices. Teachers in Ghana may have concerns about the guidelines and conduct of supervision; supervisors' political and religious affiliation, ethnic background or gender may not be relevant to them. These issues are not likely to affect teachers' beliefs, values and perspectives about supervision of instruction.

Positionality of the Researcher

I am a professional teacher from Ghana. I hold the Teacher's Certificate 'A' Post-Middle, a Diploma in Education, a Bachelor of Education in Psychology from the University of Cape Coast, Ghana and a Master of Philosophy in Educational Planning from the University of Cape Coast, Ghana.

I have served in three different positions in the Ghana Education Service- as a classroom teacher, a subject teacher in Mathematics and as an officer. I have taught in a middle school for three years (1982 to 1985), in three different secondary schools (1988 to 1996; 1998 to 2001; 2003 to 2004), and as a school inspector at the Ashanti Regional Education Office (2004 to 2008).

Throughout my teaching experience, I have not had formal teaching experience in a primary school, except for six weeks teaching practice while at college. More so, regional inspectors do not carry out inspection in primary schools but occasionally visit the schools to monitor Basic Education Certificate Examinations and how school Capitation Grants are expended. I am, however, conversant with the whole education system in Ghana. My experience in/ knowledge of the education system and the context within which we teach offered me the opportunity to understand the viewpoints of the study participants as an insider (an "emic" perspective... An emic account is a description of behaviour or a belief in terms of meaningful (consciously or unconsciously) to the actor; that is, an emic account comes from a person within the culture). When I introduced myself to the teachers and headteachers as a colleague teacher, they felt at home and willingly and freely responded to the questionnaires and interviews without any apparent fear of reprisals. My knowledge and understanding of the education system, the Ghanaian school culture as well as the participants' awareness of my status as a colleague teacher have contributed to the quality of the study's findings.

Conclusion

The chapter began with the background to the study by briefly spelling out the importance of education to national development, and the importance nations attach to education delivery. The chapter also mentioned the part teachers play in providing quality education, and thus the need to improve their instructional practices through supervision. The chapter continued with the purpose of the study, research questions, and the significance of the study. It also captured a brief context of school supervision in Ghana, the positionality of the researcher and concluded with a definition of terms. The chapter also briefly discussed decision-making processes within the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service that affect supervision of instruction. The following chapter will present the literature review under the following sub-headings: personnel responsible for supervision; concepts of supervision; effective supervision; historical models of supervision; supervisor characteristics and supervision practices; and, challenges to supervision.

Definition of Terms

Basic school: In Ghana the basic school is a combination of six years of primary school and three years junior high school, usually under one headship. There is a direct transition (within a particular school) from primary school to junior high school.

Education circuit: A number of basic schools (between ten and twenty) within a geographical district allocated to an officer for the purpose of supervision.

Circuit supervisor: An officer assigned to supervise teaching and learning in an educational circuit.

External supervisors: Circuit supervisors located at the district level and inspectors located at the regional and central levels who pay visits to schools to promote effective teaching and learning.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

Overview

Improving supervision of instruction in school is of great concern to educational authorities worldwide. In Ghana the Ministry of Education Youth and Sports and the Ghana Education Service have been making concerted efforts to ensure that teachers, who are key inputs to education delivery (Vaizey, 1972; and Windham, 1988), are optimally utilized. The literature will touch on the concepts, models, and best practices of supervision as viewed by researchers and writers. It will also review studies of teachers' and headteachers' perceptions of effective supervision and challenges.

The following sub-headings will be discussed under the literature review:

1. Personnel responsible for Supervision;

2. Concepts of Supervision;

3. Effective Supervision;

4. Historical Models of Supervision;

5. Supervisor Characteristics and Supervisory Practices; and,

6. Challenges to Supervision.

Personnel Responsible for School Supervision

In many countries officers responsible for inspection and supervision are classified as external and internal (school-site). Officers operating from outside the school are termed external supervisors or school inspectors. In Ghana, and other African countries, external supervisors function on least at three of the four levels: central, regional, district and local/school level (De Grauwe, 2001). Apart from Zanzibar where supervision and support tasks are not devolved to the school level or community but mainly remain fully controlled by the Ministry of Education at the central level, in all other countries school-site supervisors

exist (De Grauwe, 2001). The head of school, his/her assistant and other teachers are responsible for improving classroom instruction.

Typically, supervisors of instruction include heads of institutions and their assistants, heads of department, master teachers, subject coaches, lead teachers, programme directors, associate and assistant superintendents. Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2004) note that what is crucial is not the person's title or designation, but rather his/her responsibility. In Ghana, headteachers of primary schools (or 'principals' in other African countries) and headmasters in junior high schools are responsible for school-site supervision. But at a higher level, heads of schools take up administrative tasks, whereas their deputies and heads of department supervise instruction. Assistant headmasters/headmistresses (academic) in senior high schools, vice principals (academic) in polytechnics, teacher training colleges and technical/vocational institutions, and heads of department in these institutions in Ghana supervise instruction.

Different titles are used in different countries for personnel responsible for direct supervision of instruction at the school level. In other countries, supervision of instruction is the responsibility of the school administrator (a title usually used for a head of a school district in New York City public schools), although literacy and math coaches are often called upon to facilitate the observation and supervision process (Glanz, Shulman, & Sullivan, 2007). Other teachers complement supervisory activities in their respective schools; lead teachers in Ghana, senior subject teachers in Namibia and Botswana, teachers-in-charge in Zimbabwe (De Grauwe, 2001), and coaches in New York (Glanz, et al., 2007). But in Ghana, unlike the other personnel mentioned above, the position of a lead teacher is temporary. When the intervention they lead is completed, their supervisory roles come to an end.

It could be observed that headteachers, assistant headmasters (academic), vice principals (academic) in Ghana and administrators in other countries are always at the forefront of

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school-site supervision, whereas the other personnel mentioned above support supervisory activities. In the New York City primary schools, coaches are often directed by administrators to visit classrooms to work with teachers to model lessons (Glanz, et al., 2007). They report that coaches are requested by teachers to share best practices with them. Glanz and colleagues indicate that the coaches act as follow-up to an administrator's observation of a teacher or an assistant teacher in preparation for an observation. According to them, both administrators and coaches view the coach as an instructional mentor, but not an "instructional leader". Coaches were seen as collaborators, responsible for helping teachers to implement initiatives. In the Ghanaian context, lead teachers play similar roles. Whenever there is an intervention in literacy and/or maths, some teachers on the staff are selected to attend workshops and, on their return, lead other members of staff to implement the intervention/initiative. After the intervention, their roles as mentors cease to exist. They complement the supervisory roles of the school supervisor, but are not supervisors *per se* because their roles are short-lived.

Researchers also suggest some differences between a coach and a supervisor of instruction (Glanz, et al, 2007; Hawk & Hill, 2003). Glanz and colleagues (2007) indicate that coaches are only trained in subject specific initiatives which they are supposed to coach. This presupposes that principals in the US are given special training, although coaches are not. In Ghana headteachers are occasionally given in-service training in general management issues, including supervision of instruction. Coaches, unlike school heads and other supervisors, do not have any formal training in classroom observation and supervision. Glanz, et al. (2007) and Hawk and Hill (2003) argue that the coaches receive training in specific subject areas, but not generic coaching skills. But supervisors are expected to advise and provide support to all teachers. Similarly, the main beneficiaries of coaching programmes in New Zealand are teachers who are new to a school, and those whose performance needs improvement (Hawk & Hill, 2003).

The positions of senior staff, guardian teachers and teachers-in-charge are quite different from those of coaches and lead teachers. In other African countries these personnel are more or less permanent supervisors (De Grauwe, 2001). According to De Grauwe, the current education policy in Botswana empowers school heads and senior staff to function as instructional leaders. These teachers provide in-service training to teachers within their schools and, therefore, are recognized as school supervisors. The only title which has functions similar to coaches is guardian teachers in Namibia. Guardian teachers in Namibia also provide direct assistance to newly appointed teachers like coaches, but they do not provide assistance and support to all categories of teachers.

Researchers have suggested that quality improvement can come from the schools themselves such as through school-site supervisors (UNESCO, 2007). "There is a growing conviction that empowerment of school-site supervision actors (headteachers and other teachers discussed above) can make schools responsive to their environment and the needs of their students" (UNESCO Module 6, 2007, p. 4). The document noted that school-based monitoring and supervision is seen as a guarantee for not only better quality, but also for greater relevance to the needs of students. According to UNESCO several attempts to bring supervision closer to the school have taken different forms: further decentralization of the service; the establishment of school clusters and resource centres; and the creation of a special category of master teachers. The report argues that the distance between external supervision and the school or the classroom is too wide for supervisors to have long-lasting impact on teaching and learning. The UNESCO report (2007) notes that too many programmes for quality improvement have been imposed from above and have failed, and that Ministries have come to realise that quality improvement cannot be imposed from outside. The report notes that in the end, it is the teacher and the principal (headteacher), who have to facilitate improvement. It suggests that schools themselves should be encouraged and empowered to

monitor and improve the quality of the services they deliver. The statement posits that without the commitment of teachers and headteachers "very little happens", and this commitment comes from internal conviction.

In this section I have tried to differentiate heads of institutions and their assistants who are at the forefront of supervision of instruction from other specialised teachers with different designations in various countries who also provide some form of support to teachers with the sole aim of improving teaching and learning. In this study I am going to look at headteachers as supervisors of instruction at the primary school level.

Concepts of Supervision

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

Researchers have assigned several definitions and interpretations to supervision, but almost all of them centre on a common aim or objective. The main objective of supervision is to improve teachers' instructional practices, which may in turn improve student learning. Researchers have offered several purposes of supervision of instruction, but the ultimate goal is to improve instruction and student learning. Beach and Reinhartz (1989) think the focus on instructional supervision is to provide teachers with information about their teaching so as to develop instructional skills to improve performance. Also in Bolin and Panaritis' view (as cited in Bays, 2001), supervision is primarily concerned with improving classroom practices for the benefit of students regardless of what may be entailed (e.g., curriculum development or staff development) (Bays, 2001). Further, McQuarrie and Wood (1991) also state that "the primary purpose of supervision is to help and support teachers as they adapt and adopt, and refine the instructional practices they are trying to implement in their classrooms" (p. 49).

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

Supervision was initially described as inspection, which has the connotation of direct control of teachers by school inspectors. The term supervision has gradually taken over inspection, but both terms are sometimes used together. But Musaazi (1982) posits that school supervision which began as inspection has been replaced by that of supervision. The concept and practice of supervision of instruction has evolved over the years (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004; Hoy & Forsyth, 1986; Musaazi, 1982; Neagley & Evans, 1980; Oliva & Pawlas, 1997). Early supervisors in the 19th century set strict requirements for their teachers and visited classrooms to observe how closely the teachers complied with stipulated instructions; departure from these instructions was cause for dismissal (Oliva & Pawlas, 1997). Oliva and Pawlas bemoan that some school supervisors or inspectors, as they are called in other countries, continue to fulfil their tasks with an authoritarian approach. They note, however, that superintendents (supervisors) have changed their focus from looking for deficiencies that would merit dismissal of teachers to helping teachers overcome their difficulties.

Some researchers suggest that supervision was historically viewed as an instrument for controlling teachers. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004) refer to the dictionary definition as to "watch over", "direct", "oversee", and "superintend". They believe that because the historic role of supervision has been inspection and control, it is not surprising most teachers do not equate supervision with collegiality. Hoy and Forsyth (1986), for their part, noted that supervision has its roots in the industrial literature of bureaucracy, and the main purpose was to increase production. To them, the industrial notion of supervision was overseeing, directing and controlling workers, and was, therefore, managements' tool to manipulate subordinates. This negative consequence of external control of teachers' work lives has resulted in the flight of both new and old teachers from education of both new and experienced educators (Ingersol, 2003).

Some researchers such as Bolin and Panaritis (1992), Glanz (1996), and Harris (1998) (as cited in Bays, 2001) argue that defining supervision has been a recurrent and controversial issue in the field of education. Harris for instance observes that current thoughts in the definition of supervision of instruction do not represent full consensus, but has listed some common themes across different definitions. These include supporting teaching and learning; responding to changing external realities; providing assistance and feedback to teachers; recognising teaching as the primary vehicle for facilitating school learning; and promoting new, improved and innovative practices. Harris, however, noted that questions of roles, relationships, positions, and even skills and functions remain without full consensus.

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

can help them to improve.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Hoy and Forsyth (1986) conclude that the goal of the supervisor is not to solve an immediate problem, but rather to study the process of teaching and learning as part of ongoing system of evaluation and experimentation.

Supervision of instruction is also defined as a consciously planned programme for the

improvement and consolidation of instruction. Musaazi (1982) posits that supervision focuses upon the improvement of instruction, and is concerned with the continuous redefinition of goals, the wider realisation of human dynamic for learning and for co-operative efforts and the nurturing of a creative approach to problems to teaching and learning. Musaazi emphasises that school supervision does not simply refer to that specific occasion when the whole school is examined and evaluated as a place of learning, but it is also means that constant and continuous process of guidance based on frequent visits which focus attention on one or more aspects of the school and its organization. He notes that achieving the purpose of supervision depends on the skills and efficiency of the supervisor in working with teachers.

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

> Modern supervision is considered as any service for teachers that eventually result in improving instruction, learning, and the curriculum. It consists of positive, dynamic, democratic actions designed to improve instruction through the continued growth of all concerned individuals- the child, the teacher, the supervisor, the administrator, and the parent or other lay person (p. 20).

Supervision is viewed by other researchers as a combination of administrative procedures and supervision of instruction. The International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP), a division of UNESCO, observe that supervision practices can be classified under two distinct, but complementary, tasks: to control and evaluate, on one hand, and to advise and support teachers and headteachers (IIEP/UNESCO, 2007, Module 2). The statement explains that "although the ultimate objective of in-school supervision is to improve the teaching/learning processes in the classroom, in practice it must cover the whole range of activities taking place in the school: from the most administrative ones (e.g. ensuring that

records are properly completed) to purely pedagogical ones" (IIEP/UNESCO Module 6, 2007). Oghuvbu (2001) claims supervision of instruction involves the process of checking the positive implementation of curriculum and assisting those implementing it. He conceives inspection and supervision differently, but complementary actions aimed at achieving organisational goals. To him, inspection deals with fact finding, and supervision is the assistance aspect concerned with the establishment of a positive superior and subordinate relationship, with special emphasis on specialisation directed towards utilization of available human and material resources in achieving organisational goals.

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

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

and Ross-Gordon (1998) also define supervision as the school function that improves instruction through direct assistance to teachers, group development, professional development, curriculum development and action research. Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (1997) posit that the long-term goal of developmental supervision is teacher development towards a point at which teachers, facilitated by supervisors, can assume full responsibility for instructional development. The definition provided by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) is similar to that of Glickman et al. above, but the latter emphasise respect, caring and support for teachers. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) note that supervisors and teachers working together can make the learning environment more user friendly, caring and respect for students, and supportive of a community of leaders. They argue that this remains a primary intellectual and moral challenge of supervisory leadership.

Some researchers have also defined supervision of instruction as a process which utilises a wide array of strategies, methodologies, and approaches aimed at improving instruction and promoting educational leadership as well as change (Glanz & Behar-Horenstein, 2000). These researchers note that the process of supervision and evaluation of instruction at the school level depends primarily on whether the principal functions as an instructional leader. Neagley and Evans (1980) propose some of the principal's functions as an instructional leader. They believe that "a successful instructional leader helps teachers to discover problems related to instruction and learning, assist them in finding procedures to solve these problems, and provides time and resources for creative solutions" (p. 51).

The contemporary concepts of supervision suggest that school supervision is moving gradually from the negative notion of "watching over", "directing", and checking teachers to an arena of supportive, democratic and flexible activity. Such definitions encompass curriculum planning and development, staff development, group discussion on instructional programme and action research. The definitions of supervision of instruction suggest that

those who are being assisted (teachers) be also directly involved in the supervision process. Contemporary definitions also suggest that supervision requires commitment, trust, and respect on the part of both supervisors and teachers, and caring and support for teachers.

Effective Supervision

Researchers conceptualise effective supervision not as an end result or product, but rather as the collection of knowledge and skills that supervisors possess. Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004) posit that effective supervision requires well trained personnel with knowledge, interpersonal skills, and technical skills who are prepared to provide the necessary and appropriate guidance and support to the teaching staff. According to Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004), these personal attributes are applied through the supervisory roles of direct assistance to teachers, group development, professional development, curriculum development and action research. They believe that "this adhesive pulls together organizational goals and teacher needs and provides for improved learning" (p. 9).

To facilitate effective supervisory processes Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004) propose that supervisors should perform the following roles: providing personal development by providing on-going contact with the individual teacher to observe and assist him/her in classroom instruction; ensuring professional development by providing the learning opportunities for faculty provided or supported by the school and school system; and providing group development through the gathering together of teachers to make decisions on mutual instructional concern. Similarly, supervisors should support curriculum development through the revision and modification of content, plans and materials of classroom instruction. They also posit that supervisors should engage teachers in action research by systematically studying faculty to find out what is happening in the classroom and school with the aim of improving student learning. Neagley and Evans (1980) also conceive that effective supervision requires a high level of leadership. They propose that the successful supervisor

should be intelligent, well trained in educational psychology, likable, experienced, and an expert in democratic group processes.

Other researchers also share similar views as those upheld by Glickman and colleagues. For example, Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2006) believe that an effective principal possesses the following characteristics: is situationally aware of details and undercuts in the school; has intellectual stimulation of current theories and practices; is a change agent; and, actively involves teachers in design and implementation of important decisions and policies. They also believe that effective principals provide effective supervision. To them, an effective principal creates a culture of shared belief and sense of cooperation, monitors and evaluates the effectiveness of school practices, is resourceful and communicates and operates from strong ideas and beliefs about schooling. Blasé and Blasé (1999) propose a model of effective principal derived from data (findings) which consists of two major themes: talking with teachers to promote reflection and promoting professional growth. According to them, effective principals value dialogue that encouraged teachers to critically reflect on their learning and professional practice through the following strategies: making suggestions, giving feedback, modelling, using inquiry and soliciting advice and opinions, and giving praise. They also argue that effective principals use six strategies to promote teachers' professional growth: emphasizing the study of teaching and learning; supporting collaboration efforts among educators; developing coaching relationships among educators; encouraging and supporting redesign of programmes; applying the principles of adult learning, growth, and development to all phases of staff development; and implementing action research to inform instructional decision making.

Other researchers also believe that successful supervisors are those who link interpersonal skills with technical skills. Brennen (2008) notes an effective supervisor who links interpersonal with technical skills will be successful in improving instruction. He

suggests that an effective supervisor should be able to build self-acceptance, moral, trust, and rapport between the two parties. Brennen suggests that the supervisor in an effective supervision process should not delve deeply into the role of a counsellor. The focus is always on the teaching act, rather than matters affecting the teacher that are beyond the confines of the classroom. Objectivity, devoid of personal biases, should be the hallmark if supervision is to be effective, he asserts. It is for this reason that Brennen (2008) posits that effective supervision results when a supervisor clearly sets out the criteria to be used in the evaluative process and ensures that even if the final assessment is a negative one, the teacher will benefit from the exercise and leave with his self-esteem intact.

Although clearly in the minority, Oghuvbu (2001) believe that effective supervision involves adherence to bureaucratic processes to control and guide teachers. He identifies common determinants of effective supervision as: teachers and students working rigidly according to school time table, following school regulations, neat and decent environment, proper student management and disciplined students. In addition there should be delegation of duties by school heads, and positive, cordial, social and professional relationship among teachers. He suggests that there should exist well-prepared current records and research findings in the school which the supervisor can use to guide teachers' classroom practices. Reference made to the adherence of strict time table and school regulations by this researcher as determinants of effective supervision should be compromised. The reason for his stance may stem from his personal philosophy and/or the context within which the study was conducted. Bureaucratic procedures in supervision may be characteristic of some African and other developing countries. The definition presented by IIEP/UNESCO (2007) testifies to this belief, since most of their studies have been conducted in this context.

As shown in this section, all researchers share the belief that supervision is effective if the supervisor possesses and exhibits qualities and characteristics related to knowledge,

interpersonal and technical skills. They are silent, however, on the direct causal effect of such qualities on student performance.

Historical Models of Supervision

In this section I review the various models of supervision which appear in the literature. Supervision takes on several forms. According to Zepeda (2003), the form may be formal or informal, clinical or some of the modifications of the original clinical supervisory model (action research, differentiated or developmental).

Models of supervision refer to eras or periods of time in which supervision was influenced by social, political and economic movements in society and education, as described by Bolin and Panaritis (1992); and Glanz (1996) (cited in Bays, 2001). They traced the history, which they term models, from the 19th century to the present day. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) observe that supervisory practice has evolved since its origin in colonial time, and its effectiveness as a means of improving instruction depends on the ability of educational leaders to remain responsive to the needs of teachers and students. It is because of this assertion that in most cases advocates and practitioners build upon and/or modify existing strategies with the intention of improving practices.

Bays (2001) presents different models of the evolution of supervision yet, most of them are consistent with seven stages: 1. Inspection; 2. Efficiency; 3. Democracy; 4. Scientific; 5. Human relations; 6. Second wave scientific; and 7. Human development (Bays, 2001). Daresh (2006) identifies four models (which he termed perspectives) as Inspection, Scientific activity, Human relations activity, and Human resource development. All of Daresh's models are subsumed under the seven listed above. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) also present seven models with accompanying periods of time within which the models were practised. The models are: 1. Inspection (Pre-1900); 2. Social efficiency (1900-1919); 3. Democracy (1920s); 4. Scientific (1930-1950s); 5. Leadership (1960s); 6. Clinical (1970-1980s); and 7. Changing

concepts (1990s). The literature also identifies other contemporary models as developmental (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon; 1998), collegial (Glatthorn, 1990; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000), differentiated supervision (Glatthorn, 1990), and self-directed (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993), which have their roots in clinical supervision.

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

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

The consequence of this model is that the supervisor has the responsibility of intervening directly in the work of teachers to correct faulty performance. Sullivan and Glanz

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

Supervision as social efficiency. Supervision as social efficiency was espoused at the beginning of the twentieth century. This model of supervision was greatly influenced by the technological advancement of the time. Glanz (1998) has noted that supervision at that time was influenced by the scientific principles of business management and industry, and was aimed at making teaching more efficient. Bobbitt (1913, cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) tried to apply the ideas espoused by Taylor to the problems of educational management and supervision (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). According to Sullivan and colleague, what Bobbitt called 'scientific and professional supervisory methods' were, in fact, scientific and bureaucratic methods of supervision which were aimed at finding a legitimate and secure niche for control-oriented supervision within the school bureaucracy, but not to provide professional assistance and guidance to teachers. Bobbitt also maintains that supervision is an essential function to coordinate school affairs. Bobbitt is quoted as maintaining that "supervisory members must co-ordinate the labours of all, ... find the best methods of work, and enforce the use of these methods on the part of the workers" (cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p. 13). Bobbitt's assertion suggests that this model of supervision is similar to supervision by inspection.

The only difference between the social efficiency model and inspection is the attempt to introduce impersonal methods in the process of supervision. Sullivan & Glanz note that supervisors believed, as did Bobbitt himself, that "the way to eliminate the personal element from administration and supervision is to introduce impersonal methods of scientific

administration and supervision" (p. 14). And this brought about the development of rating schemes, and supervision became synonymous with teacher rating. Supervisors who use this model of supervision rely heavily on teacher rating and evaluation. These supervisors, as well as the proponents, hold the view that rating schemes are objective and purposeful.

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

This model of supervision advocated respect for teachers and co-operation in supervisory processes. Sullivan and colleague posit that the tenets of democratic supervision assumed that educators, including teachers, curriculum specialists, and supervisors would co-operate to improve instruction. Newlon (cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p. 15) maintains that school organisation must be set up to "invite the participation of the teacher in the development courses...." This model recognises the teacher as a fellow worker rather than a mere "cog" in a big machine (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). The idea behind this model is that supervisors and teachers decide together what and how to teach. This was an initial attempt to introduce collaboration in supervision which involved supervisor and teacher, but not

collaboration among teachers.

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

Like other models discussed, proponents of the scientific model of supervision suggest that supervisors should have some level of expertise and skill to direct teachers the way they should teach. Barr (1931, quoted in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) states in precise terms what the supervisor needs to know:

> Supervisors must have the ability to analyse teaching situations and to locate the probable causes for poor work with a certain degree of expertness; they must have the ability to use an array of data-gathering device peculiar to the field of supervision itself; they must possess certain constructive skills for the development of new means, methods, and materials of instruction; they must know how teachers learn to teach; they must have the ability to teach teachers how to teach; and they must be able to evaluate. In short, they must possess training in both the science of instructing pupils and the science of instructing teachers. Both are included in the science of supervision (pp. x, xi).

Scientific supervision is based on the premise that measurement instruments should be used to determine the quality of instruction. Barr (1925, cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) argued that the methods of science should be applied to the study and practice of supervision, and as such the results of supervision must be measured. He was of the view that the probable causes of poor work could be explored through the use of tests, rating scales and observational instruments. The use of observational instruments as a means of improving supervision was reinforced by the use of "stenographic reports" which were devised by

Romiett Stevens. He thought the best way to improve instruction was to record verbatim accounts of actual lessons "without criticism or comment". Hoetker and Ahlbrand (1969, cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p. 17) noted that Stevens's stenographic accounts were "the first major systematic study of classroom behaviour".

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

Supervision as leadership. The fifth phase of supervision, which emerged in the 1960s, is supervision as leadership. Robert R. Leeper (cited in Sullivan & Glanz, 2000) compiled articles about this model from several advocates and authors and published them in the journal *Educational Leadership*. Leeper (1969, cited in Sullivan and Glanz (2000)) argued that supervision as inspection which found justification in the production-oriented, social efficiency era and bureaucratic supervision was no longer viable. The basis of supervision as leadership model was to remove itself from supervisory practices of the past.

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

Clinical supervision. The Clinical supervision model emerged in the 1970s and

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

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

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

working collaboratively with teachers is to provide expert direct assistance to them (teachers) with the view of improving instruction.

Advocates of clinical supervision also believe that the focus of the model is on collection of descriptive data from detailed observation of the teaching process to guide practice. The data includes what teachers and students do in the classroom during teaching learning process. These are supplemented by information about teachers' and students' perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and knowledge relevant to the instruction (Cogan, 1973). Cogan believes that for supervision to be effective, both the supervisor and teacher involved should collaboratively use the data collected in the classroom to plan programmes, procedures and strategies to improve the teacher's classroom behaviour, including instructional techniques.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Other researchers have reduced the original eight phases to between three and five (Acheson & Gall, 1980; and Glickman, 1990). Acheson and Gall describe the three phases as: planning a conference (pre-observation conference); the actual observation; and feedback conference. Glickman (1990) also describes five phases as: pre-conference; class observation; analysis and interpretation; post-observation conference; and critique of four phases.

Glickman's (1990, p. 280-285) five phases are: 1) Pre-conference with teacher; the supervisor meets with teachers and presents to her/him the reason and purpose for the observation, the focus, method and form to be used, time of observation and time for post-conference; 2) observation of class; observation methods may include categorical frequencies, physical indicators, performance indicators, visual diagramming, space utilization open-ended narratives, participant observation, focused questionnaire etc. (in this phase, the supervisor only has to describe the events as they unfold, but not to interpret them); 3) analyzing and interpreting observation and determining conference approach; the supervisor leaves the

classroom and carry out the analysis and interpretation alone; 4) post-observation conference with teacher; both the supervisor and the teacher discuss the analyses of observation and finally produce a plan for instructional improvement; and, 5) critique of the previous four steps; both supervisor and teacher review format and procedures from conference to ascertain whether they were satisfactory and whether there was the need for revision, and put a plan in place to begin the cycle.

Miller and Miller (1987) argue that clinical supervision has advantages over the previous models. They note that clinical supervision allows for objective feedback, which if given in a timely manner, will lead to improved results. Clinical supervision also diagnoses instructional problems and provides valuable information to solve such problems. In the end, improvements in instruction are heightened as teachers are able to develop new skills and strategies. Data on students may include feedback from class work and test results, which could also be useful to improve instruction. A wide range of data collection instruments employed in this model would provide supervisors with individual teachers' peculiar problems than pre-determined rating scales and evaluation procedures inherent in the "scientific supervision".

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

In reviewing developmental supervision, Worthington (1987, cited in Leddick, 1994) notes some patterns of behaviour change in the supervisory activity. He observes that supervisors' behaviour change as supervisees gain experience and supervisory relationships

also change. Stoltenberg and Delworth (1987, cited in Leddick, 1994) indicate that supervisees' progress in experience from a beginning stage, through intermediate to advanced levels of development (p. 35). They observe that at each level of development, the trend begins in a rigid, shallow, imitative way and moves towards more competence, self-assurance and self-reliance.

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

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

The rationale for differentiated supervision is that teachers are different (Sergiovanni, 2009). Sergiovanni points out that formal clinical supervision may be suitable for some teachers, but not all. According to him teacher needs and dispositions as well as work and

learning styles vary. Individual teachers respond to different approaches to supervision taking into consideration their needs and competencies, rather than a one-best-way approach. Glatthorn (1990) also believes differentiated supervision allows teachers to choose from a menu of supervisory and evaluative processes, instead of using the same strategy to supervise all teachers. In view of this, Sergiovanni (2009) suggests that teachers should take an active part in deciding which options for supervision will work well for them and accept responsibility for making options work.

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

Collegial supervision. Some researchers in the field of supervision also propose collegial supervision- another offspring of clinical supervision (Glatthorn, 1990; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993; Sergiovanni, 2009; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) believe that promoting collegiality among teachers is an important way to help schools change for the better.

Collegial supervision, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), refers to "the existence of high levels of collaboration among teachers and between teachers and principals and is characterized by mutual respect, shared work values, cooperation, and specific conversations about teaching and learning" (p. 103). Glatthorn (1990) describes collegial supervision as a "cooperative professional development process which fosters teacher growth through systematic collaboration with peers" (p. 188). He asserts that this process includes a

variety of approaches such as professional dialogue, curriculum development, peer observations and feedback, and action research. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993), citing Little's (1982) work note that in collegial supervision, teachers engage in frequent, continuous, and increasingly concrete talk about teaching practice, frequently observe one another and provide useful critiques of their teaching practice. Collegial supervision also affords teachers the opportunity to plan, design, research, evaluate and prepare teaching materials together. In summarizing the research on collegiality, Fullan (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993), believes interaction with others influences what one does and results in learning something new. He argues that the theory of change points to the importance of peer relationships in a school, and that interaction is the primary basis for social learning.

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

Approaches to Supervision

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

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

Supervisors' use of a particular approach may differ from one teacher to another. Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) argue supervisors consider the teacher's level of experience in instructional practices and developmental level when selecting a supervision approach. It is also likely that the contexts within which a supervisor works influences his/her approach. State and national policies may also spell out procedures and approaches to be used by supervisors in their schools.

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

The directive supervisory approach takes two forms: directive control and directive informational. In both situations, the supervisor and teacher go through the clinical supervisory stages up to the post-conference phase where action plans for improvement are to be taken (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980). Glickman and Tamashiro (1980) and Glickman (2002) indicate that in the directive control supervisory approach, the supervisor details what the teacher is to do, and spells out the criteria for improvement. But in the directive

informational approach, the supervisor provides alternative suggestions from which the teacher can choose, instead of telling the teacher what actions to take. The supervisor does not directly determine what action a teacher should embark upon. However, the ideas come from the supervisor.

The directive approach in clinical supervision is a reminiscent of the traditional form of supervision. It presumes that the supervisor is more knowledgeable about instructional procedures and strategies than the teacher, and that his/her decisions are more effective that those of teachers in terms of instructional improvement. However, in the directive approach to supervision the supervisor employs the clinical techniques discussed above, especially a vast array of data collecting instruments. In the traditional model of supervision, all teachers are thought to be at the same level at the same time, and are expected to use the same approach to teaching similar contents. The directive approach to clinical supervision does not emphasise fault-finding as practised by inspectors in traditional supervision.

Researchers suggest the directive approach to supervision should be employed when dealing with new and inexperienced teachers (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 1990). They believe that this approach should be used in an emergency situation in which the teacher is totally inexperienced, or incompetent in the current classroom situation. Similarly, Glickman (1990) believes this approach is useful when the teacher does not have awareness, knowledge, or inclination to act on issues that the supervisor thinks to be of crucial importance to the students. According to Glickman (1990), this approach is employed "to save the students by keeping the teacher from drowning in the sea of ineffective practice" (p. 83). Pajak (2001) also suggests the directive approach should be used on new and inexperienced teachers. He argues a new teacher may have difficulty grappling with a problem presented in a straightforward manner. He, however, cautions that being overly directive can easily encourage dependency in the new teacher toward the supervisor.

I believe that if even the teacher has little knowledge or expertise about an issue the supervisor should try as much as possible to avoid the directive control approach. Teachers will feel more secure and respected when their views are sought on issues that concern them.

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

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

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

Listening: the supervisor listens to teachers' perceptions;

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

Negotiating: the supervisor and teacher discuss the options and alter proposed actions until a joint plan is agreed upon.

The assumption underlying this approach is that both supervisors and teachers perceive each other as valuable partners in the supervisory process. There is, therefore, a sense of trust and respect between the two parties. The supervisee in this approach is likely to not feel threatened in pursuit of his/her instructional practices, and will probably welcome the observation processes.

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

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

The leader who adopts the non-directive approach may not use the five steps of the standard format of clinical supervision. Glickman indicates that the supervisor may simply observe the teacher without analysing and interpreting, listen without making suggestions, or provide requested materials and resources rather than arrange in-service training. A non-

directive approach to supervision is often employed when dealing with experienced teachers (Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980; Glickman, 2002). Glickman (2002) suggests that the non-directive approach to supervision should be employed when a teacher or group of teachers possess most of the knowledge and expertise about an issue and the supervisor's knowledge and expertise is minimal. Glickman and Tamashiro also suggest that a non-directive approach should be employed when a teacher or a group of teachers has full responsibility for carrying out a decision, or care about solving a problem and the supervisor has little involvement.

When a supervisor has little knowledge and expertise about an issue, he/she can still employ the collaborative approach. On such occasions, the supervisor should not lead the discussion, but rather solicit opinions, ask for clarification, reflect on issues being discussed, and present his/her opinions and suggestions.

Supervisor Characteristics and Supervisory Practices

In this section I review supervisor characteristics and practices from theories and empirical studies. Theorists and empirical studies have described how supervisor characteristics and practices have the potential to improve instruction. The characteristics include personal attributes that supervisors possess and exhibit in the course of their work, as well as their knowledge of content, expertise and skills, behaviour, and attitudes towards teachers. The practices may include activities they go through and the techniques they employ while performing their roles as instructional supervisors.

Blasé and Blasé (2004) note that there is a paucity of research that describes how instructional supervision is actually practised in schools, as well as how teachers are actually affected by such supervision. Blasé and Blasé (2004) cite other researchers to support their claim that what actually exist are exploratory studies of supervisory conferencing (Dungan, 1993; Roberts, 1991a); micro politics of supervisor-teacher interaction in public schools (Blasé & Blasé, 2004); and, related studies of precepting in medical schools (Blasé &

Hekelman, 1996; Hekelman & Blasé, 1996).

Many studies have referred to Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study of "teachers' perspectives on how principals promote teaching and learning in schools". The data were provided by teachers who were taking a course at three major universities located in the south-eastern, mid-western and north-eastern USA. The teachers provided a range of supervisor characteristics and practices which has served as an inventory to Blasé and Blasé. They grouped the characteristics into two: those which promoted effective supervision, and those which were found to be ineffective. The respondents in their study used terms like 'successful' and 'effective' to describe situations which they deemed appropriate to improvement of instruction.

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

Similarly, Holland (2004) posits that educators (supervisors) must demonstrate evidence that they have the necessary knowledge and skills to make important decisions about what they do and how they do it. She believes that credentials alone do not inspire trust, but rather how they are applied in practice. She also believes that teachers would trust a supervisor with whom they can confide. Teachers will not trust a supervisor who discusses teachers' performances and instructional practices with other people, whether openly or surreptitiously.

Sullivan and Glanz (2000), on their part, believe the supervisor's continued attendance at in-service training helps him/her to be able to provide useful assistance, advice, and support to teachers; and thereby develop the trust that teachers have in him/her. Having knowledge alone is not important, but using it judiciously to help teachers grow professionally is the ultimate objective. Pansiri (2008), in his study of teachers' perspectives of "instructional leadership for quality learning" in Botswana, found that 77 percent of the public primary teachers who participated in his study trusted their supervisors. Rous' (2004) study of public primary schools in the US state of Kentucky revealed, however, that although the supervisors in her study were knowledgeable, they neglected the teachers most of the time.

Rous (2004) in her study in the US public primary schools on "teachers' perspectives about instructional supervision and behaviour that influence preschool instruction" found out that instructional supervisors in her study who showed respect for staff, families, and children and demonstrated caring for children and teachers facilitated classroom instruction. Teacher participants in this study reported that their supervisors did not force them to teach in limited ways, nor were they criticised by their instructional leaders for trying out new approaches and teaching strategies.

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

Praise. Researchers have theorised and shown empirically that praising teachers significantly affects teacher motivation, self-esteem, and efficacy (Blasé & Blasé, 1999,

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

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

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

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

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

Empirical studies have shown that although some supervisors were able to observe lessons, others were unable to do so. Some participants in Pansiri's (2008) study indicated that their supervisors visited classrooms with the intention of supervising instruction but were

unable to provide professional support to the teachers. However, other participants reported their supervisors observed classes and wrote notes based solely on what was occurring in the classroom. Pansiri did not show the proportion in each case. The group of participants who received feedback reported that their supervisors carried out classroom supervision positively. Pansiri did not, however, indicate whether those supervisors who could not offer professional support to the teachers were not knowledgeable in the subjects been taught or limited in expertise. Rous (2004) also reported that supervisors in her US study did not have enough time to observe lessons. Some participants in her study reported that their supervisors were not seen in their classrooms enough.

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

A study of public school teachers' perceptions about instructional leadership in the US revealed that supervisors who participated in the study often used questioning approach to solicit teachers' actions about instructional matters (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). Participants in that study remarked that such questions served as guide to make them reflect on their actions, know what to do next, and evaluate what they did. In a similar study, all five participants in a 3-year longitudinal study agreed that using thought-provoking questions to guide teachers improved their instructional practice (Holland, 2004). The participants indicated that such

questions are designed to reassure teachers that supervisors are simply seeking information, but do not put teachers on the defensive by telling them what they should do or what they are not doing. The participants were from the same large urban school district and were being groomed as secondary administrators. Holland did not, however, mention the place (context) in which the study took place. It could be helpful if supervisors use probing questions to assess individual teacher's content knowledge and instructional skills so as to provide the necessary guidance and assistance to improve instruction.

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

The teachers in Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study overwhelmingly reported that successful principals (supervisors) offered suggestions to improve teaching and learning, vary their instructional methods, and help solve problems. The participants found principals' suggestions fruitful, and strongly enhanced reflection and informed instructional behaviour. Rous's (2004) findings were consistent with the one mentioned above. Public primary school teachers in her US study reported that their principals commonly offered suggestions. The teachers acknowledged that when their supervisors offered helpful suggestions on instructional practices, it increased their ability to solve classroom problems. Rous observed that teachers in her study were willing to try suggestions which were offered sincerely and positively. The use of the word "helpful" in the report suggests that not all suggestions may be useful to the teachers.

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

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

Modelling lessons. Researchers have theorised that lesson demonstration can improve teachers' instructional practices (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006). Supervisors use demonstration lessons to assist teachers individually and in groups. This practice is not only used to guide new and inexperienced teachers, but veterans as well.

Supervisors may learn strategies from teachers during their classroom observations, and transfer such learned activity to other teachers to try them out in their classrooms.

Research studies have shown that supervisors use lesson demonstrations to help teachers to improve their instructional practices. US pre-school teachers in Rous' (2004) study reported that their instructional supervisors modelled appropriate techniques, and admitted that such practices were a good source of assistance in dealing with children with special needs. Similarly, Blasé and Blasé (1999) found in the US that those supervisors in their study demonstrated teaching techniques during classroom visits. In Blasé and Blasé's study, participants did not consider the supervisors' actions as intrusive, because the latter had already cultivated respectful and trusting relationship with teachers.

On the flip side, 71 percent of the teachers in Botswana who participated in Pansiri's (2008) study indicated that their supervisors neither gave demonstration lessons nor coached them how to handle certain topics or lessons. Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2006) also found in the US that supervisors in their study never modelled teaching. One participant remarked "she (principal) doesn't model anything".

Teaching resources. It is widely believed that teaching-learning resources can improve instruction. An empirical research study has shown that some instructional supervisors ensured that teachers were provided with, and assisted to select appropriate teaching materials and resources to improve instruction (Rous, 2004). Rous (2004) indicated that although some supervisors in her study in the US public schools provided teachers with resources, materials, and funds to support classroom activities, others reported instances where instructional supervisors failed to provide resources needed by teachers to implement quality instruction. In Botswana, 59 percent of the teachers in the public primary schools Pansiri (2008) studied reported that they did not have 'all' the teaching materials they needed for their classes. Only 22 percent of the participants in his study said they were provided with enough teaching

materials. This situation of insufficient learning resources may be due to economic reasons and not peculiar to Botswana alone but common in public schools in other developing countries as well.

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

Professional development. In-service training in the form of workshops, conferences, and symposia, as well as distributing literature about instruction, equip teachers with expertise as a form of professional development (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Glickman, 2003). It is the responsibility of supervisors to provide teachers with in-service training sessions, as well as encourage them to attend workshops and conferences to bring them abreast with time in their instructional practices.

In their study, Blasé and Blasé (1999) found in their study that successful principals provided teachers with information about and encouraged teachers to attend workshops, seminars, and conferences about instruction. These supervisors were also reported to have provided their teachers with funds, informed teachers of innovative seminars, and workshops. Teachers in this study admitted they had learnt a lot of new techniques and challenges to stay abreast with recent development. Similarly, 83 percent of public school teachers who participated in a study in Botswana indicated that their supervisors ran school-based workshops to address the curriculum needs of teachers, and 73 percent of them were given the

opportunity to facilitate in such workshops (Pansiri, 2008).

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

Promoting collaboration. Researchers suggest that supervisors provide time and opportunities for teachers to collaborate with one another to improve their instructional strategies and skills (Blasé and Blasé, 1999; DuFour, 2004; Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2001; Sergiovanni & Starratt 1993). DuFour describes collaboration as a systematic process in which teachers work together to analyse and implement their classroom practices to improve instruction. He suggests that formal teams must have time to meet during the weekday and throughout the school year. Promoting collegiality (collaboration) among teachers has been theorised by researchers as an important way to help schools change for the better (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993) because interaction with one another influences what one does (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991; cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993). Blasé and Blasé (2004) argue that collaboration results in teacher motivation, self-esteem, efficacy, and reflective behaviour, such as risk taking, instructional variety, and innovation/creativity.

Public primary school teachers who participated in a study in the US reported that their supervisors recognized that collaboration among teachers was essential for successful teaching and learning (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). Supervisors in their study modelled teamwork, provided time for teams to meet regularly, and advocated sharing, and peer observation. The supervisors were also reported to have encouraged teachers to visit other teachers, even in

other schools, to observe their classrooms and programmes. Similarly, study participants (heads) in government and private-aided senior secondary schools in India provided further opportunity for teachers to meet with other teachers in their discipline from different schools to discuss programmes (Tyagi, 2009).

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

Challenges to Supervision

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

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

Knowledge and experience. Researchers have suggested that supervisors should possess some working knowledge and skills to be able to provide the necessary assistance,

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

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

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

De Grauwe (2001) found in four African countries that both qualifications and experience seemed important in the selection of supervisors, but at the primary level, many of the most experienced teachers did not have strong academic background because they entered the teaching profession a long time in the past when qualification requirements were low. He indicated, however, that apart from Tanzania the situation in the other countries has now

improved, and supervisors (including headteachers) have strong background and qualifications which are higher than the teachers they supervise. In Botswana, for instance, teachers were by then trained up to Diploma level (De Grauwe, 2001). This finding is corroborated by Pansiri (2008). He also observed that diploma and degree qualifications were new programmes for primary school teachers which were introduced in the mid 1980s in Botswana. He found that most teachers were trained at the certificate levels: Primary teachers' Certificate (PTC), Primary High Teaching Certificate (PH), Primary Lower Teaching Certificate (PL), or Elementary Teaching Certificate (ETC). In Ghana, most primary school teachers (including headteachers) hold Teachers' Certificate 'A' Post-middle or Post-secondary. Initial (basic) Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana have recently been up-graded to Diploma Awarding Institutions.

In most countries, headteachers are promoted on the basis of seniority and experience (De Grauwe, 2001), and by virtue of their position as heads, they automatically become the instructional supervisors at the school level. In some developing countries, most primary school teachers do not possess higher qualifications in the form of degrees and diplomas; so they occupy supervisory positions on the basis of seniority and long service. It would be proper for supervisors to possess higher qualifications and longer years of teaching experience than the teachers they supervise. Such supervisors would have sufficient knowledge and experience in both content and pedagogy to be able to confidently assist, guide and support their teachers.

In Ghanaian primary schools, if two persons have the same qualification, the one with longer years of teaching experience is promoted to head the school, and subsequently becomes the instructional supervisor. The Ghana Education Service regards academic qualifications, such as degrees and diplomas, necessary for supervisory positions, but most primary school headteachers (supervisors) hold Teachers' Certificate 'A' Post-secondary or

Post-middle. With the introduction of the 1987 Education Reforms, the then headteachers who held Teachers' Certificate 'A' Post-middle were replaced with Certificate 'A' Post-secondary holders, even if the former were seniors in terms of long service.

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

The issue of concern is when a young degree holder from university is posted to a school to work under the supervision of a relatively older and experienced supervisor with lower qualifications. The former may not have the opportunity to try his/her new ideas if the supervisor uses a directive approach. In such situations, the supervisor may want to suggest to or direct the teacher as to what he/she should do and how it should be done. Innovation in instructional practices will be stifled, and the *status quo* in both instructional strategies and supervisory practices will be the norm.

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

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

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

The situation is different in developed nations. Citing EURYDICE, Carron and De

Grauwe (1997) found that primary school supervisors in Ireland pass through a probation period of six months, whereas their counterparts in Portugal followed a one year course. Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2007) note that coaches, unlike school heads and other supervisors in New York Public Schools, did not have any formal training in classroom observation and supervision. Glanz, et al. (2007) and Hawk and Hill (2003) found that coaches in the US and New Zealand respectively received training in subject specific areas, but not generics training (general supervision). This suggests the supervisors in those countries had formal training in supervision, but these researchers did not provide specific details. Bays (2001) also indicated that in the US, administrator training is a certification requirement. Such training provides principals with knowledge of supervision theory, practice, and personnel management that prepares them with general strategies to supervise all their teachers. Bays also found in her study that only one principal out of nine had background experience and training in instructional practices for students with disabilities. This suggests that, apart from generic training in supervisory practices, principals posted to special schools may be given training in that special field.

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

Professional support. Apart from the training supervisors will receive, there is the urgent need for support instruments and materials to support practice. Data bases are needed to prepare and monitor the supervision work (Carron & De Grauwe, 1997). Access to the internet, bulletins and journals is another source of support to supervisors. Supervision guides and manuals may serve as reminders to supervisors about how certain practices and behaviour

should be followed, and provide a uniform platform for supervisors to operate, thereby re-assuring teachers of the personal biases which individual supervisors may introduce. They can guide practitioners to avoid relying solely on their own individual experiences or orientation.

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

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

Combining supervision with other duties. Another challenge to supervision is a situation where headteachers, by virtue of their position, are administrators, financial managers and instructional supervisors. Such heads have relatively little time for supervision of instruction. When a choice is to be made between administrative and pedagogical duties, the latter suffers (De Grauwe, 2001). De Grauwe contends that supervisors may focus their

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

In a similar study in a rural public school district in the US, Bays (2001) found that principals performed duties in the areas of management, administration and supervision. She described the separation of these functions as an "artificial" activity for the principals she observed, as they moved from one type of activity to another constantly throughout the day. Bays observed that administrative and management issues took much of the principals' time and energies and detracted them from providing constant direct supervision to teachers. In Ghanaian public primary schools, headteachers perform "a magnitude of tasks", and those in remote and deprived communities combine their supervisory roles with full-time teaching and visiting pupils in their communities (Oduro, 2008). In such situations, supervisors may not be able to sufficiently supervise instruction. Carron and De Grauwe (1997) observe that countries such as Spain, France and Guinea which separate administrative from pedagogical supervision do not experience such problems. Thus, combining administrative and supervisory duties is another challenge to supervision of instruction.

Teachers' attitudes and supervisors' approaches to supervision. The way and

manner that teachers react to supervision of instruction is another concern to supervisory practices. If teachers, who are the direct beneficiaries of instructional supervision, have a negative attitude towards the practice, the whole process will not yield the desired results. This is because supervision which aims at providing assistance, guidance and support for teachers to effectively provide instruction thrives on co-operation, respect and mutual trust.

Some teachers see supervision as a tool used by administrators to control and intimidate them. This notion makes teachers feel unsafe and threatened when they experience any form of supervision. Ayse Bas (2002) found in Turkish private primary schools that some teachers who participated in his study felt supervision was an intrusion into their private instructional practices. Teachers in his study bemoaned that the principal's intrusive monitoring and physical presence changed the 'setting' in the classrooms which resulted in false impressions. According to the teachers, there was always an element of stress and overreaction on the part of teachers and students during classroom observations.

Supervisors' approach to supervision may pose a challenge to supervision of instruction. Supervisors in Ayse Bas's (2002) study (Turkish private primary schools) used controlling and intimidation approaches in their supervisory practices. The teachers confided in the researcher that they lived in a state of fear and frustration of dismissal due to the system's summative nature. This is supportive of Oliva and Pawlas's (1997) perception that some school supervisors or inspectors, as they are called in other countries, continue to fulfil their tasks with an authoritarian approach. Some respondents in Rous's (2004) study in the US expressed feelings of fear and disappointment, which were associated with the use of criticism by instructional supervisors. The supervisors' criticisms were reported to have stifled the teachers' use of innovative practices. Yimaz, Tadan, and Ouz (2009) found that supervisors in Turkish primary schools who participated in their study used the traditional approach to supervision, and such activities were geared towards the determination of

conditions, to assess and control, whereas activities like supporting, guiding and improving were ignored.

      Summary. Previous studies have examined the perceptions of teachers, principals (headteachers), department heads and education officers about supervision practices. Whereas some of these studies examined the supervision beliefs of heads (Yimaz, Tadan & Ouz, 2009), others examined how supervisors provide supervision, how supervisors improve supervision and how supervisors promote teaching and learning (Bays, 2001; Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Tyagi, 2009). Some studies have also examined supervisor behaviour that influence practice (Rous, 2004) and working relationships between supervisors and teachers (Holland, 2004). Another study examined the perceptions of participants about how they perceive instructional supervision in terms of strengths and weaknesses (Ayse Bas, 2002). My study, however, examined the perspectives of teachers and headteachers about how they experienced instructional supervision in their schools, their conceptualisations of instructional supervision, and aspects of instructional supervision they want to practise.

Conclusion

      While researchers have established a strong theoretical and conceptual base about instructional supervision, the empirical research literature is less developed. There is a dearth of empirical studies that have examined the perceptions of teachers, school heads, department heads (chairs) and education officers about supervision practices. In particular, very few studies have examined teachers' expectations and desires about instructional supervision. Similarly, the causal relationship between instructional supervision and student outcomes remains unclear. It is a plausible and commonsensical notion that improving instructional supervision leads to improved student outcomes, yet this claim has yet to be proven conclusively.

<h1>Chapter Three</h1>
<h1>Methodology</h1>

Overview

In this chapter, the first section describes the research design, while the second describes the participant sampling and selection procedures. In the third part, the data collection instruments and administration procedures are detailed. The fourth section describes the methods of data analysis used in the study.

Research Design

In this study I used a mixed methods survey design, with both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. "Survey research (also called descriptive research) uses instruments such as questionnaires and interviews to gather information from groups of subjects" (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen, 2006, p. 31). In survey research, investigators ask questions about peoples' beliefs, opinions, characteristics, and behaviour (Creswell, 2003). Surveys may also investigate associations between respondents' characteristics such as age, education, social class, race and their current attitudes or beliefs towards some issue. Importantly, survey research does not make causal inferences, but rather describes the distributions of variables for large groups (Creswell, 2003). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) remind us that survey research involves collecting data to answer questions concerning the phenomenon under study, and is used to describe the nature of existing conditions, identify standards against which existing conditions can be compared, and/or investigate the relationships that may exist between events. An overview of this study's design, framed against the research questions, is given in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Overview of Research Design

Research Question	Participants	Instrument(s)	Type of Data Collected
What does the GES policy on supervision of instruction require of headteachers?	Headteachers (n=10) and Policy Officers (n=2)	Interviews: (standardised open-ended).	Qualitative: (interview transcripts).
How do participants conceptualise and experience supervision of instruction in primary schools?	Headteachers (n=40) and Teachers (n=240)	Questionnaire: (Likert scale and open-ended items). Interviews: (standardised open-ended).	Quantitative: (questionnaires). Qualitative: (interview transcripts).
Which aspects of instructional supervision do teachers and headteachers want to practise?	Headteachers (n=40), Teachers (n=240) and Policy Officers (n=2)	Questionnaire: (Likert scale and open-ended items). Interviews: (standardised open-ended).	Quantitative: (questionnaires). Qualitative: (interview transcripts).
What are the differences, if any, between teachers and headteachers, in expectations and experiences of supervision of instruction?	Headteachers (n=40) and Teachers (n=240)	Questionnaire: (Likert scale and open-ended items). Interviews: (standardised open-ended).	Quantitative; (questionnaires). Qualitative: (interview transcripts).
What systemic challenges are likely to affect supervision of instruction in the schools?	Headteachers (n=40), Teachers (n=240) and Policy Officers (n=2)	Questionnaire: (open-ended items). Interviews: (standardised open-ended).	Quantitative: (questionnaires). Qualitative: (interview transcripts).

Note: all data were collected during September and October, 2009.

I used a survey design in this study because it sought the views of respondents about how they conceptualise supervision of instruction, as well as how they experience instructional supervision practices in their schools. Survey (descriptive) research mostly uses questionnaires (Creswell, 2003), but may use both questionnaires and interviews to gather information from groups of respondents about their opinions of some issue (Ary, Jacobs,

Razavieh, & Sorensen 2006; Creswell, 2003; Depoy & Gitlin, 1998). Multiple sources and/or methods of data gathering increase the credibility and dependability of the data since the strengths of one source compensate for the potential weaknesses of the other (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Mixed method approaches can also answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Mixed-methods can also provide stronger evidence for a study's conclusions through convergence and corroboration of findings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). These researchers explained that mixing methods is not primarily to search for corroboration, but rather to expand understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. However, corroboration reached by different approaches does provide researchers with greater confidence in their conclusions (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004b; as cited in Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

I used a concurrent mixed methods design in the current study. In a concurrent approach, two or more data collection instruments are administered within the same time frame. I collected both forms of data (questionnaire and interview) at the same time during the study, and then integrated these data into the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2003). I used a concurrent approach because the data gathering was in Ghana and financial constraints only allowed for one trip. I could not have administered one of the instruments and used the results to construct and administer the other instrument later on (sequential approach) within that short period.

The purpose of using a mixed method design was to use both the responses obtained from the questionnaire and those from the interviews to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research questions asked. A secondary reason was the possibility of using the results from one instrument to confirm or corroborate findings from the other (Creswell, 2003). I administered both instruments at one point in time (cross-sectional).

I used self-administered questionnaires (see appendices A and B) to collect data from headteachers and teachers in public primary schools in one municipal district directorate of education in Ghana during the 2009/2010 academic year. Questionnaires were appropriate for this study because they can reach a large number of people relatively quickly and with minimal expenditure (Ary, et al., 2006). Additionally, numerous variables can be measured by a single instrument, and statistical manipulation during data analysis can permit multiple uses of the data set (DePoy & Gitlin, 1998). The questionnaire was made up mainly of Likert scale items (24) but also included four open-ended items.

I used interviews to complement the questionnaires. I chose interviews because they have the potential to provide insight into how respondents experienced and thought about supervisory practice, since they would provide the opportunity to probe further for explanations of responses provide by participants. Furthermore, interviews were intended to provide additional information that would be difficult to capture using a questionnaire. Interviews are also appropriate because they allow exploration of variables under investigation in greater detail, and so complement the survey (Creswell, 2003).

I used a standardized open-ended (semi-structured) interview guide (Patton, 1990) to examine the perceptions of 10 headteachers, 10 teachers and two policy personnel (the head of supervision in the district and an officer at the Inspectorate Unit of the Ghana Education Service) about supervision of instruction in schools (see appendices C, D and E). Standardized open-ended interviews consist of a set of questions carefully worded and arranged with the intention of taking each respondent through the same sequence of issues by asking them the same questions using essentially the same words to minimise variation in the questions being posed (Patton, 1990). I used this type of interview protocol because I had specific questions in mind and wanted to take respondents through the questions in a fixed order in order to avoid digression from the main focus (Ary et al., 2006). I chose this type of

interview protocol because it is highly focussed and efficient. Even though an open-ended semi-structured interview allows less flexibility than an unstructured interview, it can reduce interviewer effect and facilitate data analysis (Patton, 1990). Questions used in this approach are the same and guided to minimize variations so the responses usually fall into their respective categories/themes, and thus facilitate fast of data analysis.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

I conducted the study in one municipal district out of the 170 districts in Ghana. This relatively constrained sample might not be large enough to generalise to the other regions of Ghana. However, this municipal district was found to be representative because it has characteristics of both metropolitan and peri-urban (rural) districts in Ghana. In Ghana, there are three different levels of districts: metropolitan, municipal and peri-urban. The selected district has characteristics of both urban and rural, while other districts were either urban or rural. The capital of one of the regions in Ghana is in this district, and is a nodal town (where roads from nearby villages and towns converge). All surrounding villages are accessible, and travelling expenses were less costly than if I had conducted the study in another district. I found a municipal district to be appropriate for this study because it has a combination of rural and urban settings. The selected district comprises five circuits (sub-districts), two of which are located in rural areas.

I employed both census and sampling techniques to select and invite participants for the study. A census study covers the entire population (all teachers and headteachers) in the district under consideration. I used a census method to select all the potential participants (teachers and headteachers) to respond to the questionnaire, and used a combination of purposive (purposeful), convenience and proportional sampling techniques to invite interviewees.

I used a census technique to select participants (teachers and headteachers) to respond to

the questionnaire. Out of the 380 eligible teachers and headteachers in the public primary schools in the municipal district, 240 teachers and 40 heads returned their questionnaires. The response rate for this study was 74 percent.

I also employed a combination of purposive, convenience, and proportional sampling techniques to invite ten teachers and ten headteachers, and two policy personnel to participate in interviews. The power of purposive sampling is to select information-rich participants (Patton, 1990). For purposive sampling to be effective, participants must be identified based on qualifications and characteristics they possess, related to the study. Also, "purposive sampling allows sample elements judged to be typical or representative to be chosen from the population" (Ary et al., 2006, p. 174). I used a purposive sampling technique to invite an officer from the Inspectorate Division of the Ghana Education Service (GES) and the Assistant Director of Education responsible for Supervision (ADE Supervision) in the selected municipal education office for the interview because of their unique positions in the service. Previously I had made repeated attempts to arrange a mutually agreeable meeting with the national head of supervision (Chief Inspector), but this did not happen during the time I was in Ghana. Instead, therefore, I made an alternate arrangement and interviewed a subordinate from the same office. The ADE Supervision, who is the Chief Inspector in the district and the officer from Inspectorate Division in the GES, would be expected to have in-depth knowledge about supervision. I invited only two officers for this interview because the importance of the sample lies in the quality of knowledge of the participants in the study, not the size of the sample (Patton, 1990).

I also purposively selected headteachers for this study. I purposively invited those personnel for the study because of their positions (characteristics) and expertise in the topic under investigation. I also used proportional sampling to invite two teachers and two heads from each of the five circuits in the district. The primary purpose of this sampling process is

to ensure that each stratum (circuit) was represented by an adequate sample size as part of the total population (Rea, & Parker, 2005). The reason for using this procedure was to ensure that both urban and rural schools were represented in the study. Finally, I used convenience sampling to invite the teachers and heads to be interviewed. The first two (2) teachers and two (2) heads from each circuit who consented were invited for the interview. In all, I conducted 22 interviews, comprising 10 teachers, 10 heads, and two education officers.

Data Collection Instruments

I used a questionnaire and a standardized open-ended (semi-structured) interview protocol to collect data for the study. I pilot-tested the two instruments in five public primary schools in a sub-metro district in Kumasi before I carried out the main study. Also in Ghana, I live in Kumasi so I found it practical to pilot the instruments in a sub-metro district (sub-district in a metropolis) in this city. In all, 25 teachers and five heads consented to take part in the pilot test of the questionnaire, while two teachers and two heads took part in testing the interview protocol. Those who took part in the field test had characteristics similar to the study participants as recommended by Ary et al. (2006). Field-testing the instruments allowed the suitability of the items to be determined. The process revealed that some items in the questionnaire needed further explanation. In the main study, I therefore read and explained these items to the participating teachers in each school. This was found to be helpful in the main study. Also I used probing techniques to ensure that the interviewees understood the questions during the main study, which ensured that no item was ambiguous.

I chose the questionnaire because the participants were all literate, and therefore could read and respond to the items. Closed-ended questionnaires can be answered more easily and quickly by respondents (Ary et al., 2006). Similarly, due to the large number of respondents, interviewing all of them would be unrealistic. I used self-administered questionnaires to collect data from headteachers and teachers in public primary schools in the 2009/2010

academic year (Appendix A and B respectively). I selected characteristics and practices (strategies, behaviour, attitudes and goals) of effective instructional leadership (Blasé & Blasé, 1999) and other sources derived from the literature to construct the items in the questionnaire. I divided the questionnaire into three parts: items relating to the background information (demographics) of participants, 24 Likert scale items, and four open-ended items. The demographic items included sex, age, educational qualification, years of teaching experience, and years in the present position. The second section (Likert-scale) consisted of aspects of supervision of instruction. On the left hand side of the items, participants were asked to indicate by a tick how often (always, sometimes, rarely, and never) supervisors exhibited certain characteristics and practices. On the right hand side of the same items, participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement (strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree) with each of the listed practices. In the last section, participants were asked to respond to four open-ended questions about their views of supervisory practices in their schools.

I used interviews to complement the questionnaire because interviews allow the researcher to enter another person's viewpoint, to better understand his/her perspectives (Patton, 1990). Interviews also allow a wide range of participants' understanding to be explored, and can reveal important aspects of the phenomena under study. Semi-structured interviews allow the interviewer to focus on the research questions, yet open up new avenues for further questions (Ary et al., 2006). Ary and colleagues have suggested that in a semi-structured interview, respondents should be asked the same questions, but in a more conversational way. They, however, note that the interviewer has more freedom to arrange the order of the questions or even rephrase them.

I used a standardized open-ended (semi-structured) interview protocol to collect data from 10 teachers, 10 headteachers and two policy officers. I used this instrument to examine

how headteachers and teachers practised and experienced instructional supervision in their schools (Appendix C and D respectively). I also used this instrument to examine how teachers and headteachers conceptualise instructional supervision. I also used a standardized open-ended (semi-structured) interview protocol to examine how the heads of supervision at the national and district levels conceptualize supervision of instruction, or how they expected supervision policies to be implemented at the school level (Appendix E and F respectively). Finally, I used the interview protocol to explore the potential problems which might negatively affect instructional supervision in the schools as perceived by all the three groups of interviewees. I personally conducted face-to-face interviews with all of the twenty-two participants. Personally conducting the interviews improves the reliability of the interview process since a consistent approach was adopted.

I used an audio-recorder to capture each interview with the participants. While interviews with teachers and heads lasted between 10 and 15 minutes, those with the policy personnel lasted between 20 and 30 minutes. The interview times were short because of the structure of the items. Standardised open-ended questions are straight-forward but allow for flexibility. In addition to this, the interview questions involved were not many. In spite of this, I was able to gather rich data beyond the scope of the closed-ended items of the questionnaire. The interviewees were audio taped to ensure that a more accurate picture of the questions and answers (Patton, 1990) and therefore to enhance validity (Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell, & Alexander, 1995). Similarly, recording the interviews allowed me to give full attention to the interviewee rather than pausing to take notes (Elliot, 2005; Patton, 1990).

Administration and Retrieval of Instruments

I personally administered the questionnaires and interviewed all the participants. Both instruments were administered concurrently (simultaneously). In this design, the researcher collects two or more forms of data simultaneously (one-shot) during the study period and then

integrates the information in the interpretation of the overall results (Creswell, 2003). The data collection took place in a municipal district directorate in Ghana from 15th September to 27th October, 2009. I was issued with a permission letter from the Municipal Education Directorate, and was accompanied to each participating school by a circuit officer, who introduced me to the headteachers and teachers. The circuit supervisors accompanied me to the schools purposefully to show me the locations of the schools and introduce me to the staff members. I made my subsequent visits to the schools alone to retrieve the questionnaires and conduct the interviews. Typically, I used the first five minutes to discuss social and environmental issues in Australia with participants in order to establish rapport with them.

I provided each participant with a copy of the Information Letter (Appendix G) which stated the purpose of the study and assured the participants of confidentiality, in that no information would be attributed to any individual person. I then distributed the questionnaires to the respondents and explained and clarified some of the items which the field test had shown could be potentially confusing. In most cases, I returned to the schools at an agreed date to collect the completed questionnaires. However, I visited some schools more than twice before I could retrieve the completed questionnaires.

In the process of distributing the questionnaires I asked the teachers and headteachers for their consent to be interviewed. The first two teachers and two heads in each circuit who consented signed the consent forms (Appendix H), and the interviews were scheduled at a date and place convenient to the interviewees. While some interviews took place at the headteachers' offices, others were conducted at the municipal education office. I audio recorded the interviews to capture the responses. In this study, whenever I found that a respondent had misinterpreted a question, I tried to paraphrase it to make the question clearer and put the participant on track in order to for him/her to provide straightforward responses (Ary et al., 2006). Even though the interview questions were standardized open-ended items, I

probed further for more detailed information when interviewees provided responses which I thought were incomplete, as suggested by Minichiello et al. (1995).

At the end of each session, I played back the recorded conversation to the interviewees to make sure they agreed to what had been shared. Additional recordings were made of three interviews in which respondents wanted to add a few comments. I used this approach because I found that it would be difficult to send the transcripts back to the interviewees in Ghana. Interviewees did not want to be identified so they declined to provide their particulars on the consent forms but rather appended their signatures.

A headteachers' manual (GES policy document) which contained guidelines on school administration, management and instructional supervision was not readily available but I had a copy of the headteachers' appraisal form (Appendix I). Circuit supervisors use this form to assess the performance of the headteachers in the areas of administration, management and instructional supervision. I analysed the aspects related to instructional supervision and integrated them in the interpretation of the overall results.

Method of Data Analysis

I analysed the data I obtained from the two main instruments separately. I first analysed the data from the questionnaire, which was divided into three parts. I coded the demographic and Likert scale data and analysed them using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). I analysed the responses on either side (left and right hand side) of the Likert scale items separately. I then used the SPSS to generate contingency tables for frequencies, percentages and Pearson's Chi-square. I used the Chi-square to determine whether perceived differences between teachers' and headteachers' responses were statistically significant or likely due to chance or error. I also used the SPSS to draw column graphs to show in pictorial form the comparison between teachers' and headteachers' opinions about how often they experienced various forms of instructional supervision in their schools. I compared the

differences between responses from teachers and headteachers on both sides of the items. The left hand side of the items explored how often teachers and heads experienced supervision of instruction in their schools, while the right hand side examined how they conceptualise supervision of instruction.

I also analysed the responses to the third part of the questionnaire (open-ended items). In this part, I analysed responses from common items for teachers and headteachers together and analysed items peculiar to each group of respondents separately. I summarised responses for each item and presented them as part of the findings. Every individual's response to each item was included in the analysis.

I analysed the interview responses from the three groups of interviewees (teachers, headteachers, and policy personnel) after transcription. I used a cross-case analysis procedure (Patton, 1990) to analyse the interview data. In this approach, responses to a common question from all interviewees in each category are analysed together. Thus, each question was analysed separately for teachers, headteachers, and the policy personnel. Patton (1990) posits that it is easy to do a cross-case analysis for each question in the interview when a standardised open-ended approach is used. In a cross-case analysis, participants' responses to a particular question/item are combined. Common themes across participants (cases) are then identified, analysed and interpreted item by item.

The interview data for the three groups of respondents were analysed in a systematic manner. First, I replayed the audio recordings of each respondent and transcribed them by hand on paper. I transcribed sentences and phrases directly to avoid misinterpretation of the sense or meaning of information participants provided as suggested by Patton (1990). I read through the responses for each item across all the ten teachers, ten headteachers and the two policy officers separately and recorded the key ideas.

Responses from each question were grouped together and analysed on central issues (Patton, 1990). If an interviewee provided a response to a particular question but this was found to answer a different question, I transferred the particular response to include it in the responses for the latter. Since I used a standardised interview protocol, questions were framed around specific ideas drawn from the literature. For each interview item, I looked for common phrases or statements, and organised them under the pre-determined themes based on the literature. Therefore, the key ideas from responses were organised by question. However, problems/challenges participants faced in the conduct of supervision did not have pre-set themes. In this case, common phrases or statements which fit together were put into categories and organised into themes. For example, responses such as my supervisor "is too busy", "doesn't have time", "is always occupied" and "is not seen often in the classroom" etc. were organised under the theme "time constraint/lack of time".

Finally, I analysed the Ghana education service policy document (headteachers' appraisal form) on instructional supervision separately and integrated it in the interpretation of the overall results.

Quality of the Instruments/Data

I found the two instruments I used in the study to be valid and reliable/credible. The items in the questionnaire (Likert scale and open-ended) items were developed from the theoretical and empirical literature and were scrutinized/edited by my supervisors. I explained each item to the participants to ensure that they understood and responded appropriately. Cronbach's Alpha Co-efficient Reliability test for the left and right hand side (experience and conceptualisation scale) of the Likert scale items were 0.75 and 0.73 respectively. The four open-ended items elicited straight-forward responses so I reported in their respective categories/themes.

I personally conducted the standardised open-ended interviews so that the approach was

consistent and, thus reduced the interviewer effect. I found the open-ended interviews to be reliable in that they were focussed on the research problem. Additionally, the analysis of interview data, unlike unstructured ones, was credible because I simply grouped common responses to each item and presented the results without making inferences or assumptions.

The results were also credible because audio-recording of the interview process ensured accurate data in their original form. To ensure the accuracy and trustworthiness of the data, I played back the audio tapes for participants to agree to what had been shared since it was not possible to return the transcripts to them for confirmation. However, during the interview session, I used probing questions to make sure my interpretations of their statements were their intended descriptions of the phenomenon under study. I also used direct quotations (low-level descriptors) to help readers experience the participants' world (Ary et al., 2006, p. 506).

The findings of this study were also credible because I used multiple data sources (data triangulation) including questionnaire, interview and relevant documents to understand the phenomenon from various points of view. Ary et al. (2006) posit that convergence of a major theme or pattern in the data from various sources lends credibility to the findings.

The findings of this study were also credible because I looked for and tried to explain any discrepant or contradictory data. Ary and colleagues posit that researcher bias may result from selective observations by allowing personal attitudes, feelings and preferences to affect interpretation of data.

Limitations to the Study

This study investigated how teachers and headteachers in public primary schools in Ghana experienced supervision of instruction in their schools, as well as the concepts they hold about instructional supervision. The main rationale for the study was to use its results to inform policy makers about teachers' and headteachers' current views, and about likely relationships between policy and practice in the supervision of instruction in public primary

schools in Ghana. This might in time help improve the planning and implementation of policies regarding instructional supervision which may, in the end, help improve student outcomes.

Notwithstanding these aims, the study also has its limitations. First, the study's findings are built around self-reported data. For example, one section of the survey required teachers and heads to indicate the frequency with which they experienced selected aspects of instructional supervision in their respective schools. The results from this section showed that a greater percentage of heads reported that they experienced the listed practices more often than did teachers. There does exist some possibility that heads might have provided more positive responses if they perceived that they were assessing their own performance against some perceived standards. That is, supervisors in this study may have indicated that they performed the various activities more often than they actually did. Similarly, headteachers in this study reported on their experiences with multiple teachers, while most teachers would have been reporting on their experiences with only one supervisor. Again, this may have skewed the data because several teachers might have thought that their one supervisor did not perform an activity regularly, while a head who supervises multiple teachers might think he/she did so regularly.

Secondly, circuit supervisors accompanied me to each school on my first visit to show me the location of the schools and to introduce me to the headteachers and teachers. They did not accompany me on subsequent visits, when I administered the instruments. Their presence in the schools might have biased participants' responses to the questionnaires and interviews. However, participants did not complete and return the questionnaires to me on my first visit. Neither were the participants interviewed on that first day or in the presence of the circuit supervisors. It is, therefore, unlikely that the mere sight of the circuit supervisors on my first visit to each school would bias participants' responses.

Thirdly, the data collection procedures did not include direct observation of supervision of instruction as practised in Ghanaian primary schools. This would have provided an opportunity to directly observe the frequency with which supervisors engaged in their instructional supervision roles over a period of time, or to be present as an observer during observation. Similarly, the research did not examine activity records which could have shown the frequency with which the supervisors performed their roles.

Fourthly, this study focussed mainly on teachers and heads, even though it included the district head of supervision and an officer at headquarters. The perspectives of circuit supervisors in the municipal district would have provided additional information about how headteachers in the study performed their supervisory roles. These officers directly assess the performance of heads and report to the ADE Supervision. Their views would have served as triangulation to the responses provided by the heads in their circuits. However, the circuit supervisors accompanied me to the schools in their various circuits and introduced me to the teachers and headteachers. I therefore decided to not include them in the study because this would have meant that they would be playing two roles, and as such may have perceived a conflict in being both facilitators of my collection of research data from heads and teachers *as well as* providers of data regarding the performance of heads.

Finally, the relatively defined sample might not be large enough to generalise the results to other regions of Ghana or to other countries in Africa more generally. The study collected data from one municipal education district out of almost 200 districts across the ten regions of Ghana. On the positive side however, this municipal district was seen to be widely representative because it has characteristics of both metropolitan and peri-urban (rural) districts in Ghana. Furthermore, the researcher was able to obtain rich data from 280 teachers (including headteachers) who responded to closed and open-ended survey items, as well as interviews with ten teachers, ten heads, and two policy officers. Because of challenges

associated with travelling between districts in Ghana, obtaining such rich data would not have been possible if the sample were to include multiple districts.

It is unlikely, however, that these limitations related to the data collecting process seriously affected the conclusions of the study. This is because a mixed methods approach was used to collect data from multiple sources including surveys, interviews and policy documents on instructional supervision. These various sources complemented, and provided corroboration for one another by providing explanations and confirmation to the responses in each section.

Conclusion

This chapter described the methodology used in the study. The various sections described the research design, sample and sampling procedure, data collection instruments and the administration and retrieval of instruments. Other sections presented the methods of data analysis, the quality of instruments and limitations to the study. The next chapter will present the findings under the following sub-headings: demographic data; how respondents experienced supervision of instruction in their schools; and, how respondents thought supervision of instruction should be practised. The chapter will also present open-ended items and interview responses from participants about how they experienced supervision practices and how supervision should be practised.

Chapter Four

Findings

Overview

      This chapter presents the findings from the questionnaire and interview data. The first part of the chapter presents the findings from the questionnaire, and the second presents comments obtained from the standardised (semi-structured) interview schedules. The questionnaire was divided into three sections: demographic data for teacher and headteacher respondents, Likert scale items, and open-ended items. The findings from both instruments sought the opinions of teachers and headteachers (supervisors) on how they experienced supervision of instruction in their schools, as well as how they thought supervision of instruction should be practised.

      The first part of the chapter presents findings from the questionnaire. It begins with the demographic data for the respondents. The demographics sought were the sex, age group, location (urban or rural) of school and highest qualification. This section also asked respondents about their position (teacher or headteacher) and number of years in their current positions as teacher or headteacher.

      The second section of the questionnaire included 24 Likert scale items about supervision aspects and practices. The questionnaire was divided into left and right sides. For each item, teachers and headteachers were asked to indicate, on the left hand-side, how often they experienced the particular aspect of supervision of instruction in their respective schools, and on the right, their level of agreement or disagreement on how they thought it should be practised. Responses on both sides of the questionnaire were arranged on a continuum from "Never" to "Always" and "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" respectively. In the third section of the questionnaire, teacher and headteacher respondents were asked four open-ended items about supervision of instruction. The three items which were common to both the

teachers and heads were analysed together, while the other one was analysed separately for each group.

To facilitate analysis and discussion, the closed-ended items (Likert scale items) were grouped into six sub-themes: Traditional Supervision Beliefs/Practices; Assistance and Support; Oversight; Leadership Skills; Professional Development; and, Collaboration. It is possible that some items may overlap in several sub-themes, but the items were grouped to simplify the reporting of the results.

Descriptive statistics were employed to find frequencies and percentages of responses. Relative frequencies (percentage responses) were used to draw column graphs to show pictorial representation of responses. Pearson's Chi-Square was used to determine whether observed differences in opinions between the two groups of participants (teachers and headteachers) were statistically significant.

Findings from the third section of the questionnaire, which comprise responses to open-ended questions, are summarised and presented separately for teachers and headteachers.

The final part of the chapter presents a summary of findings from the standardised interview schedule. Comments from respondents were presented in the same manner as those from the open-ended items on the questionnaire. The responses associated with each item were grouped to facilitate discussion.

Demographic Data

The demographic data are based on selected variables which included sex, age, location of school (urban and rural), professional status, highest qualification, position and years of experience in current position as teacher or headteacher. These are detailed in Table 2.

Table 2

Demographics of Questionnaire Respondents

Variable		Number of Respondents			Percentage
		Teachers	Headteachers	Total	
Sex	Male	76	18	94	34
	Female	164	22	186	66
Age (years)	Up to 29	38	0	38	14
	30 – 39	56	1	57	20
	40 – 49	79	11	90	32
	50 – 59	63	26	89	32
	60+	3	2	5	2
Location	Rural	61	10	71	25
	Urban	177	30	207	74
Qualification	Cert 'A'	132	26	158	56
	Diploma	75	7	82	29
	Degree	30	7	37	13
	Other	3	0	3	1
Professional Status	Trained	236	40	276	99
	Untrained	4	0	4	1
Years Served	0 – 4	93	18	111	40
	5 – 9	44	15	59	21
	10+	102	7	109	39

Note. Percents may not sum up to 100% because of missing data (non-response to certain items)

The questionnaire was administered to 380 potential participants (332 teachers and 48 headteachers). Two hundred and eighty (74%) participants comprising 240 teachers and 40 heads returned their questionnaires. Table 2 shows that the majority of the respondents were females (66%). Table 2 further shows that the majority of respondents (74%) taught in urban locations. This was so because the selected district for the study was municipal, with few rural schools.

The results show that almost all the study participants were professional (trained), with 56 percent holding the basic teaching qualification for primary schools in Ghana (Teachers' Certificate 'A'). There are three categories of Certificate 'A' teachers in Ghana: 1) four-year post-middle; 2) two-year post-secondary; and, 3) three-year post-secondary. Even though the basic teaching qualification in Ghana is Teachers' Certificate 'A', the educational qualifications of study participants varied. Participants' qualifications ranged from Certificate

'A' through Diploma to Bachelor's Degree. Of the remaining four (4) teachers, one held a Middle School Leaving Certificate, and three held Ordinary Level Certificates.

In Ghana, basic teachers' certificates depend on the entry point in the teacher training college and the type of programme that was running within that period. Prior to the 1987 Education Reforms, pre-tertiary education structure was six years of primary school, four years middle, five years ordinary level, and two years advanced level. Pupils who sat the then Common Entrance Examination when in form 2 or 3 in the middle school entered into secondary schools. Graduates from middle schools (holders of Middle School Leaving Certificates) could also, however, enter secondary schools. Teachers who entered training colleges from middle school did the course for four (4) years, and were awarded Teachers' Certificate 'A' (Four-year). Those who entered from secondary school (ordinary or advanced level) were awarded with Teachers' Certificate 'A' (Two or Three-year) depending on the duration of the course and point of entry. With the introduction of the 1987 Education Reforms, senior secondary school (senior high school) graduates pursued courses which led to the award of Teachers' Certificate 'A' (Three-year).

A second level of teacher certificate in Ghana is the Diploma in Education. Previously, there were six Advanced Teacher Training Colleges which ran education courses in various subject areas. At the moment, those colleges have been combined into one university (University of Education) with six campuses. Teachers with certificates 'A' and Diplomas are admitted into this university to pursue four-year further studies in education. However, holders of diploma certificates with first class honours and second class upper division are allowed to do Two-year Post-Diploma courses. Graduates from Senior High Schools who wish to become teachers are, however, admitted to pursue four-year bachelor degree programmes in Education. Diploma holders from Polytechnics also enter into teaching in Ghana as uncertificated teachers, unless they already hold Teachers' Certificate 'A'. Diploma

certificates in Ghana are considered to be equivalent to Diplomas awarded by TAFE in Australia.

Group Comparison of Participants' Responses to Questionnaire Items

This study sought to find out from personnel engaged in school-site supervision in public primary schools in Ghana (headteachers) and those who are being supervised (teachers) about their perspectives of instructional supervision. In essence, the study examined how teacher and headteacher participants experienced instructional supervision in their current schools, as well as their degree of agreement with and desire for the instructional supervision practices selected from the literature and included in the questionnaire.

In this study, I was only interested in comparing responses from supervisors (headteachers) and those being supervised (teachers). In this section, a distribution of participants' profiles sought in the questionnaire is briefly described to provide non-Ghanaian readers a fair picture of the composition of public primary school teaching staff in a typical school district in Ghana.

I was interested in uncovering the differences in views across gender, geographical location and experience of participants. To do this, I constructed frequency distributions that portray the percentages of teachers and heads who responded to the selected instructional supervision practices on the questionnaire. However, these frequency distributions showed little apparent differences across the categories examined, and therefore, no further analysis was pursued. Tables showing these percentage differences by group can be found in Appendix J.

How Respondents Experienced Supervision of Instruction in their Schools

This section presents the findings from respondents about how they experienced supervision of instruction in their respective schools. Responses have been grouped into six sub-themes, and findings of items are presented in groups and individually. Responses are

summarised in frequency distribution tables showing frequencies and percentages. Responses are also displayed in bar graphs.

Traditional supervision practices. Three items were grouped under this heading: 1) Suggesting to teachers how they should teach; 2) Using control to affect teachers' instructional practices; and 3) Inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors. Responses to these items are given in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Distribution of Respondents by How Often They Experienced Traditional Supervision

Item		Responses				
		Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Suggesting to teachers how they should teach.	Teacher	52 (21)	149 (62)	17 (7)	22 (9)	240
	Head	14 (35)	25 (63)	1 (3)	0 (0)	40
	Total	66 (24)	174 (62)	18 (6)	22 (8)	280
Using control to affect teachers' instructional practices.	Teacher	21 (9)	82 (35)	34 (14)	100 (42)	237
	Head	3 (8)	19 (51)	7 (19)	8 (22)	37
	Total	24 (9)	101 (37)	41 (15)	108 (39)	274
Inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors.	Teacher	50 (22)	101 (43)	29 (12)	53 (23)	233
	Head	12 (34)	6 (17)	11 (31)	6 (17)	35
	Total	62 (23)	107 (40)	40 (15)	59 (21)	268

Note. Percentages are given in parentheses

As shown in Table 3, a majority of both groups of respondents had the experience that supervisors sometimes suggested to teachers how they should teach. This is the only item in this category for which a majority of both groups of respondents gave the same response. In the other two aspects of traditional supervisory practices, the two groups provided different responses. Sixty-two percent of teachers, as well as 63 percent of headteachers said they sometimes experienced a situation in which supervisors suggested to teachers how they should teach. But the proportion of heads (about 98%) who said they always or sometimes suggested to teachers how they should teach was somewhat greater than that of teachers (84%). Figure 1a below further shows there were not large differences in the distributions of teachers' and headteachers' responses to this item.
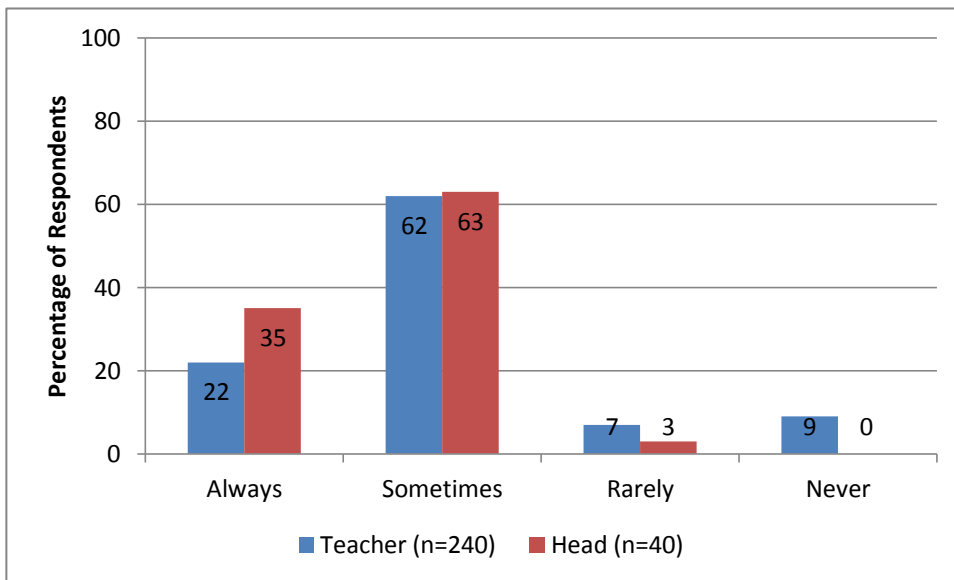
Figure 1a. Suggesting to teachers how they should teach: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

Table 3 also shows that a plurality of all respondents (39%) reported that they never experienced a situation where supervisors used control to affect instruction. The table also shows that while a majority of headteachers (51%) sometimes experienced a situation where supervisors used controlling to affect instruction, a plurality of teachers (42%) reported that the practice never happened. Further, while a greater proportion of heads (60%) reported that they sometimes or always controlled teachers' instructional practices, less than half of teachers (44%) reported similarly.

The Chi-squared test was used to determine whether observed differences were statistically significant. There were, however, no statistically significant differences between the opinions of teachers and headteachers on this issue (χ^2=6.341, df=3, p=0.096). Figure 1b graphically compares the opinions of the two groups of respondents on this supervisory practice.
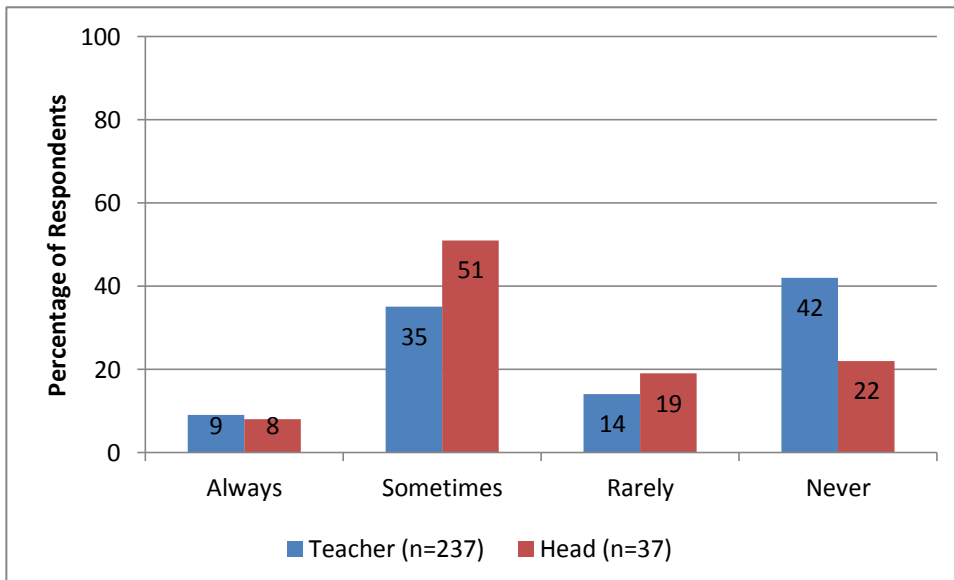
Figure 1b. Using control to affect teachers' instructional practices: teachers' and
headteachers' experiences

On the issue of how often supervisors inspected teachers' instructional practices for
errors, a majority of teacher respondents (65%) said it happened always or sometimes. In
contrast, 51 percent of heads always or sometimes reported that the occurrence of this aspect
of supervision. The findings also showed that 43 percent of teachers observed supervisors
sometimes inspected their instructional practices for errors, while only 17 percent of
headteachers said they did so sometimes.

The pictorial representation of the results further shows differences in opinions as to
how often supervisors inspected teachers' instructional practices for errors (Figure 1c). These
differences in opinions did not happen by chance. The Chi-square test of significance revealed
a statistically significant difference between teacher and headteacher respondents on the
frequency with which supervisors inspected teachers' instructional practices for errors
(χ^2=15.178, df=3, p=0.002).
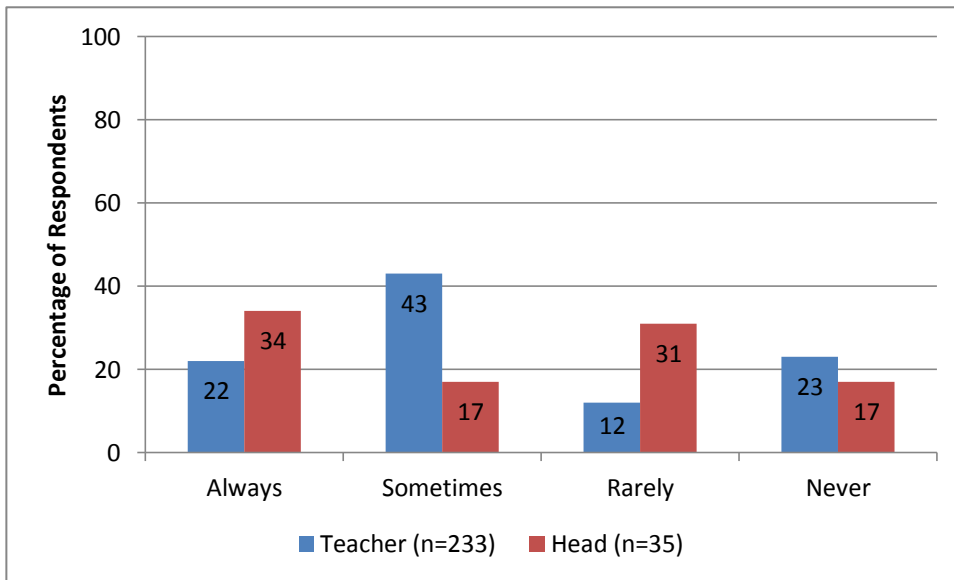
Figure 1c. Inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

In this category (Traditional Supervision), teachers and headteachers were relatively consistent in their opinions in one item and differed in two other items. Almost the same percentage of teachers as heads experienced that supervisors sometimes suggested to teachers how they should teach. But while a majority of heads said they used control to affect instruction, a plurality of teachers indicated that they never experienced this practice. In this category, it was only this item that more than 50 percent of teachers said they rarely or never experienced such a situation in their schools. Similarly, while a plurality of heads said they always inspected teachers' instructional practices for errors, a plurality of teachers reported that this happened only sometimes.

Supervision for assistance and support. Five items were grouped under assistance and support. 1) Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices; 2) Readily availing themselves (supervisors) for advice and instructional support; 3) Ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching-learning materials; 4) Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices; and, 5) Providing teachers with professional literature. Results are shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4

Distribution of Respondents by How Often They Experienced Assistance and Support in

Supervision

Item		Responses				
		Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instruction.	Teacher	103 (43)	109 (46)	15 (6)	11 (5)	238
	Head	24 (60)	14 (35)	1 (3)	1 (3)	40
	Total	127 (46)	123 (44)	16 (6)	12 (4)	278
Readily availing self for advice and instructional support.	Teacher	103 (44)	94 (40)	25 (11)	13 (6)	235
	Head	31 (78)	8 (20)	0 (0)	1 (3)	40
	Total	134 (49)	102 (37)	25 (9)	14 (5)	275
Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices.	Teacher	107 (46)	106 (46)	14 (6)	6 (3)	233
	Head	27 (68)	10 (26)	3 (8)	0 (0)	40
	Total	134 (49)	116 (43)	17 (6)	6 (2)	273
Ensuring teachers have adequate teaching materials to teach.	Teacher	106 (45)	85 (36)	33 (14)	12 (5)	236
	Head	31(80)	6 (15)	2 (5)	0 (0)	40
	Total	137 (50)	91 (33)	35 (13)	12 (4)	275
Providing teachers with research findings about instruction.	Teacher	30 (13)	82 (35)	49 (21)	75 (32)	236
	Head	2 (5)	19 (51)	9 (24)	7 (19)	37
	Total	32 (12)	101 (37)	58 (21)	82 (30)	273

Note. Percentages are given in parentheses

As shown in Table 4, almost all the respondents (90%) said supervisors always or

sometimes helped teachers find solution to problems they encountered in their instructional

practices. A majority of the headteacher respondents (60%) reported that they always

provided such assistance, while a plurality of teachers (46%) said they sometimes received

such assistance. Similarly, a larger proportion of heads than teachers reported they always

experienced this practice. However, the difference was not statistically significant (χ^2=4.216,

df=3, p=0.239). Figure 2a below graphically compares how the two groups of respondents

experienced the supervisory practice of helping teachers find solutions to problems they

encountered in their instructional practices.
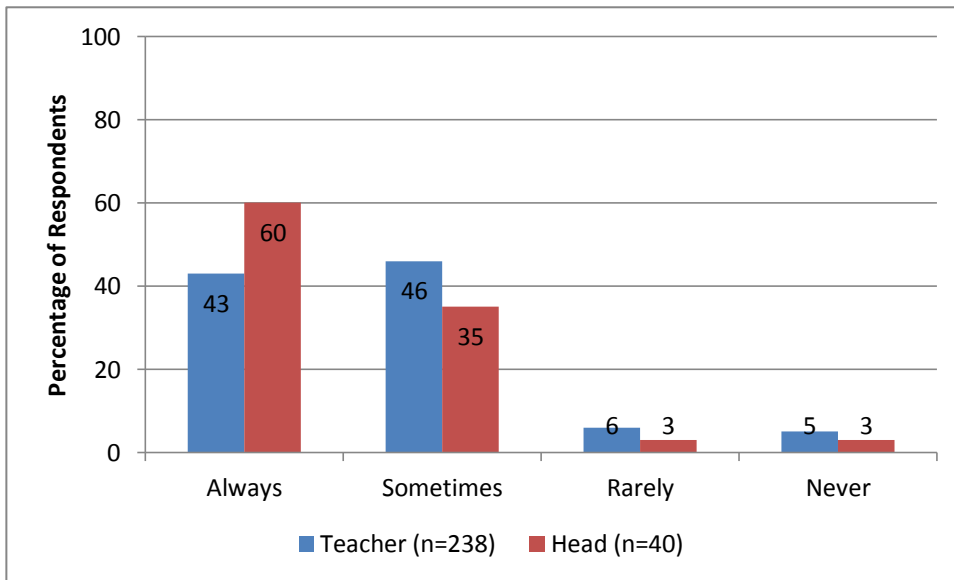
Figure 2a. Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

Results from Table 4 also show that 78 percent of headteachers said they always readily availed him/herself for advice and instructional support, while 44 percent of teachers said they always experienced this supervisory practice. On the other hand, a larger proportion of teachers than heads said they sometimes experienced this supervisory practice. These differences are statistically significant. A Chi-square test showed a statistically significant difference between teachers' and headteachers' (supervisors) opinions about how often the latter readily availed themselves for advice and instructional support (χ^2=16.512, df=3, p=0.001).

However, while almost all headteachers (98%) said they always or sometimes availed themselves for advice and instructional support, 84 percent of teachers reported that they experienced such assistance and support always or sometimes. Only one headteacher indicated that he/she never performed this activity. Figure 2b graphically compares responses of headteachers and teachers about how often supervisors made themselves available for advice and instructional support.
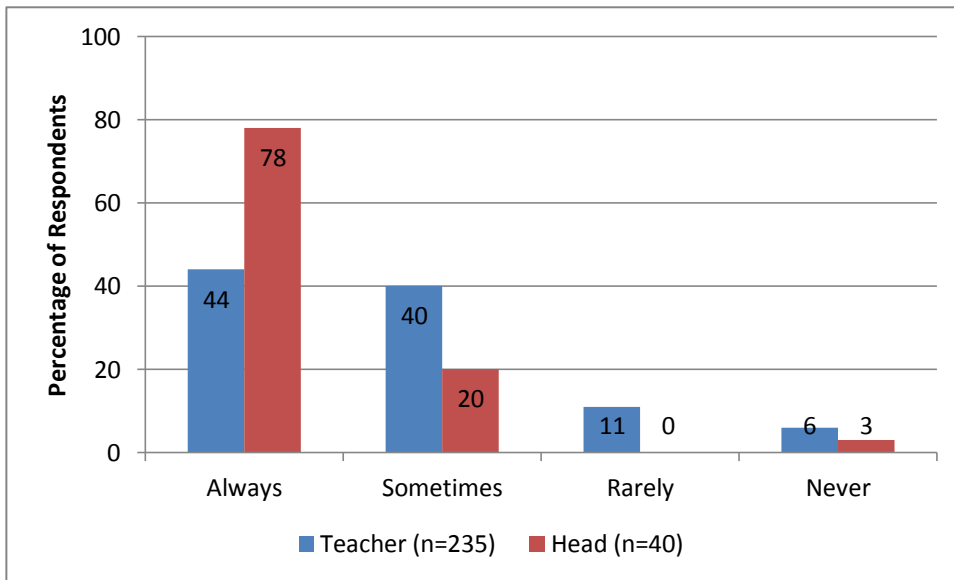
Figure 2b. Availability of supervisors for advice and instructional support: teachers' and
headteachers' experiences

On the issue of supervisors offering useful suggestions to improve instructional

practices, the pattern of responses (always and sometimes) is similar to the previous item.

Table 4 shows that more than 90% of each group of respondents said this happened always or

sometimes. But as compared with teachers' responses, a much larger proportion of heads

believed they were doing this always. Specifically, 68 percent of headteachers and 46 percent

of teacher respondents said they always experienced this supervisory practice. On the other

hand, a much larger proportion of teachers said they experienced this aspect of supervision

sometimes.

However, a Chi-square test showed there were no statistically significant differences

between teachers' and heads' opinions on this aspect of supervision (χ^2=7.765, df=3,

p=0.051). Figure 2c compares how respondents experienced the supervisory practice of

offering useful suggestions to improve instruction.
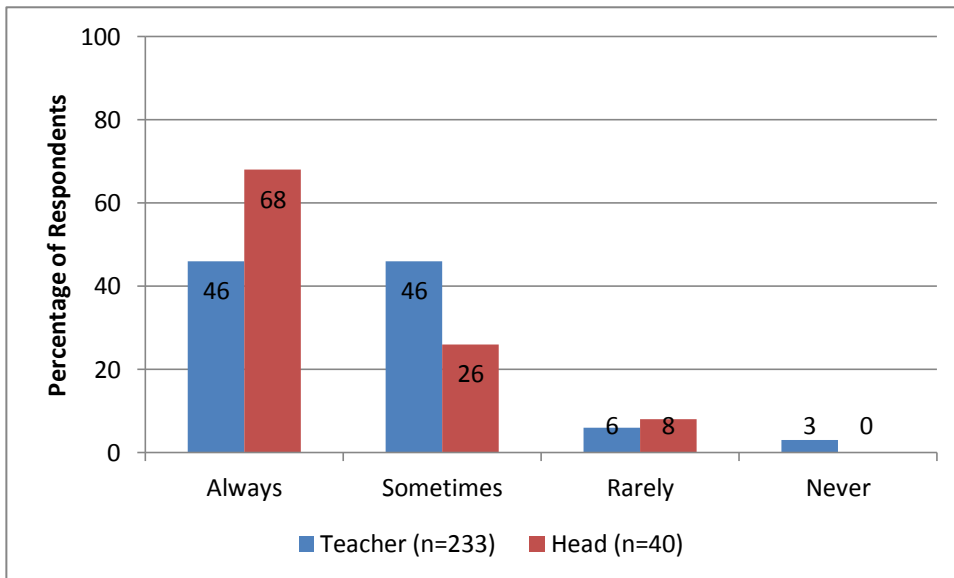
Figure 2c. Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

When it came to ensuring that teachers had adequate teaching-learning materials to teach, over 90 percent of all respondents indicated they experienced this aspect of supervision always or sometimes. These are detailed in Table 4 above. However, while 45 percent of teachers observed that supervisors always ensured the former had adequate teaching-learning materials to work with, 80 percent of the supervisors said they always provided such support to teachers. A Chi-square test showed a statistically significant difference between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on this issue (χ^2=16.380, df=3, p=0.001).

Figure 2d depicts how teachers and headteachers differ in opinions on how often they experience this practice in their schools. Similar to the previous item, the pattern is evident that heads thought they were performing this activity with much greater frequency than do teachers.
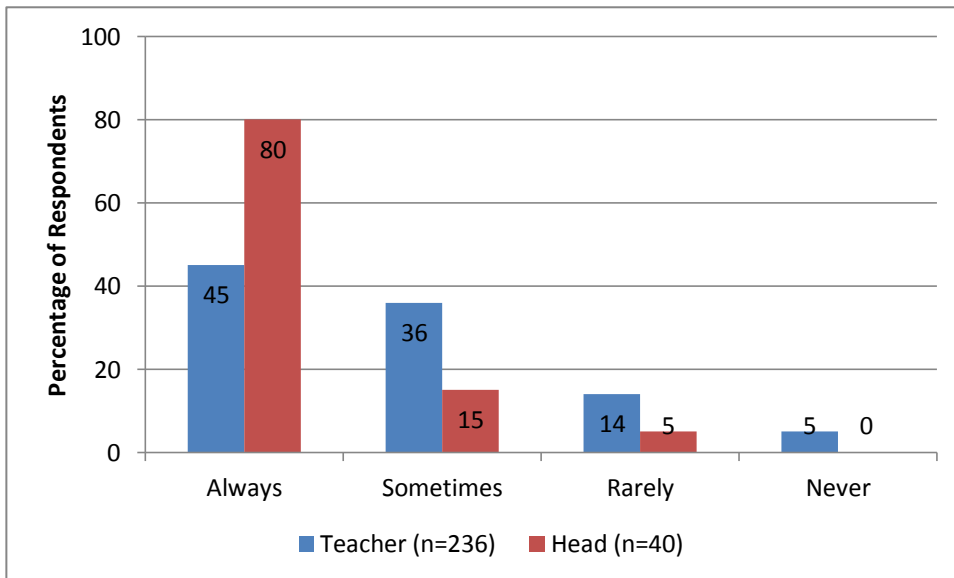
Figure 2d. Ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching-learning materials to teach: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

When respondents were asked to indicate how often they experienced the provision of professional literature to teachers, less than half of the respondents said they always or sometimes observed this in their schools as seen in Table 4. Even though a plurality of participants (37%) responded that supervisors provided teachers with professional literature sometimes, more headteachers than teachers provided the same response. Figure 2e shows how teachers and headteachers differed in their opinions on this supervisory practice.
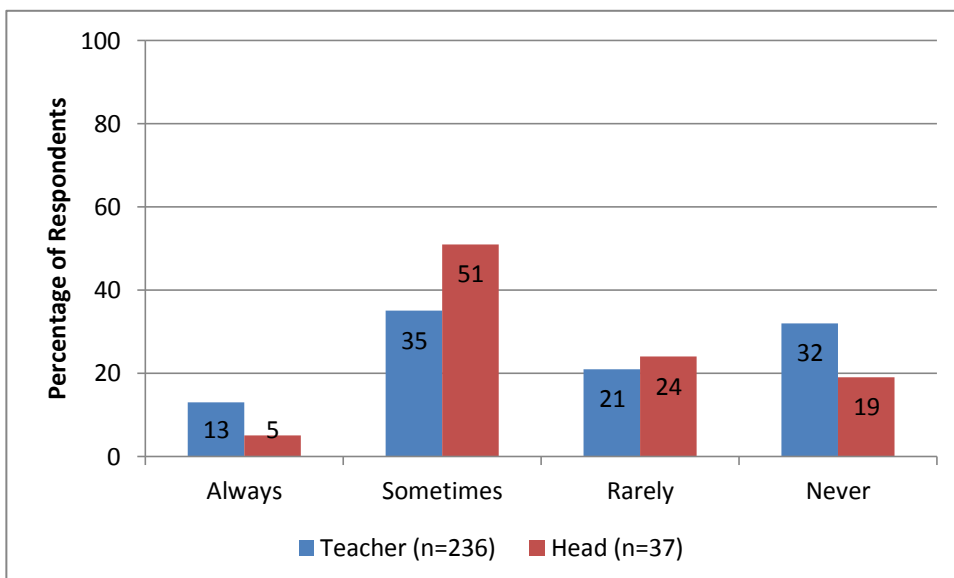
Figure 2e. Providing teachers with articles on research about instruction: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

In all five items in this category, a majority of headteachers responded that they always provided various forms of assistance and support to teachers, except for providing teachers with professional literature. On the part of teachers, a plurality responded that supervisors sometimes provided teachers with professional literature, as well as helped them (teachers) find solutions to problems they encountered in their instructional practices. A plurality of teachers said their supervisors always made themselves available for advice, offered useful suggestions to improve instruction, and ensured that they had adequate teaching materials to teach. Results also showed there was not a single item in this category for which a majority of teachers held a common opinion.

Oversight responsibilities in supervision. Five practices were included in the category of oversight responsibilities of supervisors: 1) Evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices; 2) Assessing teachers' content knowledge; 3) Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time; 4) Making informal visits to classrooms; and 5) Formally observing teaching and learning. An examination of Table 5 shows that supervisors always ensured that teachers made good use of instructional time, but practised the other activities only sometimes. The table also shows that a majority of the respondents (between 70 and 94%) sometimes or always experienced all of the activities included within the category of oversight responsibilities of supervisors.

Table 5

Distribution of Respondents by How Often They Experienced Oversight Responsibilities

Item		Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
			Responses			
Evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices.	Teacher	66 (28)	120 (51)	29 (12)	19 (8)	234
	Head	16 (41)	23 (59)	0 (0)	0 (0)	39
	Total	82 (30)	143 (52)	29 (11)	19 (7)	273
Assessing teachers' content knowledge.	Teacher	42 (18)	114 (49)	29 (12)	48 (21)	233
	Head	12 (32)	23 (62)	2 (5)	0 (0)	37
	Total	54 (20)	137 (51)	31 (12)	48 (18)	270
Ensuring teachers make good use of instructional time.	Teacher	166 (70)	56 (24)	11 (5)	3 (1)	236
	Head	35 (90)	3 (8)	0 (00)	1 (3)	39
	Total	201 (73)	59 (22)	11 (4)	4 (2)	275
Making informal visits to classrooms.	Teacher	32 (14)	159 (67)	29 (12)	16 (7)	236
	Head	10 (27)	23 (62)	3 (8)	1 (3)	37
	Total	42 (15)	182 (67)	32 (12)	17 (6)	273
Formally observing teaching and learning.	Teacher	27 (12)	143 (61)	35 (15)	29 (12)	234
	Head	7 (18)	19 (64)	6 (15)	1 (3)	39
	Total	34 (13)	168 (62)	41 (15)	30 (11)	273

Note. Percentages are in parentheses

Table 5 shows there were slight differences between teachers and headteachers on how they experienced individual activities under oversight responsibilities in the schools. The table shows that the modal response for all items is 'sometimes', except for ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time.

As to how often supervisors evaluated teachers' classroom instructional practices, a majority (52%) of all respondents said that they sometimes experienced this. However, Table 5 shows there were differences in the opinions of teachers and headteachers as to how often they experienced this aspect of supervision. All the headteachers (100%) said they sometimes or always evaluated teachers' instructional practices, while 80 percent of teachers indicated they sometimes or always experienced that aspect. A Chi-square test of significance showed statistically significant differences between the opinions of teachers and headteachers on how often supervisors evaluated teachers' classroom practices (χ^2=10.207, df=3, p=0.017). Figure 3a presents the pictorial form of how respondents' opinions differ on this issue.
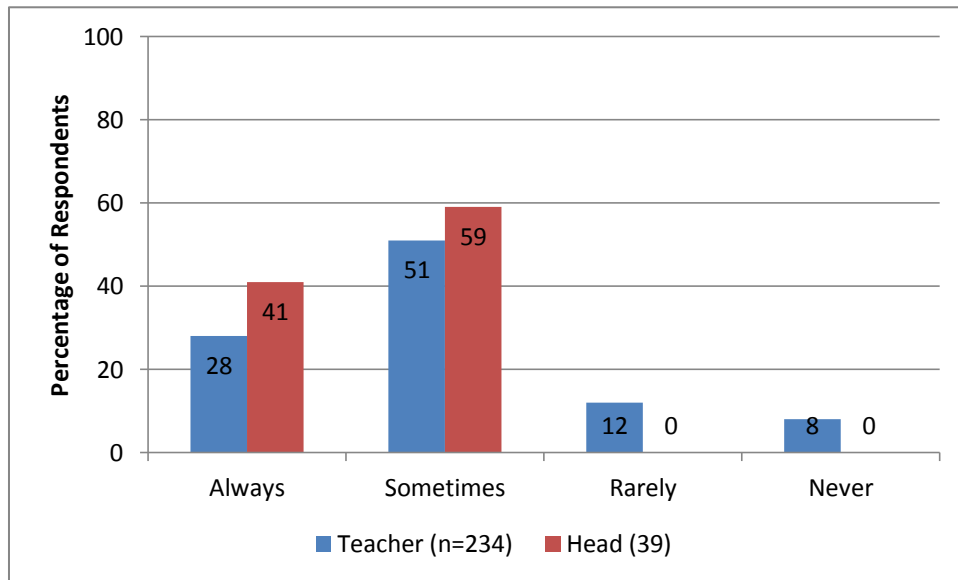
Figure 3a. Evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

As shown in Table 5, 51 percent of all respondents indicated that they sometimes experienced the practice where supervisors assessed teachers' content knowledge. However, there were differences between teacher and headteacher respondents on how often they experienced this supervisory practice. While 62 percent of headteachers responded that supervisors sometimes assessed teachers' content knowledge, only 49 percent of the teachers responded in the same manner. Similarly, 95 percent of headteachers said they sometimes or always assessed teachers' content knowledge. In contrast, 67 percent of teachers said they experienced this practice. There was a statistically significant difference between opinions of the two groups of respondents on this issue (χ^2=13.417, df=3, p=0.004). The column bar below (Figure 3b) shows how respondents differed in their opinions on this supervisory practice.
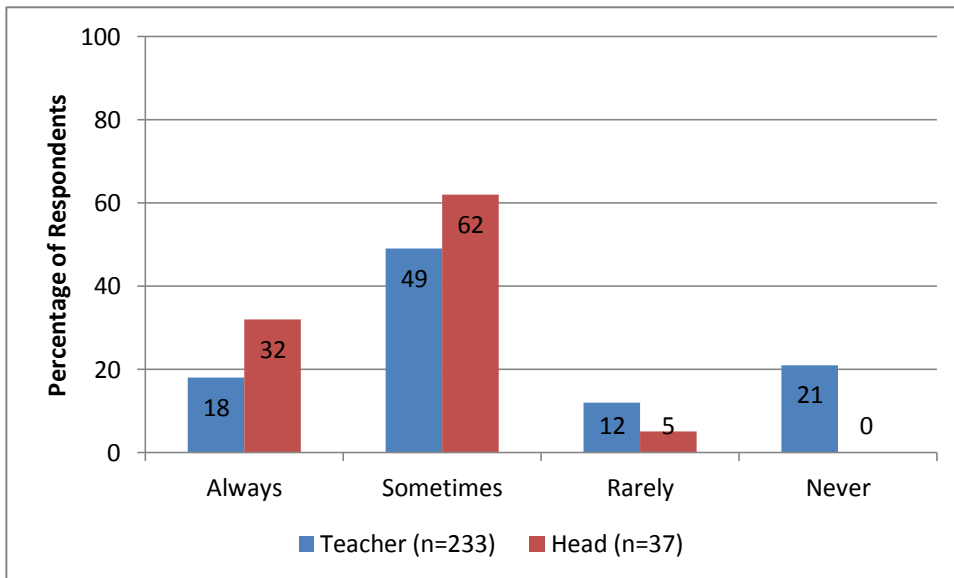
Figure 3b. Assessing teachers' content knowledge: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

When respondents were asked to indicate how often supervisors ensured that teachers made good use of instructional time, most respondents (73%) said they experienced this practice always. However, Table 5 shows differences between teachers and headteachers on this practice. The results show that while 70 percent of teachers indicated their supervisors always ensured they made good use of instructional time, 90 percent of headteachers were of the same opinion. The difference in responses between the two groups was statistically significant (χ^2=7.938, df=3, p=0.047).

The column graph below shows a very small percentage of respondents indicated that they rarely or never experienced the practice where supervisors ensure that teachers made good use of instructional time. The chart also portrays the differences in opinions on this aspect of supervision. Again, as compared to teachers, a greater percentage of headteachers thought they were performing this activity always.
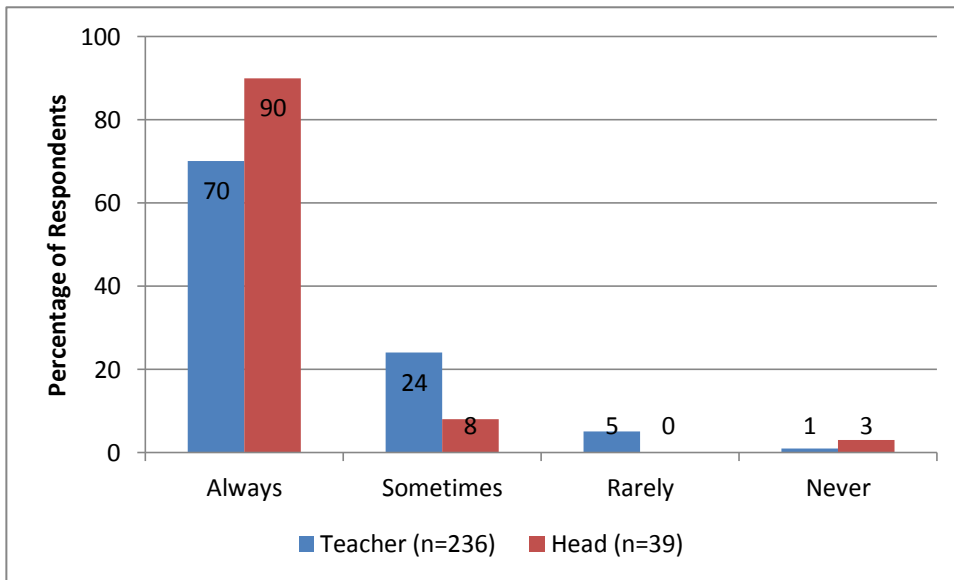
Figure 3c. Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time: teachers' and
headteachers' experiences

On the question as to how often supervisors made informal visits to classrooms, almost 70 percent of all respondents indicated they experienced this sometimes. Table 5 further shows that more than eighty percent of each group of respondents said they always or sometimes observed supervisors making informal visits to classrooms. There were not large differences between teachers' and headteachers' responses on this issue. A majority of the two groups of participants (67% teachers and 62% of headteachers) reported that supervisors sometimes made informal visits to classrooms. Figure 3d below shows that all the various responses from the two categories of respondents were almost the same; even though the proportion of heads who said this happened always is higher than that of teachers.
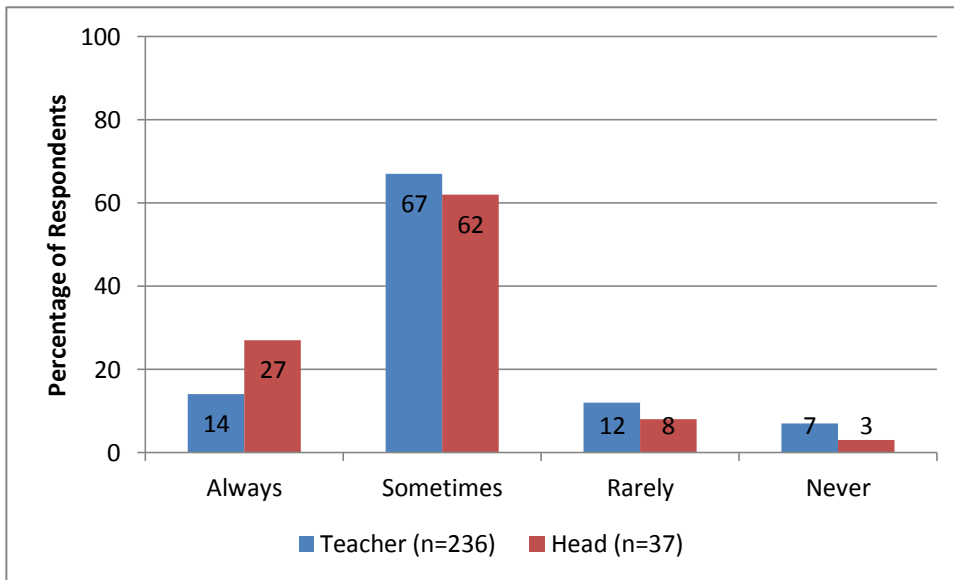
Figure 3d. Making informal visits to classrooms: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

As to how often supervisors formally observed teaching and learning, a majority of all participants (62%) said they sometimes experienced this practice. Table 5 further shows that almost the same percentage of the two groups of participants reported that this practice was observed sometimes and rarely. Only one headteacher had never practised lesson observation. The bar graph below shows where the differences and similarities existed.
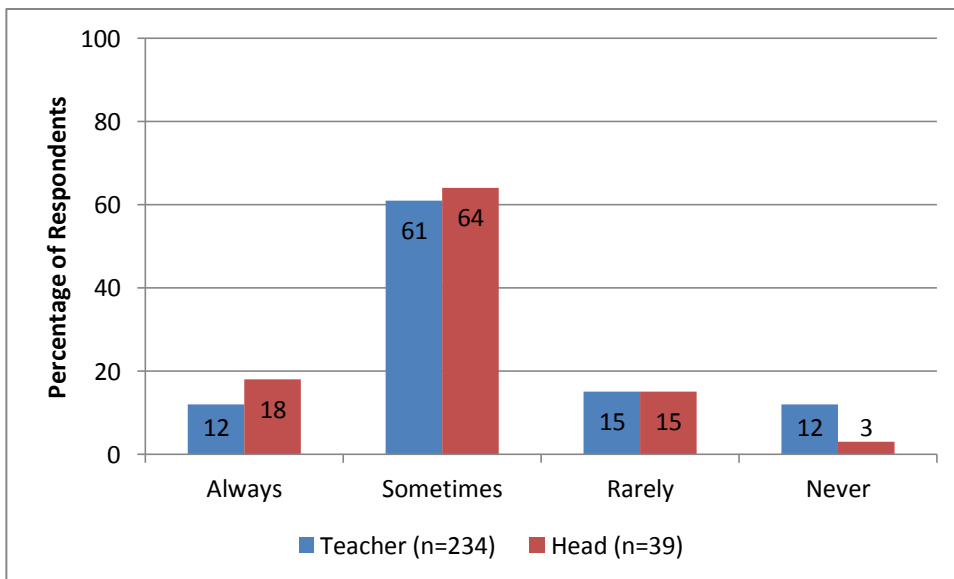
Figure 3e. Formally observing teaching and learning: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

The results from Table 5 show that high percentage of both groups of respondents provided similar response to all the five items in this category. A majority of teachers and headteachers reported that supervisors always ensured that teachers made good use of instructional time. A plurality of teachers and a majority of heads reported that supervisors sometimes assessed teachers' content knowledge (of the subject matter), but a majority of both groups of respondents said they experienced the remaining three issues sometimes. Despite that higher percentage of both groups responded similarly to all items in this category, there were statistically significant differences in percentage responses for the first three items (evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices, assessing teachers' content knowledge, and ensuring that teachers made good use of instructional time).

Leadership skills in supervision. Leadership skills selected for this study were: 1) Praising teachers for specific teaching behaviour; 2) Establishing open and trusting relationships with teachers; and 3) Treating teachers with respect and caring. Table 6 below shows the distribution of participants' responses.

Table 6

Distribution of Respondents by How Often They Experienced Leadership Skills

Item		Responses				
		Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Praising teachers for specific teaching behaviour.	Teacher	69 (29)	117 (49)	29 (12)	22 (9)	237
	Head	10 (25)	25 (63)	5 (13)	0 (0)	40
	Total	79 (29)	142 (51)	34 (12)	22 (8)	277
Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers.	Teacher	121 (51)	66 (28)	32 (13)	19 (8)	238
	Head	31 (78)	6 (15)	3 (8)	0 (0)	40
	Total	152 (55)	72 (26)	35 (13)	19 (7)	278
Treating teachers with sense of caring and respect.	Teacher	132 (56)	74 (31)	18 (8)	14 (6)	238
	Head	32 (80)	3 (8)	4 (10)	1 (3)	40
	Total	164 (59)	77 (28)	22 (8)	15 (5)	278

Note. Percentages are in parentheses

Table 6 shows that teacher and headteacher respondents reported that supervisors always established open and trusting relationships with teachers, as well as treated them

(teachers) professionally with a sense of caring and respect. However, a plurality of teachers (49%) and a majority of headteachers (63%) said praising teachers for specific teaching behaviour occurred sometimes, but not always.

Even though greater percentages of teachers and headteachers responded similarly to all the three items under leadership skills, there were differences in percentage values. Table 6 shows while the majority (51%) of teacher and headteacher respondents indicated supervisors sometimes praised their teachers for specific teaching behaviour, a plurality of teachers (49%) and a majority of headteachers (63%) indicated they experienced this aspect of supervision sometimes. The survey showed that most respondents (80%) indicated that supervisors always or sometimes praised teachers for specific teaching behaviour. At least, every headteacher rarely exhibited this behaviour. Figure 4a below shows responses from the two groups of respondents.
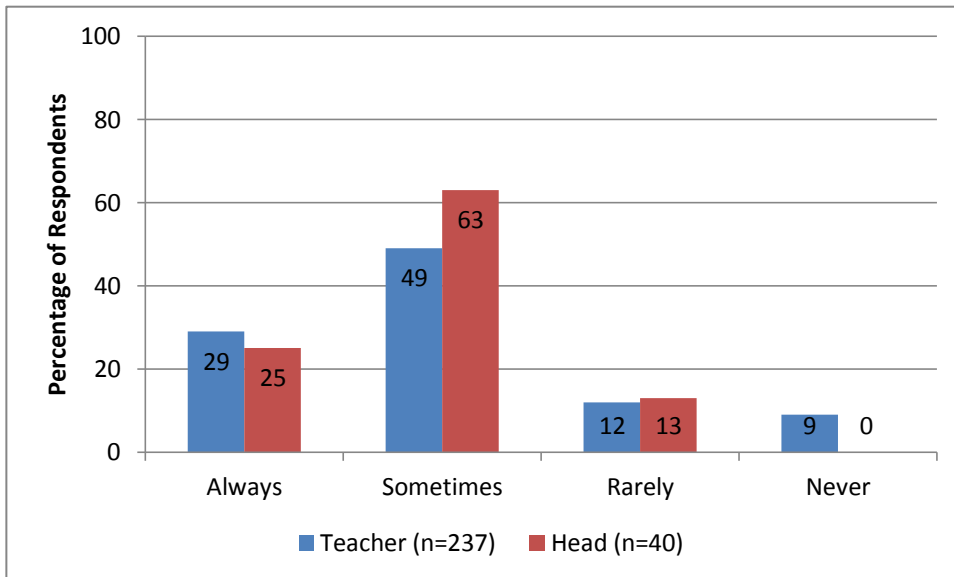
Figure 4a. Praising teachers for specific teaching behaviour: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

As to how often supervisors established open and trusting relationships with teachers, a majority of teacher and headteacher respondents (81%) indicated they had always or sometimes experienced such situations. Table 6 further shows more than half of the two

groups of respondents (55%) were of the opinion that supervisors always established open and trusting relationship with teachers. However, the results showed the two groups of respondents had different opinions as to how each group perceived the occurrence of this issue in their respective schools. While 78 percent of headteachers said they always exhibited this behaviour, 51 percent of teachers said they always found this behaviour with their heads. There was a statistically significant difference between teachers and headteachers on how often the latter exhibited open and trusting relationships with teachers (χ^2=10.749, df=3, p=0.013). Figure 4b graphically compares how the two groups of respondents differ in this respect.
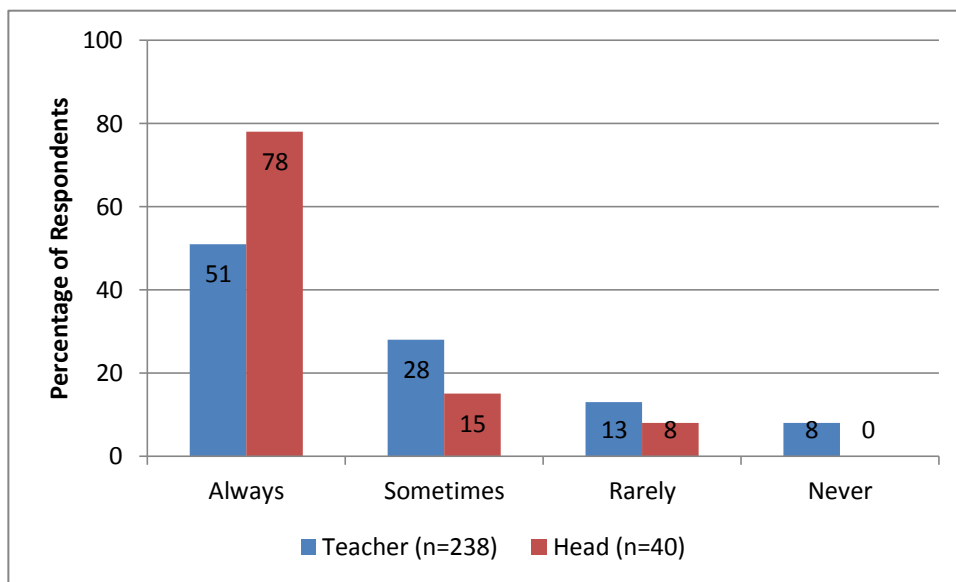
Figure 4b. Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers: teachers' and
headteachers' experiences

When respondents were asked to indicate how often supervisors exhibited the skill of treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect, a majority of them (59%) said this happened always. Table 6 further shows that 87 percent of the respondents said they always or sometimes experienced this skill. Almost the same percentage of the two groups of respondents indicated supervisors always or sometimes treated teachers with sense of caring and respect, but they differed in their opinions as to whether this happened always. While 56

percent of teachers said supervisors always treated teachers with respect and a sense of caring, 80 percent of headteachers held this opinion. There was a statistically significant difference between teacher's and headteachers' opinions on this aspect (χ^2=11.360, df=3, p=0.010). The differences between the opinions of the two groups of respondents are portrayed on a column graph below.
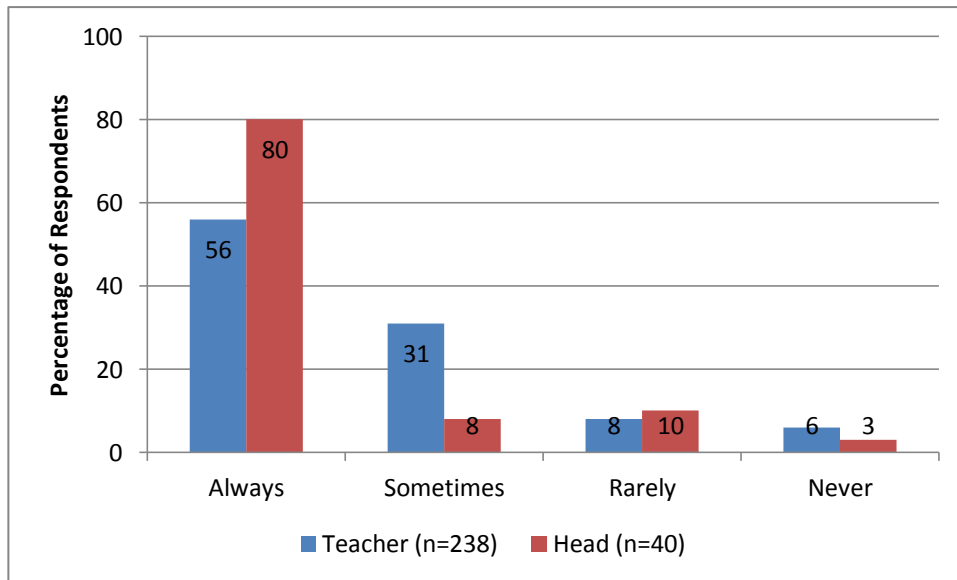
Figure 4c. Treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

A greater percentage of both respondents were in agreement in their opinions on all the three items in this category, albeit with significant differences in percentage responses. A majority of the teachers and headteachers indicated supervisors were always found to have established open and trusting relationships with teachers, as well as treating them (teachers) professionally with a sense of caring and respect. But there were statistically significant differences between teachers' and headteachers' responses on how often the latter treated teachers with care and respect. The results also showed a plurality of teachers and majority of headteachers reported that supervisors sometimes (not always) praised teachers for specific teaching behaviour.

Professional development in supervision. Four issues were selected under

professional development. 1) Demonstrating teaching techniques; 2) Providing objective

feedback about classroom observations; 3) Providing in-service workshops to teachers; and 4)

Implementing action research in their schools. In this category, either a majority or plurality

of both teacher and headteacher respondents indicated each supervisory practice happened

sometimes, but not always.

Table 7

Distribution of Respondents by How Often They Experienced Professional Development

| Item | | Responses | | | | |
		Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Demonstrating teaching	Teacher	28 (12)	109 (46)	48 (20)	52 (22)	237
techniques.	Head	4(11)	23 (62)	8 (22)	2 (5)	37
	Total	32 (12)	132 (48)	56 20)	54 (20)	274
Providing objective	Teacher	53 (22)	108 (45)	30 (13)	47 (20)	238
feedback about	Head	10 (26)	23 (61)	5 (13)	0 (0.0)	38
classroom observation.	Total	63 (23)	131 (48)	35 (13)	47 (17)	276
Providing in-service	Teacher	35 (15)	115 (49)	48 (20)	38 (16)	236
workshops to teachers	Head	6 (15)	24 (62)	6 (15)	3 (8)	39
to develop their skills.	Total	41 (15)	139 (51)	54 (20)	41 (15)	275
Implementing the use of	Teacher	34 (14)	91 (38)	50 (21)	63 (27)	238
action research in the	Head	7 (18)	20 (50)	9 (23)	4 (10)	40
school.	Total	41 (15)	111 (40)	59 (21)	67 (24)	278

Note. Percentages are in parentheses

In this category, Table 7 shows that a majority or plurality of each group of

respondents said they sometimes experienced all the aspects of supervision. The results

further showed that larger percentages of heads than teachers always or sometimes

experienced all the four aspects of supervision. Heads thought they provided all those aspects

of supervision under professional development more often than teachers perceived.

Table 7 shows a plurality of the two groups of respondents (48%) were of the opinion

that supervisors sometimes demonstrated teaching techniques to teachers. The results further

showed that a plurality of teacher respondents (46%) and 62 percent of the headteachers were

of this opinion. Similarly, while 73 percent of headteachers were of the opinion that they

demonstrated teaching techniques, 58 percent of the teachers held this view. Even though this

difference in opinion is relatively high, a Chi-square test showed there were no statistically significant differences between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on this aspect of supervision (χ^2=6.234, df=3, p=0.101). Figure 5a compares teachers' and headteachers' opinions on the frequency with which supervisors demonstrated teaching techniques. A greater proportion of headteachers thought they performed this activity with much frequency than teachers thought supervisors did.
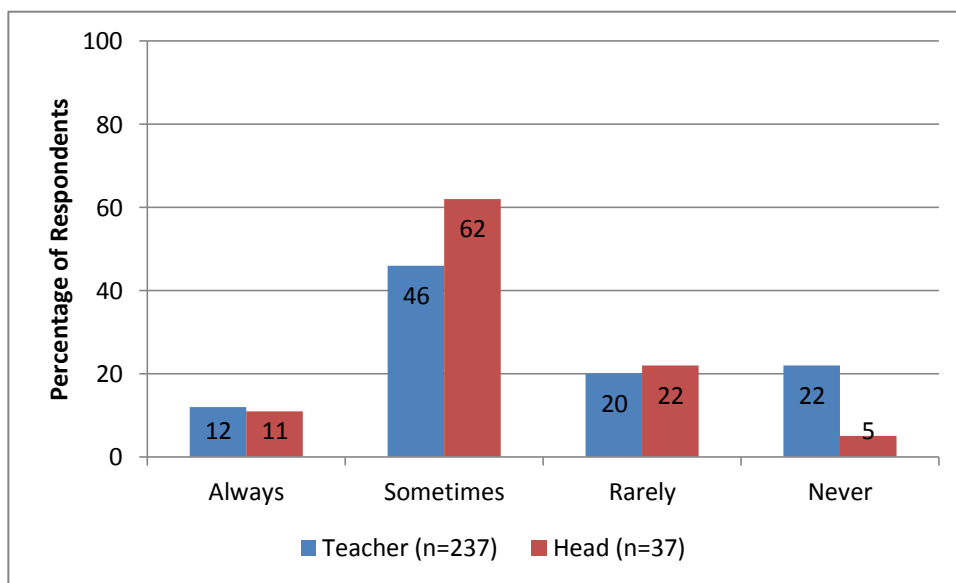
Figure 5a. Demonstrating teaching techniques: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

Teachers' and headteachers' opinions about the practice where supervisors provide objective feedback about classroom observations were similar to the previous item (demonstrating teaching techniques to teachers). Table 7 shows that a plurality of the two groups of respondents (48%) said supervisors sometimes provided objective feedback about classroom observations to teachers. However, while 45 percent of teachers indicated that they experienced this practice sometimes, a majority (61%) of headteachers said they practised this aspect sometimes. Results further showed 87 percent of headteachers said they sometimes or always provided objective feedback about classroom observations to teachers, while 68 percent of teachers responded in a similar way. Again, as compared with teachers' responses,

a much larger proportion of heads believed they were performing this supervisory activity always or sometimes.

A Chi-square test showed a statistically significant difference between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on this issue (χ^2=9.331, df=3, p=0.025). Figure 5b shows how respondents experienced this supervisory practice.
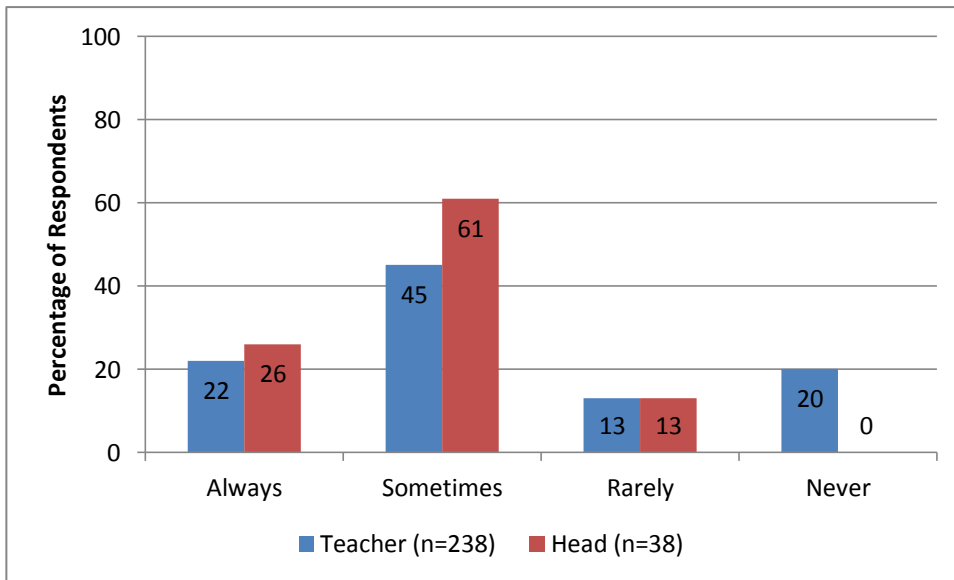
Figure 5b. Providing objective feedback about classroom observation: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

Results from the survey also showed a little over 50 percent of respondents were of the opinion that supervisors sometimes provided in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills. However, a greater percentage of headteachers (62%) than teachers (49%) said this practice occurred sometimes. Similarly, Table 7 shows that while 77 percent of headteachers opined they always or sometimes provided in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills, 64 percent of teachers responded to the issue in the same manner. Figure 5c below shows how responses to this issue are distributed.
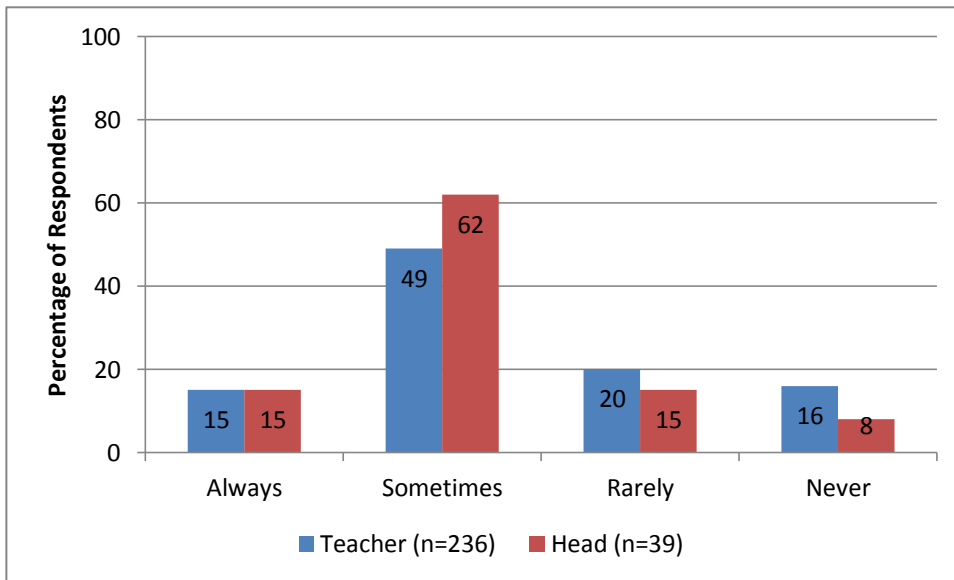
Figure 5c. Providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

On the issue of how often supervisors implemented the use of action research in their schools, a plurality of the teachers and headteachers (40%) said they observed it sometimes. But there were slight differences in percentages of teachers and headteachers on this issue. Table 7 shows that while half of the headteachers were of the opinion that they sometimes implemented action research in their respective schools, 38 percent of the teachers found supervisors perform this activity. The results also showed 68 percent of headteachers and 53 percent of teachers indicated that supervisors sometimes implemented action research in their schools. These results are further illustrated in a column graph below.
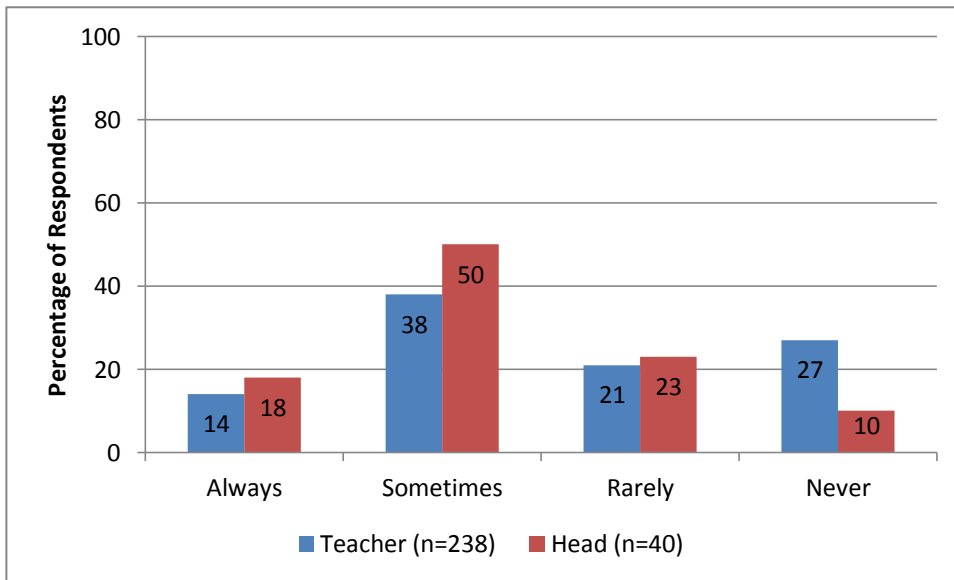
Figure 5d. Implementing action research in the schools: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

In this category, teacher and headteacher respondents provided similar responses to how often they experienced this aspect of supervision under professional development. Both groups of participants reported that all the practices selected under professional development did occur sometimes, but not always. But teachers were in agreement in their responses to the various items in this category than headteachers. For all four items in this category, a plurality of teachers and a majority of headteachers said they sometimes experienced each aspect of professional development. The results also showed that implementing the use of action research was the issue least experienced (always and sometimes) by both the two groups of respondents in this category. Even though the two groups of respondents said they experienced all the practices sometimes, there were statistically significant differences between their opinions for the first two items (demonstrating teaching techniques and providing objective feedback about classroom observation).

Collaboration in supervision. This sub-section sought the opinions of participants on how often supervisors involved teachers in selected aspects of the supervision processes. The four items selected under collaboration were: 1) Engaging teachers in mutual dialogue about

ways to improve instruction; 2) Conferencing with teachers to plan lesson observation; 3)

Providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction; and, 4)

Encouraging teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes. Results from

respondents are shown in Table 8 below.

Table 8

Distribution of Respondents by How Often They Experienced Collaboration in their Schools

| Item | | Responses | | | | |
		Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never	Total
Engaging teachers in	Teacher	92 (39)	109 (46)	27 (11)	10 (4)	238
mutual dialogue to	Head	18 (46)	19 (49)	1 (3)	1 (3)	39
improve instruction.	Total	110 (40)	128 (46)	28 (10)	11 (4)	277
Conferencing with	Teacher	27 (11)	105 (44)	52 (22)	56 (23)	240
teacher to plan for	Head	3 (8)	23 (59)	10 (26)	3 (8)	39
lesson observation.	Total	30 (11)	128 (46)	62 (22)	59 (21)	279
Providing opportunities						
for teachers to meet and	Teacher	47 (20)	104 (44)	41 (18)	42 (18)	234
share ideas about	Head	6 (15)	27 (69)	4 (10)	2 (5)	39
instruction.	Total	53 (19)	131 (48)	45 (17)	44 (16)	273
Encouraging teachers to						
observe other teachers'	Teacher	34 (15)	83 (35)	43 (18)	75 (32)	235
classrooms and	Head	5 (13)	18 (45)	10 (25)	7 (18)	40
programmes.	Total	39 (14)	59 (37)	53 (19)	82 (30)	275

Note. Percentages are in parentheses

As to how often respondents experienced a situation where supervisors engaged

teachers in mutual dialogue to improve instruction, a plurality (46%) said they did so

sometimes. The distribution shows that a plurality of both the teachers (46%) and

headteachers (49%) were of the same opinion. These are detailed in Table 8 above. The study

showed that more than three-quarters of both groups of respondents (86 %) held the opinions

that supervisors always or sometimes engaged teachers in mutual dialogue about ways to

improve instruction. A majority of teachers (85%) and headteachers (95%) said supervisors

practised this aspect always or sometimes. The bar graph (Figure 6a) shows graphically how

respondents experienced this practice.
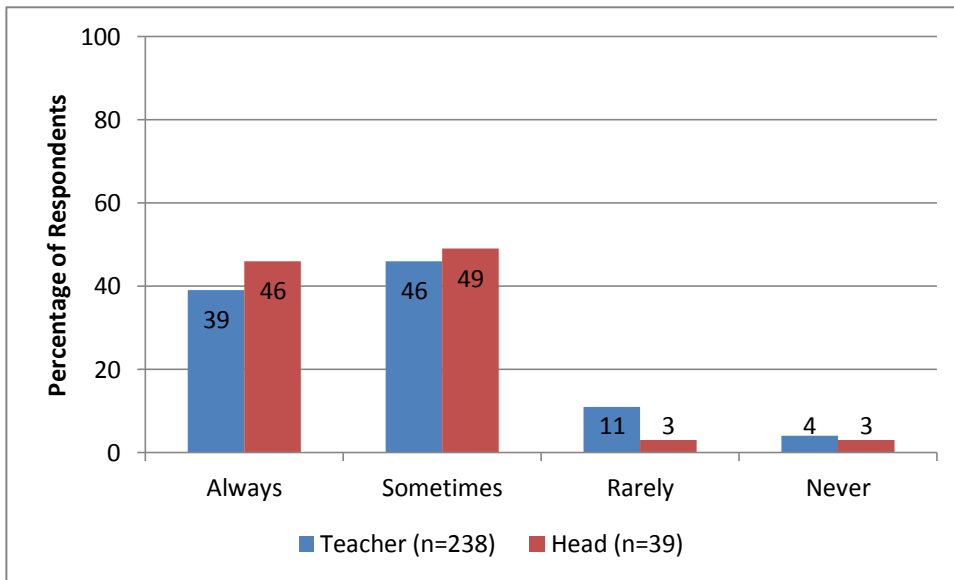
Figure 6a. Engaging teachers in mutual dialogue to improve instruction: teachers' and
headteachers' experiences

When the issue of how often supervisors held pre-observation conferences with teachers

was raised, a plurality of teachers and headteachers (46%) was of the opinion that the practice

occurred sometimes. But there was a slight difference between the percentage of teachers and

that of headteachers in response to this activity. A majority of headteachers (59%) and a

plurality of teachers (44%) reported that supervisors sometimes held conference with teachers

to plan lesson observation. A pictorial representation of these results is found in Figure 6b

below.
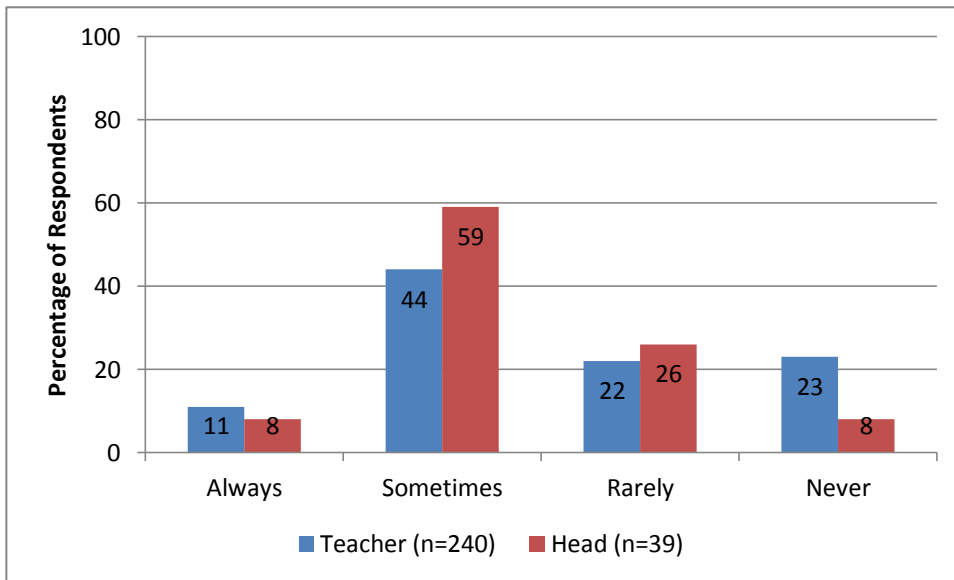
Figure 6b. Conferencing with teachers to plan for lesson observation: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

Results from Table 8 also show a plurality of the two groups of participants (48%) reported that supervisors sometimes provided opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction. However there were differences between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on this issue. Table 8 further shows that a greater proportion of headteachers (69%) than teachers (44%) responded to the issue in the same manner. Similarly, 85 percent of headteachers and 65 percent of teachers opined supervisors always or sometimes provided opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction. A Chi-square test showed there was a statistically significant difference between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on how often the latter performed this aspect of instructional supervision (χ^2=9.140, df=3, p=0.027). Figure 6c shows how the two groups of respondents experienced this supervisory practice.
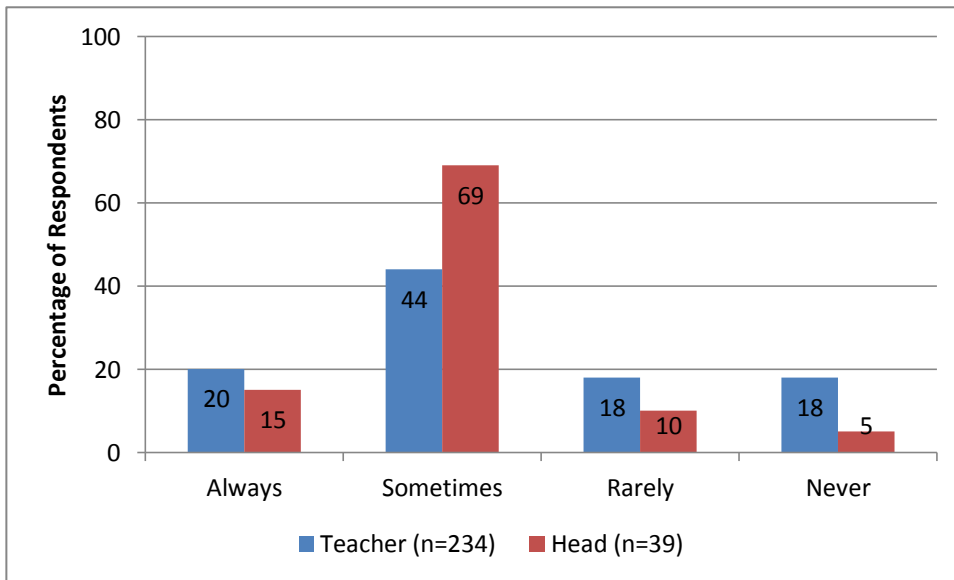
Figure 6c. Providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

When respondents were asked to indicate how often they experienced situations where supervisors encouraged teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes, less than 40 percent (a plurality) said they experienced the practice sometimes. The distribution further shows that a plurality of headteachers (45%) and teachers (35%) experienced this aspect of supervision. Table 8 further shows lightly less than half the teachers were of the opinion that this happened always or sometimes, while 58 percent of headteachers were of that opinion. These results are further illustrated in the column graph below.
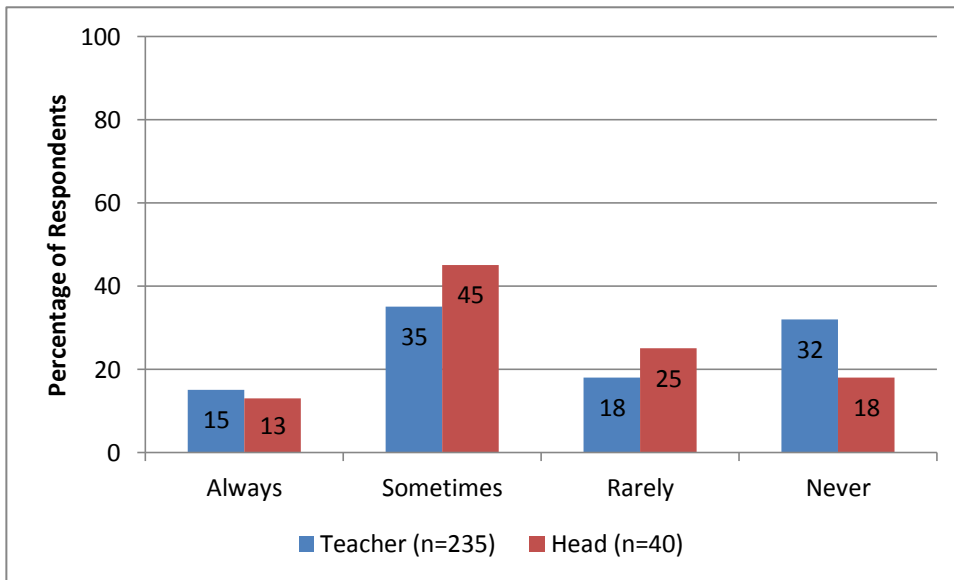
Figure 6d. Encouraging teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes: teachers' and headteachers' experiences

Responses to items in this category are not different from the previous ones in terms of similarity. Participants consistently said supervisors promoted collaboration in supervision in their schools sometimes, but not always. A plurality of teachers was of the opinion that they experienced all the practices in this category sometimes. Headteachers were of the same opinion but while a plurality of them said they sometimes engaged teachers in mutual dialogue to improve instruction as well as encouraging peer observation, a majority of them experienced the other two practices sometimes. There was a significant difference between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on how often supervisors provided opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction.

Section Summary

In this subsection, while respondents were in agreement in their opinions on how often they experienced most aspects of supervisory practices or activities, they differed in a few items. The two groups of respondents were almost agreed with how they experienced instructional practices under the following categories: oversight responsibilities; leadership skills; professional development; and, collaboration. However, in the traditional supervision

and assistance and support categories, respondents had divergent views in two items and one item respectively. In the "traditional supervision practices" category, teacher and headteacher participants gave different responses on two aspects of supervision: using control to affect teachers' instructional practices; and, inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors. In the "assistance and support" category, respondents were split in their views on how often supervisors helped find solutions to problems teachers encountered in their instructional practices.

The survey results also showed that while more than 60 percent of each group of respondents said they always or sometimes experienced some practices, there were a few items in which small percentages of respondents said they always or sometimes experienced them. In the traditional supervision and assistance and support categories, less than 50 percent of respondents said they experienced a situation where supervisors used control to effect instruction and provided teachers with professional literature respectively. Apart from these two items, there was one other item under collaboration in the supervision category in which a lower percentage of respondents said it occurred always or sometimes. Almost 51 percent of the participants reported that supervisors encouraged teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes.

On the whole, there were fourteen (14) items in which large percentage differences between teachers' and headteachers' opinions were observed. There were ten out of the fourteen items in which the differences were statistically significant. There was only one item (inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors) in which a greater proportion of teachers reported that they experienced the practice more often than heads. Table 9 below displays these results.

Table 9

Items showing Significant Differences between Teachers' and Headteachers' Opinions

Item	Chi-square	Df	P value	S/NS
Using control to affect teachers' instructional practices.	6.341	3	0.096	NS
Inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors.	15.178	3	0.002	S
Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices.	4.216	3	0.239	NS
Readily availing him/herself for instructional advice and support.	16.512	3	0.001	S
Evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices.	10.207	3	0.017	S
Assessing teachers' content knowledge.	13.417	3	0.004	S
Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time.	7.938	3	0.047	S
Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices.	7.765	3	0.051	NS
Ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching-learning materials to teach.	16.380	3	0.001	S
Providing objective feedback about classroom observations.	9.331	3	0.025	S
Demonstrating teaching techniques to teachers to improve their instructional practices.	6.234	3	0.101	NS
Providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction.	9.140	3	0.027	S
Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers.	10.749	3	0.013	S
Treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect.	11.360	3	0.010	S

Note. df = degrees of freedom, S/NS = significant/not significant

The general impression is that a higher percentage of heads reported they were performing various aspects of supervisory practices more often than teachers thought the supervisors (heads) were doing. This trend may be explained by the fact that headteachers supervised multiple teachers, while six or more teachers were been supervised by one headteacher in a school setting. Moreover, teachers did not have as high a stake in the supervisory process as headteachers.

How Respondents thought Supervision of Instruction Should Be Practised

In this sub-section, findings from the two groups of respondents about how they thought supervision of instruction should be practised are presented. Respondents were asked to

indicate the degree of their agreement or disagreement to the same items discussed above. Responses were grouped in the same six categories as in the previous sub-section and summarised in frequency distribution tables showing percentages. I further compared the responses with those on the left hand side of the questionnaire (how respondents experienced supervision of instruction in their schools) to determine if there existed some commonalities between the two.

Traditional supervision practices. In this category, a larger proportion of teachers and headteachers responded in the same direction to two items and differed in one. In the first and third items a majority or plurality of both groups of respondents agreed with the propositions, but while a plurality of teachers disagreed with the second item, a plurality of heads agreed with it. Table 10 shows the details.

Table 10

Distribution of Respondents' Opinions on Aspects of Traditional Supervision

Item		Responses				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total (100)
Suggesting to teachers how they should teach.	Teacher	42 (18)	145 (60)	39 (16)	14 (6)	240
	Head	12 (30)	22 (55)	6 (15)	0 (0)	40
	Total	54 (19)	167 (60)	45 (16)	14 (5)	280
Using control to affect instruction.	Teacher	22 (9)	69 (29)	94 (40)	53 (22)	238
	Head	3 (8)	16 (41)	14 (36)	6 (15)	39
	Total	25 (9)	85 (31)	108 (39)	59 (21)	277
Inspecting instructional practices for errors.	Teacher	41 (17)	113 (48)	42 (18)	40 (17)	236
	Head	7 (19)	16 (43)	10 (27)	4 (11)	37
	Total	48 (18)	129 (47)	52 (19)	44 (16)	273

Note. Percentages are in parentheses

The table shows that both groups of respondents were relatively in agreement with how they viewed a practice where supervisors should suggest to teachers how they should teach. A majority of teacher and headteacher respondents (60% and 55% respectively) said they agreed with this practice. While 78 percent of teachers and 85 percent of headteachers said they

strongly agree or agree to this practice, 84 and 98 percent of teachers and heads respectively experienced this aspect of supervision. As compared to teachers, a much larger percentage of heads thought they practised this aspect of supervision more often than they would like it to be.

Respondents slightly differed in their opinions as to whether supervisors should use control to affect teachers' instructional practices. Results from the survey showed that while a plurality of teachers (40%) disagreed that supervisors should use control to affect instruction, a plurality of headteachers (41%) agreed with this proposition. However, more than half of each group of respondents would not like this aspect of supervision to be practised. The results further showed that while 44 percent of teachers and 60 percent of heads experienced this aspect of supervision, 38 and 49 percent respectively were in favour of it. The comparison on both sides of the item showed that both groups of respondents experienced this aspect of supervision more often than they would have wished. But a much larger proportion of heads than teachers experienced, as well as was in favour of this practice.

On the issue of whether supervisors should inspect instructional practices for errors, teachers were found to be consistent on both sides of this item, while heads were not. While the same percentage of teachers (65%) experienced the practice as often as they would like to see, a larger percentage of heads (62%) were in favour of this practice than they those who often experienced it. But a plurality of teachers (48%) and headteachers (43%) said they agree to this aspect of supervision. Table 10 shows almost the same percentage of the two groups of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this supervisory practice. The comparison showed that heads could not practise this aspect of supervision as often as teachers thought the former were doing, but almost the same percentage of both groups would like to see this aspect of supervision being practised.

In this category, teacher and headteacher respondents had similar opinions on two issues and differed on one. Both groups of respondents would like to see supervisors suggest to teachers how they should teach more often than they experienced it. But while teachers responded in a similar direction to both sides of the item, heads thought they could not carry out the activity of inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors as often as they wanted. Even though both groups of respondents were not in favour of the idea of supervisors using control to affect instruction, heads used this practice quite frequently.

Assistance and support in supervision. In this category, greater percentages of both groups of respondents were in favour of all the practices, but there were differences in their individual responses. Table 11 shows the distribution of responses in this category.

Table 11

Distribution of Respondents' Opinions on Aspects of Assistance and Support

Item		Responses				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instruction.	Teacher	116 (49)	114 (48)	3 (1)	5 (2)	238
	Head	28 (70)	12 (30)	0 (0)	0 (0)	40
	Total	144 (52)	126 (45)	3 (1)	5 (2)	278
Readily availing self for advice and instructional support.	Teacher	104 (44)	118 (50)	11 (5)	5 (2)	238
	Head	21 (54)	17 (44)	1 (3)	0 (0)	39
	Total	125 (45)	135 (49)	12 (4)	5 (2)	277
Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices.	Teacher	103 (44)	126 (53)	6 (3)	2 (1)	237
	Head	27 (68)	13 (33)	0 (0)	0 (0)	40
	Total	130 (47)	139 (50)	6 (2)	2 (1)	277
Ensuring teachers have adequate teaching materials to teach.	Teacher	131 (55)	91 (38)	12 (5)	3 (1)	237
	Head	33 (83)	6 (15)	1 (3)	0 (0)	40
	Total	164 (59)	97 (35)	13 (5)	3 (1)	277
Providing teachers with professional literature.	Teacher	77 (33)	134 (57)	20 (8)	6 (3)	237
	Head	14 (36)	20 (51)	5 (13)	0 (0)	39
	Total	91 (33)	154 (56)	25 (9)	6 (2)	276

Note. Percentages are given in parentheses

As to whether supervisors should help teachers find solutions to problems they encountered in their instructional practices, a greater proportion of headteachers strongly agreed than teachers did. A large proportion of headteachers (70%) strongly agreed with this

practice than did teachers (49%). This difference is quite large. However, a Chi-square test showed there were no statistically significant differences between the opinions of the two groups (χ^2=6.753, df=3, p=0.080). Almost all teacher and headteacher respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. A comparison of responses on both sides showed that almost the same percentages of respondents experienced the practice always or sometimes, as well as strongly agreed or agreed with the practice. Both groups of respondents would like to see this aspect of supervision practised in their schools as often as they currently experienced it.

When respondents were asked about their views on the proposition that supervisors should readily avail themselves to teachers for advice and instructional support, teachers and headteachers provided dissenting views. Table 11 shows how they responded. While 50 percent of teachers said they agree, a majority of headteachers (54%) strongly agreed. However, these differences were not significant. More than 90 percent of each group of respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with this issue. The comparison showed that almost the same percentage of respondents experienced the practice often as those who strongly agreed or agreed with it. But a much larger percentage of heads always experienced the practice (78%) than those who strongly agreed (54%) to it.

When it came to the question as to whether supervisors should offer useful suggestions to teachers improve their instructional practices, a majority of teachers (53%) agreed while a majority of headteachers (68%) strongly agreed. The proportion of headteachers who said they strongly agree to this practice was much larger than that of teachers. However, almost all the teacher and headteacher respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this practice. The percentage of respondents who often experienced this practice is similar to those who endorsed this aspect of supervision. Heads were consistent on both sides of the item: the same percentage (68%) strongly agreed with the practice as those who experienced it always.

On the issue of whether supervisors should ensure that teachers had adequate teaching materials to teach, a majority of teachers (55%) and headteachers (83%) strongly agreed with this. The differences between the teachers' and headteachers' opinions were statistically significant (χ^2=10.620, df=3, p=0.014). However, almost the same percentage of each group of respondents said they either strongly agree or agree to this issue. A slightly higher proportion of both groups of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the practice than they always or sometimes experienced it. Teachers would like to be provided with adequate teaching-learning materials more often than they experienced them.

Providing teachers with professional literature is the item in this category which both groups of respondents were almost consistent in their opinions. A majority of teachers (57%), as well as headteachers (51%) agreed with this supervisory practice. Similarly, while 33 percent of teachers strongly agreed with this issue 36 percentage of headteachers shared the same view. Table 11 shows that while almost 90 percent of both groups of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the supervisory practice where supervisors provide teachers with professional literature, 47 and 57 percent of teachers and heads respectively always or sometimes experienced this practice. Respondents would like the provision of professional literature to be part of supervision than they currently experienced it.

In this category, both groups of respondents shared similar opinions on three items and differed on two. However, a great majority of both groups of respondents said they either strongly agree or agree to all the propositions. In four items, participants respondents in similar directions in the way they experienced the practices as well as they expected. But it was only the practice of providing teachers with professional literature that a much larger proportion of both groups of respondents were in favour, but less often experienced it.

Oversight responsibilities in supervision. In this category, the two groups of respondents held similar views as to how supervision of instruction should look like. Table 12

shows that majority of each group of the two respondents provided similar responses to all the five items in this category. A majority of teacher and headteacher respondents said they agree to four items, and strongly agree to one. A majority of teacher and headteacher respondents said they agree to the following supervisory practices: evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices; assessing teachers' content knowledge; making informal visits to classrooms; and, formally observing teaching and learning. Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time was the only supervisory practice with which a majority strongly agreed. Table 12 shows the distribution of responses in this category.

Table 12

Distribution of Respondents' Opinions on Aspects of Oversight Responsibilities

Item		Responses				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices.	Teacher	48 (20)	164 (69)	22 (9)	3 (1)	237
	Head	16 (40)	24 (60)	0 (0)	0 (0)	40
	Total	64 (23)	188 (68)	22 (8)	3 (1)	277
Assessing teachers' content knowledge.	Teacher	46 (20)	142 (63)	29 (13)	10 (4)	227
	Head	10 (28)	25 (69)	1 (3)	0 (0)	36
	Total	56 (21)	167 (64)	30 (11)	10 (4)	263
Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time.	Teacher	131 (55)	105 (44)	4 (2)	0 (0)	240
	Head	33 (83)	6 (15)	1 (3)	0 (0)	40
	Total	164 (59)	111 (40)	5 (2)	0 (0)	280
Making informal visits to classrooms.	Teacher	51 (22)	141 (60)	31 (13)	11 (5)	234
	Head	11 (28)	23 (59)	4 (10)	1 (3)	39
	Total	62 (23)	164 (60)	35 (13)	12 (4)	273
Formally observing teaching and learning.	Teacher	45 (19)	164 (69)	24 (10)	6 (3)	239
	Head	18 (45)	21 (53)	1 (3)	0 (0)	40
	Total	63 (23)	185 (66)	25 (9)	6 (2)	279

Note. Percentages are given in parentheses

In Table 12, a majority of teachers (69%) and headteachers (60%) agreed with the proposition that supervisors should evaluate teachers' classroom instructional practices. But a larger proportion of headteachers than teachers strongly agreed with this practice. A Chi-square test showed a statistically significant difference between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on this supervisory activity (χ^2=10.422, df=3, p =0.015). A quite larger percentage

of teachers were in favour of this practice than those who often experienced it. However, heads were in agreement with their responses to both sides on this practice.

The question of whether supervisors should assess teachers' content knowledge followed a similar pattern as the previous one. A majority of each group of respondents agreed with the proposition. But a quite higher percentage of heads than teachers strongly agreed or agreed with this practice. The comparison of how respondents experienced the practice with how they expected it to be practised showed that headteachers responded in a similar direction than teachers. Teachers would like to see their supervisors practise this aspect of supervision more often than they experienced.

A majority of each group of respondents strongly agreed that supervisors should ensure that teachers make good use of instructional time. But a much larger percentage of heads (83%) than teachers (55%) strongly agreed with this practice. On the other hand, while 44 percent of teachers agreed with this practice, only 15 percent of headteachers were of that view. This put the percentage of both groups of respondents who strongly agree or agree to this practice almost at par. When the results were subjected to a Chi-square test, a statistically significant difference between teachers' and headteachers' opinions emerged (χ^2=14.916, df=3, p=0.020). When responses on both sides of the item were compared, respondents currently experienced this practice as often as they think it should be practised. More than 90 percent of each group of respondents often experienced the practice, as well as they strongly agreed or agreed with it.

As to whether supervisors should make informal visits to classrooms, a similar majority of each group of respondents agreed with it. The results also showed that more than 80 percent of each group of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this practice. The comparison also showed that almost the same percentage of each group of respondents agreed or strongly agreed, as well as experienced it always or sometimes.

When respondents were asked to give their opinions on the supervisory practice for which supervisors formally observe teaching and learning, a majority of each group said they agree. However, a larger proportion of headteachers (45%) than teachers (19%) strongly agreed with this aspect of supervision. There were statistically significant differences between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on this aspect of supervision (χ^2=11.844, df=2, p=0.003). Differences between teachers' and headteachers' responses on both sides of the item were quite large. A comparison of responses on both sides of the item showed that while 73 and 82 percent of teachers and heads respectively always or sometimes experienced this aspect of supervision, 87 and 98 percent of them respectively strongly agreed or agreed with the practice. Respondents would like more frequent lesson observations than their supervisors currently provided.

In general, more than 80 percent of teacher and headteacher respondents said they strongly agree or agree to all five items in this category. While no headteacher strongly disagreed with four out of the five items in this category, there was only one item with which no teacher strongly disagreed (ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time). No headteacher strongly disagreed with this same supervisory either. The comparisons of both sides of the five items showed that participants would like to experience these practices more often than they currently do.

Leadership skills in supervision. Table 13 below shows how respondents favour supervisory behaviour in this category. The pattern of distribution of responses in this category is not different from the previous one. Larger proportions of teacher and headteacher respondents provided the same responses to each item in this category. A plurality of teachers and heads agreed with the first item, and a majority of both groups of respondents strongly agreed with the other two items.

Table 13

Distribution of Respondents' Opinions on Aspects of Leadership Skills

Item		Responses				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total (100)
Praising teachers for specific teaching behaviour.	Teacher	109 (46)	117 (49)	8 (3)	5 (2)	239
	Head	15 (38)	22 (55)	3 (8)	0 (0)	40
	Total	124 (44)	139 (50)	11 (4)	5 (2)	279
Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers.	Teacher	133 (56)	95 (40)	5 (2)	3 (1)	236
	Head	29 (73)	9 (23)	2 (5)	0 (0)	40
	Total	162 (59)	104 (38)	7 (3)	3 (1)	276
Treating teachers professionally with sense of caring and respect.	Teacher	139 (58)	84 (35)	9 (4)	7 (3)	239
	Head	26 (65)	9 (23)	4 (10)	1 (3)	40
	Total	165 (59)	93 (33)	13 (5)	8 (3)	279

Note. Percentages are in parentheses

Table 13 shows that a plurality of teachers (49%) and a majority of headteacher respondents (55%) said they agree to a practice where supervisors should praise teachers for specific teaching behaviour. The results further showed that more than 90 percent of each group of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this supervisor behaviour. When we compared responses on both sides of this item, we found that same percentage of teachers (49%) agreed with the practice as well as experienced it sometimes. But a larger percentage of teachers would like their heads to praise them more often for good work done than they experienced.

The results also showed a majority of teacher and headteacher respondents (56% and 73% respectively) strongly agreed with the proposal that supervisors should establish open and trusting relationship with teachers. On the other hand, while 40 percent of teachers agreed with this supervisory practice, only 23 percent of headteachers responded in the same manner. Even though these differences are quite large, a Pearson's Chi-square test indicated that the differences were not statistically significant (χ^2=6.008, df=3, p=0.111). This may be as a result that almost the same percentage of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this

aspect of supervision. The comparison on both sides of the item showed that while heads held similar opinions, teachers would like a more trusting relationship with their supervisors than they currently experienced.

On the supervisory behaviour of (supervisors) treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect, similar percentages of teacher and headteacher respondents held similar opinions. A very large percentage of teachers (93%) and heads (88%) strongly agreed or agreed with the practice. Table 13 further shows that a majority of teachers (58%) and headteachers (65%) said they strongly agree to this supervisory behaviour. The comparison showed that while teachers were relatively in agreement with their responses on both sides of this item, a larger percentage of heads (80%) said they always exhibited this behaviour than those (65%) who strongly agreed with the practice.

In general, more than 90 percent of both groups of respondents indicated they strongly agree or agree to all the three items in this category. Both teacher and headteacher respondents found all the three supervisory behaviour worthwhile. Among all three items in this category, slightly higher percentages of teachers strongly agreed or agreed than heads did. But heads thought they exhibited all the three behaviour (skills) more often than teachers reported they experienced them. This may be explained by the fact that on the left hand side of the items, heads might have thought that they were assessing themselves, while teachers were assessing their heads (supervisors).

Professional development in supervision. Results from four items in this category are presented in Table 14 above. In this category, greater percentages (majority or plurality) of both groups of respondents strongly agreed with the proposal in one item, but agreed with the other three items. A majority or plurality of teacher and headteacher respondents respectively said they agree to the other three supervisory practices: demonstrating teaching techniques (65% and 61%); providing objective feedback about classroom observation (61% and 56%);

and, implementing the use of action research in their schools (60% and 48%). But a majority
of teachers (52%) and heads (68%) strongly agreed supervisors should provide in-service
workshops to teachers.

Table 14

Distribution of Respondents' Opinions on Aspects of Professional Development

Item		Responses				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Demonstrating teaching techniques.	Teacher	48 (21)	150 (65)	25 (11)	9 (4)	232
	Head	11 (29)	23 (61)	4 (11)	0 (0)	38
	Total	59 (22)	173 (64)	29 (11)	9 (3)	270
Providing objective feedback about classroom observation.	Teacher	68 (29)	143 (61)	18 (8)	7 (3)	236
	Head	16 (41)	22 (56)	1 (3)	0 (0)	39
	Total	84 (31)	165 (60)	19 (7)	7 (3)	275
Providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills.	Teacher	124 (52)	106 (45)	3 (1)	4 (2)	237
	Head	27 (68)	10 (25)	3 (8)	0 (0)	40
	Total	151 (55)	116 (42)	6 (2)	4 (1)	277
Implementing the use of action research in the school.	Teacher	69 (29)	142 (60)	16 (7)	11 (5)	236
	Head	16 (40)	19 (48)	4 (10)	1 (3)	40
	Total	85 (31)	161 (58)	20 (7)	12 (4)	276

Note. Percentages are in parentheses

The results showed that teachers and headteachers were relatively consistent in their
opinions as to whether supervisors should demonstrate teaching techniques to help teachers
improve instruction. Similar percentages of both groups strongly agreed, as well as agreed
with this practice as shown in Table 14. When I compared the responses on both sides, I
found that a greater percentage of both groups of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that
supervisors should demonstrate teaching techniques to guide teachers than those who
observed the practice always or sometimes. But compared to heads, teachers would like more
demonstration teaching than their heads provided.

Results from Table 14 show that a majority of each group of respondents agreed to the
proposition that supervisors should provide objective feedback about classroom observation.
However, a quite greater percentage of heads (41%) strongly agreed than teachers (29%). The

results showed that about 90 percent of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this aspect of supervision. When I compared the responses on both sides of the item, I found that a larger percentage of respondents were in favour of the practice than those who often experienced it. The difference was higher among teacher respondents than headteachers. Teachers thought they received less feedback about lesson observation than they experienced.

In Table 14, a majority of teachers and headteachers (52% and 68% respectively) strongly agreed that supervisors should provide in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills. However, more than 90 percent of each group of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this proposition. A Chi-square test showed a statistically significant difference between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on this issue (χ^2=11.442, df=3, p=0.010). A comparison of responses on both sides of the item showed that 52 percent of teachers and 68 percent of heads strongly agreed with this practice, but about 15 percent of each group of respondents always experienced it. Similarly, while 64 and 77 percent of teachers and heads respectively experienced the practice always or sometimes, 97 and 93 percent of them respectively strongly agreed or agreed with this aspect of supervision. As compared to heads, teachers would like to receive much more in-service training to improve their instruction than they experienced.

When respondents were asked to express their opinions on the practice where supervisors are expected to implement the use of action research in their schools, Table 14 shows that almost the same percentage of teacher and headteacher respondents strongly agreed or agreed with it. The table further shows that a majority of teachers (60%) and a plurality of heads (48%) agreed with the practice, but a larger percentage of heads (40%) strongly agreed with this aspect of supervision than teachers (18%). Almost the same percentage of both groups of respondents (89% of teachers, and 88% of heads) strongly agreed or agreed with this practice. As found with the previous items, the comparison of

responses on both sides of the item showed that a larger proportion of respondents strongly agreed or agreed than those who always or sometimes experienced this supervisory practice (53 percent of teachers and 68 percent of heads). Again, a larger percentage of teachers than heads would like to experience much more action research than occurred in their schools.

In general, results from the survey showed that more than 75 percent of both groups of participants said they strongly agree or agree to all the four items in this category. Apart from one item (providing in-service workshop to teachers to develop their skills) with which a majority of both teacher and headteacher respondents strongly agreed, a higher percentage (majority or plurality) of respondents agreed with the other three. The comparison of responses on both sides of the items showed that each group of participants strongly agreed or agreed with all the four items than those who experienced the practices always or sometimes. Respondents would like to experience much more of all the practices under professional development than they currently experienced.

Collaboration in supervision. Table 15 shows the results from the two groups of respondents on four supervisory practices in this category. The results showed that higher percentages of both teachers and headteachers responded differently to one item (engaging teachers in a mutual dialogue about ways to improve instruction). They were, however, in agreement with the other three items (conferencing with teachers to plan for lesson observation, providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction and encouraging peer observation).

Table 15

Distribution of Respondents' Opinions on Aspects of Collaboration

Item		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total (100)
					Responses	
Engaging teachers in mutual dialogue to improve instruction.	Teacher	105 (45)	117 (50)	8 (3)	5 (2)	235
	Head	22 (56)	17 (44)	0 (0)	0 (0)	39
	Total	127 (46)	134 (49)	8 (3)	5 (2)	274
Conferencing with teacher to plan for lesson observation.	Teacher	48 (20)	147 (62)	32 (14)	9 (4)	236
	Head	11 (28)	27 (68)	2 (5)	0 (0)	40
	Total	59 (21)	174 (63)	34 (12)	9 (3)	276
Providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction.	Teacher	96 (40)	128 (54)	11 (5)	3 (1)	238
	Head	20 (50)	20 (50)	0 (0)	0 (0)	40
	Total	116 (42)	148 (53)	11 (4)	3 (1)	278
Encouraging teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes.	Teacher	43 (19)	133 (57)	40 (17)	16 (7)	232
	Head	10 (25)	24 (60)	4 (10)	2 (5)	40
	Total	53 (20)	157 (58)	44 (16)	18 (7)	272

Note. Percentages are in parentheses

When the respondents were asked to indicate whether supervisors should engage teachers in mutual dialogue to improve instruction, almost half (49.8%) of teachers agreed, while 56 percent of headteachers said they strongly agree. But the survey showed that 95 percent of teachers and all the headteacher respondents either strongly agreed or agreed with this practice. The comparison of both sides of the item showed that a plurality of each group of respondents experienced the practice sometimes, but a plurality of teachers agreed while a majority of the heads strongly agreed with it. The comparison also showed that a slightly lower percentage of respondents experienced this aspect of supervision less often than those who were in favour of it.

Both groups of respondents held similar opinions on the practice where supervisors should conference with teachers to plan for lesson observation. A majority of both teachers and headteachers (62% and 68% respectively) agreed that supervisors should conference with teachers to plan for lesson observation. But a much larger percentage of heads (95%) than

teachers (83%) strongly agreed or agreed with this supervisory practice. The comparison on both sides of the item showed that 28 percent more of teacher and headteacher respondents were in favour of this supervisory behaviour than those who often experienced it in their schools. Both groups of respondents would like to experience the practice more often than they currently did.

As to whether supervisors should provide opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction, a majority of teachers (54%) and half of heads (50%) agreed with this practice. But while half of heads strongly agreed with the practice, only 15 percent of them said they experienced it always. The comparison on both sides of the item also showed 94 percent of teachers and 100 percent of headteachers strongly agreed or agreed with this supervisory practice, while 65 and 85 percent respectively always or sometimes experienced it. As compared to heads, teachers would like much more of collaborative meeting than they currently experienced.

As to whether supervisors should encourage teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes, a majority of respondents, as usual, said they agree. However, a slightly higher percentage of heads than teachers strongly agreed, as well as agreed with the practice (encouraging teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes). The results from Table 15 show that over three-quarters of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with this aspect of supervision. The comparison showed that while a majority of each group of respondents agreed with the practice, a plurality of each group experienced it sometimes. Similarly, the percentage of teacher and headteacher respondents in favour of this practice were far greater than those who experienced the practice always or sometimes. Both groups of respondents considered peer observation as a very important aspect of supervision, but were not experiencing it as often as they would have desired.

More than 75 percent of each group of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with all the four items in this category. All the heads strongly agreed or agreed with two practices, and no head strongly disagreed with one other item. Comparing both sides of the items indicated that both groups of respondents would like to experience these practices more often than they currently did. But a much larger percentage of heads than teachers strongly agreed or agreed with these supervisory practices.

Section Summary

In all the 24 items, there was only one item under traditional supervision practices (beliefs) in which less than half of each group of respondents said they either agree or strongly agree to. On this particular item, a plurality of each group of participants provided a different response to it. While a plurality of heads agreed with this practice, a plurality of teachers disagreed with it. Apart from this item, a majority of each group of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with all the remaining items.

The results also showed that both teacher and headteacher respondents strongly agreed with five common items. But in all these five items, the percentages of heads were larger than teachers. The differences in four out the five were statistically significant. But in 11 other common items in which a majority of both groups of respondents said they agree to the practices, the proportion of teachers was higher than heads in eight (8) of them.

The survey results also showed that there were eight (8) individual items in which the differences in percentage responses between teachers' and headteachers' opinions were large. Chi-square test found statistically significant differences between teachers' and headteachers' opinions on six of the eight items. Table 16 shows the items in which there were significant differences between teachers' and headteachers' opinions.

Table 16

Items showing Significant Differences between Teachers' and Headteachers' Opinions about how Supervision Should Be Practised

Item	Chi-square	Df	P value	S/NS
Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices	6.753	3	0.080	NS
Evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices	10.422	3	0.015	S
Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time	11.844	2	0.003	S
Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices	8.477	3	0.037	S
Ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching-learning materials to teach	10.620	3	0.014	S
Formally observing teaching and learning	14.916	3	0.002	S
Providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills	11.442	3	0.010	S
Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers	6.008	3	0.111	NS

Note. df = degrees of freedom, S/NS = significant/not significant

The comparison on both sides of the 24 items showed that there were 20 of them in which respondents strongly agreed or agreed than those who experienced the practices always or sometimes. Very large percentage differences were found in seven of these items.

The comparison on both sides of the items showed that while less than half the respondents always or sometimes experienced two supervisory practices (item 2 and 13), there was only one practice that less than half said they strongly agree or agree to it. Only 40 percent of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the practice, while 46 percent of them said they always or sometimes experienced this practice. But in item 13, 49 percent of respondents experienced the practice always, while 89 percent said they strongly agreed or agreed with the practice. This suggests that respondents were in favour of the practice but they did not experience it more often.

Comparing Responses from Both Sides of the Questionnaire

In this sub-section, I compared participants' responses on how often they experienced aspects of instructional supervision in their schools with their levels of agreement about whether these practices should be practised. I compared the responses on both sides of each item and in groups (categories). The aim was to determine whether participants experienced the various aspects of supervision in the ways they expected.

Traditional supervision practices. The results from the survey showed that a majority of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors should suggest to teachers how they should teach. The percentage of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed with this supervisory practice is almost the same as those who said they always or sometimes experienced this practice in their schools.

On the issue of supervisors using control to affect instruction, respondents experienced this aspect in almost the same manner that they wanted it to be practised in their schools. A moderate percentage of respondents (40%) agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors should use control to affect instruction. A slightly higher percentage of the respondents said they always or sometimes experienced this aspect of supervision than the desired. But as compared to teachers, almost 60 percent of headteachers were of the opinion that they always or sometimes carried out this practice. The results indicated that less than half of the headteacher respondents did not favour this supervisory practice, but a majority of them practised it anyway.

The survey also showed that respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the practice of supervisors inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors to almost the same degree as the frequency with which it was practised in the schools. On the whole, teachers responded in similar directions to both sides of this item, in contrast to their headteachers. The same percentage of teachers (65%) who said they agree or strongly agree to this practice,

experienced it always or sometimes in their schools. The results suggest supervisors would like to continue with this traditional supervisory practice, even though they indicated they were not doing it regularly.

In general, both teachers and headteachers almost agreed about what they expected, as well as experienced for the aspects of traditional supervisory practices selected in this study. The respondents most often experienced an aspect of supervision where supervisors suggest to teachers how they should teach, but slightly less those respondents wanted this practice. Respondents also experienced the aspect of supervision where supervisors inspect teachers' instructional practices for errors quite often as they wanted it. But while about the same percentage of teachers who often experienced this practice (65%) also agreed or strongly agreed with it, more heads wanted this practice (62%) than those who experienced it often (51%). The teachers less often experienced a practice where supervisors used control to affect teachers' instructional practices which they did not like. But a larger percentage of heads (60%) experienced this practice more often than they wanted (44%).

Assistance and support in supervision. In this category, more than 80 percent of each group of respondents experienced four out of five supervisory activities in a manner they expected them to be practised. For the fifth item, more than 80 percent of teachers and heads agreed or strongly agreed with the proposition that supervisors should provide teachers with professional literature, but less than half of the respondents experienced the practice often.

On the practice of supervisors helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices, the same percentage of respondents who always or sometimes experienced the practice also agreed or strongly agreed with it. However, a larger percentage of heads strongly agreed with the practice as compared to those who carried it out in their schools. In general, supervisors were not practising this activity as often as they would have wanted.

Results from the survey also showed that the percentage of headteachers who always made themselves available for instructional support was much larger than those who strongly agreed with the practice. On the part of teachers, the percentage who strongly agreed with the practice was the same as those who said they experienced it always. On the whole, more than 80 percent agreed or strongly agreed with this practice, as well as experienced it often in the schools.

When I compared the responses on either side of the item 'offering useful suggestions to improve instruction', both groups of respondents almost agreed on what they experienced and how they expected the practice to be. The percentage of heads who strongly agreed with the practice was the same as those who said they always experienced it, while those for teachers slightly differed. Similar to the previous item, more than 90 percent of respondents were in favour of this practice, as well as experienced it often in their schools.

When it came to the practice where supervisors are expected to ensure teachers have adequate teaching materials, a substantially higher percentage of teachers strongly agreed or agreed with the practice as compared to those who always or sometimes experienced it. Headteachers were in agreement with their opinions on either side of this item. The results showed that a majority of heads (83%) strongly agreed with this aspect of supervision and 80 percent indicated that they always practised this activity.

The results in one item showed a very substantial difference between respondents' opinions on how they expected that aspect of supervision to be and how they experienced it in practice. While almost 90 percent of respondents agreed or strongly agreed with a supervisory practice of providing teachers with professional literature, less than half experienced the practice always or sometimes. The percentage of each group of respondents who strongly agreed with this practice far outweighed those who experienced it always. This suggests supervisors were unable to perform this aspect of supervision as often as they would have

liked. Respondents would, therefore, like supervisors to provide teachers with professional literature more often than they currently experienced.

In this category respondents held relatively similar opinions to both sides of the first four supervisory activities. The percentages of respondents who were in favour of those aspects of supervision were almost the same as those who experienced the practices often. But in one item, respondents did not experience the practice as often as they expected.

Oversight responsibilities in supervision. When responses from either side of the five items in this category were compared, I found that headteachers were almost agreement with their opinions on both sides of the items than teachers. While teachers provided similar responses to either side for only one item, headteachers were did so in four.

Results from the survey showed that the percentage of headteachers who supported the proposition (agreed or strongly agreed) that supervisors should evaluate teachers' classroom instructional practices is similar to those who said they always or sometimes experienced this aspect of supervision. However, a larger percentage of teachers were in favour of this practice than those who experienced it often. This suggests that teachers thought supervisors were performing this activity less frequently than they would have liked.

The pattern of responses regarding supervisors assessing teachers' content knowledge is similar to the previous item. While a similar percentage of heads who said they performed this activity often also strongly agreed or agreed with this practice, more teachers favoured this than those who experienced it often. This indicates that teachers wanted to experience this practice more frequently than they did. This is the only item in the category for which less than 70 percent of teachers experienced it always or sometimes.

When respondents were asked about their opinions regarding the supervisory practice of ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time, headteachers responded in a similar direction than teachers. The percentage of heads that always carried out this practice

was slightly higher than those who strongly supported the practice. As compared to headteachers, a larger percentage of teachers experienced the practice than those who strongly agreed with it. However, more than 90 percent of each group of respondents were in favour of the practice, as well as having experienced it often.

On the issue of supervisors making informal visits to classrooms, the proportion of each group of respondents who agreed or strongly agreed was similar to those who experienced the practice often. On this practice, more than 80 percent of both teachers and headteachers accepted this practice, as well as experienced it regularly. In other words, respondents were satisfied with the frequency of informal classroom visitations currently practised.

When I compared respondents' opinions on the supervisory practice of formally observing teaching and learning, both groups of respondents held different opinions about what they wanted and actual practice. However, differences between teachers' opinions on both sides of this practice were relatively small. While 45 percent of heads strongly agreed with this practice, only 18 percent practised it always. In comparison, higher percentages of both groups of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the practice than the frequency with which they reported it was practised. Respondents would like much more regular formal lesson observation than they currently experienced.

In general, headteachers seemed to be practising four out of the five aspects of supervision in this category as often as they thought they should be practised. It was also evident that teachers considered all the aspects of supervision in this category to be important, but did not experience them as often as they would have liked.

Leadership skills in supervision. The comparison between responses on both sides of the items under leadership skills showed that both the teachers and headteachers responded in the same direction on both sides of each item in this category. However there were moderate differences in percentages.

The same proportion of teachers who indicated that their supervisors sometimes praised teachers for specific teaching behaviour also agreed with the practice. On the part of heads, a majority of them who experienced the practice sometimes (63%) was somewhat larger than those who agreed with the practice (55%). Similarly, a substantially larger percentage of teachers strongly agreed or agreed (95%) as compared to those who always or sometimes experienced this practice (79%). This suggests that both groups of respondents wanted supervisors to praise teachers for specific behaviour more often than they currently experienced in their schools.

When opinions on the supervisory behaviour whereby supervisors are expected to establish open and trusting relationships with teachers were compared, the pattern was similar to the previous item. Almost the same majority of each group of respondents who strongly agreed with this supervisory behaviour also experienced it always. But the percentages of heads who responded in these directions were larger than their teachers on both sides of the item. Almost the same percentage of those heads that often experienced the behaviour (93%) supported the practice (95%). It would mean, therefore, that teachers would like more open and trusting relationships with their heads than they were experiencing.

Comparison of responses on both sides of the item 'treating teachers professionally with sense of caring and respect' showed that both groups of respondents were relatively consistent, albeit some differences. Almost the same percentage of teachers who strongly agreed (58%) always experienced this supervisory behaviour (56%). However, a quite larger majority of heads reported they always exhibited this skill (80%) than those who strongly agreed with the practice (65%). Still, similar percentages (88%) of them said they strongly agree or agree to this supervisory behaviour and experienced it often. On the part of teachers, 14 percent more favoured this practice than those who experienced it often. This suggests teachers experienced this supervisory behaviour less often than they would have liked.

Greater percentages of respondents were in agreement with their opinions on either side of the items. However, larger proportions of teachers strongly agreed or agreed with all three supervisory behaviour as compared to those who experienced them always or sometimes. Similarly, slightly higher percentages of headteachers strongly agreed or agreed with two of these behaviour as compared to how often they experienced them. In general, teachers would like their supervisors to exhibit those behaviour more often than currently existed.

Professional development in supervision. In all the five items in this category, a larger proportion of each group of respondents strongly agreed or agreed with the various supervisory practices than those who often experienced them. This supposes that supervisors were unable to carry out the various activities under professional development more frequently as they (respondents) expected.

When I compared both sides of the item where supervisors are supposed to demonstrate teaching techniques to guide teachers, I found that greater percentage of participants responded in similar directions, albeit differences in percentages. While the proportion of heads who agreed with this aspect of supervision (61%) was almost the same as those who experienced the practice sometimes (62%), the majority of teachers who agreed (65%) was larger than the plurality of them who sometimes experienced the practice (46%). The results also showed that 58 percent of teachers and 73 percent of heads always or sometimes experienced this practice, while 85 and 89 percent of them respectively strongly agreed or agreed with it. While heads thought they could not provide demonstration lessons more often than they should, teachers would like to have much more of demonstration lessons than their supervisors provided.

The pattern for the practice as to whether supervisors should provide objective feedback about classroom observation is similar to the previous one. Even though greater percentages of participants responded in a similar direction to both sides of this item, differences in

percentages exist. While a plurality of teachers (45%) experienced this aspect of supervision, a majority of them (61%) agreed with it. On the other hand 61 percent of heads experienced the practice sometimes while 56 percent agreed. On the whole, while 50 percent of teachers and 58 percent of heads often experienced this practice, 89 and 97 percent respectively supported it. A much larger percentage of teachers than heads would like to experience feedback on lesson observation than they had.

When I compared both sides of the supervisory practice whereby supervisors are supposed to provide in-service workshops to develop teachers' skills, there were differences between respondents' degree of support and frequency of practice. A majority of teachers (52%) and heads (68%) strongly agreed while a plurality of teachers (49%) and a majority of heads (62%) experienced the practice sometimes. The comparison also showed that while 97 percent of teachers and 93 percent of heads strongly agreed or agreed, 64 and 77 percent respectively experienced the practice always or sometimes. As compared to heads, a larger proportion of teachers would like to experience in-service workshops more often than they currently did.

The results showed that a majority or plurality of respondents agreed with the supervisory practice of implementing the use of action research in the schools, as well as experienced it sometimes. Almost the same percentage of heads that experienced the practice sometimes (50%) also agreed with its practice (48%). But the percentage of heads who agreed with this practice (60%) was much larger than those who sometimes experienced it (38%). On the whole, 53 and 68 percent of teachers and heads respectively experienced this aspect of supervision always or sometimes, while 89 and 88 percent of them respectively strongly agreed or agreed. Both groups of respondents would like to use action research in their schools more often than they observed.

For each item in this category, a greater proportion of each group of respondents strongly agreed or agreed that they often (always or sometimes) experienced the occurrence. This suggests that while teachers wanted to see supervisors perform the various activities involved than they experienced, headteachers (supervisors) supported the proposition that the various aspects should form part of supervision, but could not practise them more often.

Collaboration in supervision. The pattern of responses in this category is similar to the previous one. More respondents strongly agreed or agreed with all the three items than they experienced them. But while some differences in opinions were small, others were quite large.

A comparison on both sides indicated that both groups of participants would like supervisors to engage teachers in mutual dialogue to improve instruction more often that they currently experienced. A plurality of teachers (46%) and heads (49%) experienced the practice sometimes, while a plurality of teachers (49.8%) agreed and a majority of heads (56%) strongly agreed with it. Similarly, all the heads and 95 percent of teachers strongly agreed or agreed, while 95 and 85 percent of them respectively experienced the practice always or sometimes. Even though very large percentages of both groups of respondents experienced the practice often, they would like supervisors to practise it more often.

Both groups of participants responded in a similar direction to both sides of the aspect of supervision where supervisors are supposed to conference with teachers to plan for lesson observation. While a majority of teacher (62%) and headteacher (68%) respondents agreed with this aspect of supervision, a plurality and majority of teachers (44%) and heads (59%) respectively experienced the practice sometimes. The comparison on both sides of the item also showed that a larger proportion of both groups of respondents (a difference of 28 percent each) were in favour of this aspect of supervision than the frequency with which it was practised. Both groups of respondents would like supervisors to organise pre-observation conferences with teachers than the current situation.

The comparison on both sides of the supervisory practice of providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction yielded large differences between responses. A plurality of teachers (44%) experienced this aspect of supervision, but a majority (54%) agreed with the practice. On the part of heads, a majority of them (69%) agreed, but half of them each agreed as well as strongly agreed with it. The percentage of heads who strongly agreed was 35 percent larger than those who could practise this activity always. On the whole 65 percent of teachers and 85 percent of heads always or sometimes experienced this aspect of supervision. But 94 and 100 percent of them respectively strongly agreed or agreed with this practice. As compared to heads, teachers would like to have more opportunity to share ideas with colleagues than they currently experienced in their schools.

On the supervisory practice where supervisors are expected to encourage teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes, teachers and heads responded in the same direction. A plurality of teachers (35%) and heads (45%) experienced the practice sometimes, while a majority of 57 percent and 60 percent respectively agreed with it. Similarly, much larger percentages of respondents strongly agreed or agreed than those who said they often experienced it. While 50 and 58 percent of teachers and heads respectively often experienced this aspect of supervision, 76 and 85 percent of them respectively strongly agreed or agreed with it. Both groups of respondents would like to experience peer observation in their schools more often than they did.

In general, more respondents were in favour of all the four supervisory practices in this category, but they thought supervisors could not perform those activities more often than expected. Heads experienced all the three aspects of supervision in this category more often than their teachers. Similarly, heads strongly agreed or agreed with all the four items than their teachers.

Section Summary

In general, respondents wished most supervision items were practised more often than they were actually experienced. In 20 out of the 24 items, the proportion of respondents who strongly agree or agree that certain supervision items should be practised was greater than the proportion who actually experienced the practices. For each of the seven of these 20 items, the difference between the proportion of respondents who experienced such practices was much greater (between 25 and 40 % inclusively) than the proportion who would like them to be practised. The seven items are:

1. Providing teachers with articles on research findings about instruction;

2. Demonstrating teaching techniques;

3. Conferencing with teachers to plan for lesson observation;

4. Encouraging teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes;

5. Providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction;

6. Providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills; and,

7. Implementing the use of action research in the school.

The results also showed that there were only two items in which more than half of the teachers experienced them less often. These are "using control to affect teachers' instructional practices" and, "providing teachers with articles on research findings about instruction". But while a majority of each group of respondents did not want to experience the first of these two supervisory practices, almost 90 percent of each group strongly agreed or agreed with the second one.

I also found that in 18 of the 24 items, the percentages of headteachers who strongly agreed or agreed with the practices were greater than those of teachers. But for items wherein the teacher percentages were higher than heads, the differences were very small.

The results also showed that while a majority of heads said they always experienced seven supervisory practices, they strongly agreed with ten. The headteachers experienced the following practices always:

1. Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices;

2. Readily availing himself/herself for advice and instructional support;

3. Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time;

4. Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices;

5. Ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching-learning materials to teach;

6. Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers; and,

7. Treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect.

In addition to the seven practices listed above, the heads would like to do more of the following three practices: 1) Engaging teachers in mutual dialogue about ways to improve instruction; 2) Providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction; and 3) Providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills.

A majority of teachers on their part experienced the following three aspects of the instructional supervision always: 1) Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time; 2) Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers; 3) Treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect. Headteachers and teachers were consistent with these three practices.

A majority of teachers strongly agreed with the following five practices: 1) Ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching-learning materials to teach; 2) Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time; 3) Establishing open and trusting relationships with teachers; 4) Treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect; and 5) Providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills. A majority of both groups of

respondents strongly agreed that all these five aspects of instructional supervision should be practised. Both groups of respondents wanted more regular in-service workshops than they currently experienced.

Table 17

Items showing Differences between Participants' Experiences and Desire

	Teachers			Headteachers		
	Exp.	**Desired**	**Diff.**	**Exp.**	**Desired**	**Diff.**
Suggesting how to teach	83	78	-5	98	88	-10
Using control	44	38	-6	59	49	-10
Inspecting for errors	65	65	0	51	62	11
Helping to solve problems	89	97	8	95	100	5
Availing self for advice	84	94	10	98	98	0
Evaluating teachers	79	89	10	100	100	0
Assess content knowledge	67	83	16	94	97	3
Instructional time	94	99	5	98	98	0
Mutual dialogue	85	95	10	95	100	5
Offering useful suggestions	92	97	5	94	91	-3
Praising teachers	78	95	17	88	93	5
Teaching materials	81	93	12	95	98	3
Articles on research	48	90	42	56	87	21
Demonstrating teaching	58	86	28	73	90	17
Informal visits	81	82	1	89	87	-2
Formal lesson observation	73	88	15	82	98	16
Pre-observation conference	55	82	27	67	96	29
Objective feedback	67	90	23	87	97	10
Peer observation	50	76	26	58	85	27
Meeting to share ideas	64	94	30	84	100	16
In-service workshops	64	97	33	77	93	16
Relationships with teachers	79	96	17	93	96	3
Caring and respect	87	93	6	88	88	0
Action research	52	89	37	68	88	30

Note. exp. = % of respondents who always or sometimes experienced a practice; desired= % who agreed or strongly agreed to a practice; and, diff = difference between experience and desired

Both groups of respondents would like to see most of the selected aspects of supervision being practised more often than they currently experienced in their schools. Heads experienced most of the practices more often than their teachers. This could be explained by the fact that heads were more or less assessing themselves, while teachers did not have any stake in the supervisory process. Also, heads were assessing themselves based on their supervision of multiple teachers, while teachers based their responses on their experience of being supervised by only one person.

Open-ended Items

In this section, I present responses from teachers and headteachers to the open-ended items on the questionnaire. The two groups of respondents were asked to briefly describe how they thought supervision of instruction should be practised in their schools, and the challenges they faced in supervisory practices. Teachers were then asked to state their sources of new ideas or changes in their instructional practices, while heads were asked to suggest any forms of support they would need to improve supervision in their schools.

Ways respondents thought supervision should be practised in their schools. There were 203 teachers and 36 heads who responded to this item. When asked how supervision of instruction should be practised in their schools, both groups of respondents were of the view that supervisors should visit classrooms regularly. Respondents provided short statements such as supervisors should 'do more visitations to classrooms, conduct routine visits to classrooms, and conduct regular visits to classrooms'. Both groups indicated that supervisors should ensure teachers sign attendance/time books. Almost all teachers and heads thought that 'ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time' is a needed aspect of supervision. Based on these responses, it can be argued that both groups believe classroom visits are important.

Respondents also mentioned the formal observation of lessons. However, most teachers were of the view that supervisors should inform them before they visit teachers' classrooms to observe their lessons. One teacher indicated that the head and teacher should agree on the time and date of the observation before the supervisor observes a lesson. Teachers and headteachers accepted formal lesson observation as a supervisory practice.

Some teachers also suggested that supervisors should provide suggestions to teachers, but not impose ideas on them. Most of the teachers also thought that supervisors should give feedback about their performance, while a few of them indicated supervisors should consider teachers as part of a team and perform their duties in a "democratic manner". They did not explain what they meant by "democratic".

Both teachers and heads were of the view that supervisors should provide in-service workshops/training for teachers, as well as teaching-learning materials. While both groups of respondents supported the provision of in-service workshops to improve teaching, teachers indicated that such activities should be frequent. Both groups of respondents thought supervisors should provide teachers with teaching-learning materials. However, teachers also indicated that the teaching-learning materials should be adequate, and be provided to them on time. The two groups of respondents were in agreement with their opinions that supervisors should provide teachers with both professional and logistical support to improve instruction.

Teachers' sources of new ideas or changes in instructional practices. Teachers were also asked to indicate their sources of new ideas or changes in their instructional practices. On this item, 191 teachers responded. Most of the teachers said they obtained new ideas from in-service workshops organised by the municipal education directorate, text books, pamphlets, and fellow teachers. Few teachers acknowledged that they obtained information on instruction from the internet or newsletters. Only one teacher indicated that his/her headteacher served as a source of new ideas for ways to improve instruction.

Support supervisors required to improve supervision of instruction in their schools.
Headteachers itemized the support they thought they would need to improve supervision of instruction in their schools. A majority of the 36 heads who responded to this item expected the district directorate of education to provide teachers with adequate teaching-learning materials, and at the appropriate time. Teachers also expressed the same wish. Headteachers further suggested the government should increase their allowances so that they could perform their duties well. Three headteachers in the study indicated that they received a paltry monthly responsibility allowance of an equivalent of AU$2.00.

Challenges/problems faced in supervision. Both groups of respondents (183 teachers and 37 heads) provided a range of issues which they thought were challenges to the supervision of instruction. The other comments provided by 175 teachers and 29 heads were subsumed under this sub-section. Apart from the issue of inadequate and late arrival of teaching-learning materials which teachers raised again, both groups of respondents talked about time constraints on the part of heads. While teachers were generally not happy with the way supervisors conducted some aspects of supervision in the schools, headteachers thought that some teachers were comfortable with the way they carried out their supervisory activities. Some heads, however, expressed the view that some of their teachers wanted to thwart their efforts at improving the school system.

Similarly, teachers also reported that their supervisors exhibited supervisory behaviour which, in their views, would impede school improvement. Teachers provided statements such as my supervisor "is too harsh", "always queries, she/he does not respect teachers", and "is autocratic and disrespectful". Others indicated that their supervisors always found faults with them, corrected teachers in the presence of pupils, and imposed ideas on them. A few teachers indicated that their heads (supervisors) were more like intruders than colleagues. A few of the teachers also stated that their supervisors did not make suggestions, discuss findings or

provide feedback about the lessons they observed. One teacher said his/her supervisor employed intimidating strategies in his/her supervisory practices. The statements teachers gave suggest some of the supervisors still adhered to very traditional and authoritarian supervisory practices.

Some of the headteachers on their part thought some teachers were recalcitrant, and refused to accept suggestions. Some of the headteachers indicated that their teachers failed to either admit their faults, or accept suggestions, or take advice. Some heads remarked that their teachers did not welcome lesson observation, while some became annoyed when they were being observed. The statements teachers gave above suggest they admitted lesson observation is an aspect of supervision, but felt reluctant to be observed.

Another issue both groups of respondents considered to be a challenge to supervision is the lack of time. Teachers thought their heads were always busy, and had little time to supervise instruction in the schools. Headteachers also stated they did not have sufficient time to supervise instruction. Some heads in Ghana are classroom teachers, and their teaching duties took much of their time, which affects their performance as instructional leaders. They therefore suggested they should be relieved of teaching to enable them have sufficient time to attend to other duties (including supervision of instruction).

Interviews

In this section, I present the results from interviews with three groups of respondents: 10 teachers, 10 headteachers, and two policy personnel. The results are presented for each group according to the interview question asked. The interview questions were semi-structured and sought to understand in greater depth respondents' conceptualizations and experiences of supervision of instruction including, policy guidelines, their experiences of supervision of instruction in public primary schools, suggestions how supervision could be improved, and challenges to the practice.

Interview Responses from Teachers

How teachers conceptualize supervision of instruction. When teachers were asked what they thought supervision of instruction is about, they provided statements like "making sure that teachers do their work well", "seeing to it that the best thing is done in class", "helping teachers to teach well", "monitoring teaching and learning", "assisting teachers", "observing lessons", and "knowing what is needed and providing it".

Some of the teachers were of the view that supervision of instruction is ensuring that teachers do what is expected of them in their classrooms, including the right thing being taught. One teacher said "supervision is seeing to it that the best things are done when teachers are teaching". Some said it is about making sure that teachers do what they are expected to do. A few also remarked that supervision is making sure that teachers make good use of instructional time. One teacher thought supervision is to monitor the activities of teachers to ensure they are on the "right course".

A small number of teachers conceptualized supervision of instruction as a process of helping teachers to improve instruction. One teacher was of the view that supervision is about helping teachers to carry out the duties assigned to them. "Supervision is helping teachers to use various methods in teaching to improve teaching and learning", said another teacher.

Classroom visits and lesson observation by supervisors was another concept held by teachers about supervision of instruction. A few teachers were of the view that supervision of instruction is, "observing teachers and children in the classroom; what he/she is teaching, and how children are responding to the lesson". One teacher felt supervision is "monitoring the activities of teachers to make sure they are on the right course". The interview responses cut across several supervision practices. These statements suggest that teachers viewed supervision of instruction as exercising oversight responsibilities as well as providing assistance to teachers to improve instruction.

Categories of teachers who teachers thought needed supervision. While some teachers thought all categories of teachers needed supervision, others thought that mainly new and inexperienced ones needed supervision. Other teachers also thought that older teachers, as well as untrained teachers needed supervision.

One teacher who said all categories of teachers needed supervision explained that "things continue to change, and we need to get new ideas in order to be effective". Another teacher who also said that all teachers needed supervision noted that "teachers need to be resourced, encouraged and motivated to give of their best".

Of those teachers who indicated that newly trained teachers and untrained teachers needed supervision most explained that such teachers may lack some "ideas" and should be helped to do their work "effectively". On the other hand, one teacher believed old teachers needed supervision most. He/she said, "an old teacher might have taught for quite a long time, and may not be abreast of new issues". In general, respondents thought all categories of teachers need supervision, but newly trained, the inexperienced and old teachers need supervision most.

How teachers experienced supervision in their schools. Teachers indicated that their supervisors made sure that teachers prepared their lesson plans and presented them for vetting (marking) before each week begins. It is a condition of the Ghana Education Service that teachers should prepare and submit their lesson plans for vetting (marking) before lessons begin every Monday. In view of this, it would seem that every basic school teacher in Ghana thinks this is an important aspect of supervision.

Another issue teachers raised was classroom visitations. The teachers said their supervisors visited classrooms to make sure that teachers were punctual and regularly in class. They also thought supervisors were in classrooms to see to it that teachers taught "effectively". Some of the teachers said when the supervisors came to their classrooms, they

flipped through pupils' exercise books to make sure teachers gave out enough exercises and had marked them. This practice is thought to be a measure of output of work in Ghanaian schools. Generally, teachers said that regular visits to classrooms to make sure teachers make good use of instructional time, and checking output of work are important aspects of supervision.

Almost every teacher interviewed said that supervisors observed lessons and provided them with teaching resources. According to these teachers, their supervisors drew teachers' attention to mistakes, discussed findings, and provided advice during and after lesson observations. Teachers did not further explain the specific resources that their supervisors provided to them. A few of the teachers said their supervisors organised in-service training for them, but did not state whether these were frequent or occasional. Teachers and heads mentioned all these practices in their responses to the open-ended items, but indicated they were not frequent enough.

How teachers thought supervision should be practised. When asked how supervision should be conducted in their schools, most of the teachers interviewed replied that they wanted it the way they experienced it but, added a few suggestions. The teachers wanted their supervisors to observe lessons, but would like supervisors to inform them before coming into their classrooms to observe lessons. There was only one teacher interviewed who did not want supervisors to give teachers prior notice of lesson observation. This teacher thought teachers and pupils would exhibit 'artificial' behaviour if they had prior knowledge of lessons to be observed. Teachers acknowledged that lesson observation is an important component of supervision.

How teachers thought their supervisors behaved towards them, and how they felt about such behaviour. On this issue, teachers interviewed said that their supervisors were friendly to all teachers, humble, frank, and straightforward in the execution of their duties.

The teachers declined to elaborate on the responses they provided to this item. In response to how teachers felt about such supervisor behaviour, they said they felt "good", "happy", "secure", and "comfortable". But one teacher remarked, "my supervisor is not firm; he/she should be firm and let teachers know what they are supposed to do". These Interview responses are in contrast with the responses from the open-ended questions on the questionnaire, where many teachers indicated that some of their heads were too harsh, not democratic, and did not show respect. Some of them also remarked that their supervisors always found faults with them, used intimidating strategies, corrected them in the presence of the pupils, and imposed ideas on them.

Teachers' sources of new ideas or changes in instructional practices. The responses to this question were consistent with the responses on the open-ended questionnaire item. Teachers said that they obtained new ideas or information on instructional improvement from books, pamphlets, magazines, and the internet. Their other sources of new ideas were from colleagues and workshops organized by the municipal education directorate. Again, it seems that supervisors did not provide teachers with professional literature, because teachers did not mention it as sources of new ideas or changes in their instructional practices.

Opportunities that existed for teachers to learn new strategies from colleagues. When teachers were asked whether they had opportunities to meet and share ideas about instructional improvement, only two of the ten teachers interviewed indicated that they had formal teams and met occasionally to discuss instruction. One teacher said "we have teams, so we meet to share ideas". The others said they learnt from colleagues, but did not have formal arrangements to meet and share ideas. Another teacher remarked, "there is nothing like a team of teachers meeting. When in need, we invite subject teachers from the Junior High School to help us. We also swap with other teachers for specific subjects". Another also said, "we share ideas but not formally. Periodically, we meet to share ideas and new thoughts". Teachers'

comments suggest that they did not have formal meetings to share ideas about instructional improvement. Most of the teachers interviewed indicated they used their own internal arrangements and initiative to seek assistance from fellow teachers.

How teachers thought supervision could be improved. In response to this question, teachers revisited teaching-learning materials and in-service training. Teachers expected their supervisors to provide them with adequate teaching-learning materials, and that these needed to be provided on time. One teacher wanted an in-service workshop to be run for both teachers and heads to enlighten them on the acceptable practices of supervision of instruction. He/she thought that such a forum would help both teachers and heads to know their respective roles in the conduct of supervision of instruction.

A few teachers suggested headteachers should be relieved of their teaching duties so that they would have enough time to supervise effectively. Another teacher was of the view that supervisors should provide teachers with print materials on instructional strategies, as well as find time to meet with teachers to discuss issues on teaching strategies. A teacher wished supervisors would behave with more humility to teachers and give them "free room" to operate. This teacher would not explain what he/she meant by "humbling themselves". Another teacher felt that supervisors should not let teachers know when they (heads) would observe their lessons. This teacher thought when teachers and pupils knew that they were going to be observed; they would display "artificial" behaviour. With the exception of this teacher, the other nine teachers interviewed wanted their supervisors to alert them before lessons would be observed. Based on these comments, it seemed that most supervisors in this study do not hold pre-observation conferences with their teachers since teachers were not even informed ahead of lesson observation.

Interview Responses from Headteachers

Headteachers' conceptualisations of supervision of instruction. The concepts of supervision the ten headteachers held were similar to those of teachers. Heads were of the view that supervision is about providing teachers with resources, offering suggestions, and ensuring that teachers do effective work.

One headteacher said that supervision is "working in line with teachers, helping them, and providing them with the teaching-learning materials they need to do effective work". Some heads were of the view that supervision is "making sure all the necessary inputs are ready and used in teaching". Other heads thought supervision of instruction is offering suggestions and seeing to it that teachers do effective teaching. Some heads remarked supervision is about "offering suggestions as to how best teachers can teach in their classes", "seeing to it that teachers work efficiently", and "seeing to it that quality teaching and learning take place in our schools".

Policy document guidelines and expectations of supervision of instruction. In the interviews, headteachers were asked about the (professional) qualifications, years of teaching experience, and other criteria required by policy to become a headteacher and therefore supervise instruction. While all of the heads interviewed agreed that a headteacher, and for that matter a supervisor, should be a professional teacher and hold at least Teachers' Certificate 'A', they were not certain about years of teaching experience. Some of the heads variously gave the minimum number of years of teaching experience as 5, 10, 15, and 24. Two headteachers said that there was no specific minimum number of years of teaching experience required. They explained that when a newly trained teacher is posted to a school in which all the teachers are untrained he/she automatically becomes the head.

Respondents agreed with the new policy mandates that headteachers are appointed through interviews conducted by the district education directorate. They also noted that newly

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appointed heads are not given any form of in-service training to enable them supervise instruction and perform other administrative and managerial duties. The district directorate assumes that those who go through the interview successfully and are appointed as headteachers are deemed competent enough to supervise instruction.

   Policy document (guidelines) on supervision of instruction available to headteachers, and what is expected of heads. When headteachers were asked whether a policy document on supervision of instruction was available to them, almost all the heads acknowledged having seen one but did not have it in their possession. They said that previously there had been a headteachers' manual which contained guidelines on school administration, financial management, and supervision. The ten headteachers and the two officers referred to this manual as the only policy document which contains general guidelines on school administration, management, and supervision of instruction.

   The headteachers who had seen the manual mentioned several policies stated in it. Some of them said that the manual indicated that heads are expected to visit classrooms to check punctuality and regular attendance, and provide assistance and support to teachers. They also mentioned practices like observing lessons, modelling lessons, and helping teachers to solve instructional problems. Most heads said they were expected by policy to make sure teachers prepared their lesson plans, gave enough exercises to their students, marked the exercises and recorded the marks for continuous assessment purposes. In addition, heads said they were expected to provide teachers with the necessary teaching-learning resources.

   Apparently, the document was out of print at the time of my visit; one headteacher had never seen a copy before, and I could not set eyes on one either. However, I was able to obtain a copy of the headteachers' appraisal form. This form specifies various criteria which circuit supervisors use to assess the performance of headteachers. Some of these criteria are

relevant to the current study because they comprise the de-facto dimensions by which heads are assessed. All items relevant to the study are included in Appendix I.

How heads supervised instruction in their schools. When headteachers were asked about how they supervised instruction in their schools, they catalogued the activities listed on the appraisal form. Most of the heads said they made sure their teachers prepared their lesson plans and submitted them for vetting early on Mondays, gave pupils enough exercises, marked them, helped pupils do their corrections, and recorded the marks on continuous assessments forms. Some of the heads said they provided their teachers with teaching resources, assistance and suggestions to teachers to improve instruction. Most of them indicated that they visited classrooms to observe lessons, to see to it that teachers were regular, as well as punctual in class. Only a few heads said they modelled lessons.

The consistency of heads' supervision. During the interviews, heads were also asked about the consistency of their supervisory practices with all the teachers. The headteachers provided responses similar to those of teachers on this question. All the headteachers said they did not supervise all their teachers in the same manner. According to these headteachers, they devoted much more time to new and inexperienced teachers. One head said, "I guide new teachers to handle classroom issues to alleviate their fears". "I spend much time on the inexperienced teachers; but for the experienced ones, I only draw their attention to specific issues", another head remarked. Some of the heads were of the view that some teachers did not need to be supervised; however they observed their lessons and provided guidance. There was one headteacher who said he/she sometimes "took the chalk" from the teachers to "help them" by demonstrating teaching.

Heads' behaviour and attitudes towards their teachers. In this question, heads were asked how they encourage their teachers do their best. All of the headteachers interviewed thought their behaviour with teachers was positive. The heads remarked that they established

friendly relationships with their teachers, encouraged them and showed appreciation for their efforts. Some of them said they respected their teachers and did not lord their positions over them. One head remarked, "I have established a very good relationship with my teachers. We live as a family with one objective; the children's future. As a standing order in my school, we resolve issues amicably". The responses of all ten teachers were in alignment with the headteachers' responses to this question.

Challenges heads faced in the conduct of supervision of instruction in their schools. Challenges heads faced in the conduct of their supervisory practices centred on time constraints, some teachers not opening up for lesson observation, teachers' unwillingness to be 'corrected' and late submission of lesson notes.

The headteachers' main concern was time constraints. According to these heads, they did not have sufficient time to supervise instruction. A majority of the heads said they attended meetings, completed forms, received visitors and attended to parents. Moreover, most of the heads were classroom teachers, and prepared their own lesson plans to teach. They, therefore, did not have ample time to supervise. "I do not have enough time to go round to see how they are going about things", said one head.

Most of the heads were not happy about teachers' attitude towards lesson observation and their unwillingness to take suggestions. "Some teachers think observing lessons is to find ways to victimize them", said one head. Another head also commented "some teachers do not want to be observed; but I do not go there to find faults, but to provide assistance". Teachers had complained that their supervisors visited their classrooms to observe lessons without giving them prior notice (without conferencing with them). Even though teachers had acknowledged that lesson observation is an important aspect of supervision, most felt uneasy about being observed.

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Most of the heads gave several instances where teachers refused to accept the heads' feedback. Those heads provided comments such as, "some teachers are not good enough and in my attempt to correct them, they run out of patience"; "some become offended when told their mistakes"; "you see mistakes and when you make efforts to correct them, they become angry"; and "when you make suggestions, they do not take them up".

The heads mentioned other issues which they considered to be challenges to supervision of instruction in their schools. A few heads complained that their teachers submitted their lesson notes late for vetting. There were two other heads who said their teachers always arrived late at school. "The teachers come to school late. There is no accommodation in this locality so my teachers travel from the municipality to school every day". Those heads would like to ensure their teachers made better use of instructional time.

Interview Responses from Policy Personnel

In this sub-section, I present the interview responses from two policy personnel. Responses for common items are combined. The head of supervision at the district directorate of education, and one officer from the headquarters of the Ghana Education Service consented to be interviewed in this study.

What they thought supervision of instruction is about. In this question, the municipal head of supervision provided responses depicting specific beliefs and practices, while the other gave a broad conception of supervision. The former described supervision as an act of inspecting, overseeing, controlling, evaluating, advising, assisting and supporting headteachers and teachers. The officer at the GES headquarters also said supervisors should help teachers create the right environment in their classrooms for effective teaching and learning. He added that the objective is capacity building: "We want to improve the level of attainment of our pupils, and one way we can do that is through supervision", he said.

Policy requirements of heads as instructional supervisors. In response to the question as to whether the Ghana Education Service (GES) had policy requirements for prospective heads, the issues that came up were qualification, years of service and success in the selection interview. While the basic qualification is Teachers' Certificate 'A', the officer from headquarters could not give a specific numbers of years in service that qualified a teacher to be a head. "You must have taught for some time and gathered enough experience because you are going to head your fellow teachers", said the district head of supervision. He added that "(higher) qualification is an advantage but, basically, it is the experience". He also pointed out that prospective heads go through an interview for selection. The officer at headquarters thought the district directors should be in a position to answer this question. He, however, thought there should be a selection committee to appoint heads at the basic level. On the long service criterion, he commented that "having longer years of teaching experience is important, but what is more important is the skills and ability to help teachers improve professionally".

On this issue headteachers were also not sure of a specified minimum number of years of teaching experience that qualified a teacher to become a head. It is evident that the policy does not spell out specific number of years required by a teacher to head a public primary school in Ghana. It seems clear however, that a professional teacher on the staff with the highest number of years of teaching experienced would be a preferred candidate. The heads accepted that the selection interview could be used to recruit experienced heads.

Preparations given to heads to supervise instruction. On this question, the officer at the district level was much more specific than his counterpart at headquarters. This may be because the municipal head of supervision directly supervised the headteachers under him. The head of supervision at the district level said newly appointed headteachers were given their job description before they resumed duty. According to him, the district education directorate occasionally conducted in-service training for the heads. "When there is a new

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development we gather them (heads) and give them in-service training". The officer at headquarters was in doubt as to whether newly appointed heads were given some orientation. "It is a matter of come and occupy the position. If orientation is given at all, I doubt it will be on supervision. The main emphasis is on management", he stated.

Feedback from in-service training. The district head of supervision observed that schools with strong headships were performing better than schools with poor leadership. According to him, the district directorate used the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) results as the basis for this assessment. The assumption is that if heads supervise their teachers well, pupils' learning would improve; and this would be reflected on BECE results.

Policy document available to headteachers. These officers were also asked whether there is a policy document to guide heads in their supervisory practices. On this, the district head of supervision recollected that there was a headteachers' manual that spells out the roles and duties. "It gives heads the policy guidelines within which they are to operate". When this officer was probed further to find out whether it was general guidelines or specifically for supervision, he commented; "among other things, but basically on supervision". The officer at headquarters also acknowledged: "There was a headteachers' manual, and it contains a lot of things. I am sure it will include supervision of instruction". Neither of them had a copy of the manual in their possession.

Support policy personnel provided to school supervisors. On this question, the two administrators talked about expertise (in the form of in-service training) and supply of school materials to schools. The district head of supervision said his office supplied schools with teaching-learning materials and expertise. The officer at headquarters thought direct support should come from the district directorates. He noted, however, that headquarters provided professional support to circuit supervisors who, in turn, provided direct support to the school heads for them to be able to supervise. The district head of supervision further said logistics

supply was catered for by the Capitation Grant, and schools then used part of this grant to buy teaching-learning materials. The Capitation Grant is the annual grants for public primary schools in Ghana. This grant is not paid in bulk, but for every school term (three times in a year).

The officers' experiences related to supervision in public primary schools. The head of supervision at the district under study was concerned that most heads were not performing well. According to him, schools with "very strong" headships were performing well. Accordingly, his office gathered rich experiences from well-performing heads during in-service training sessions and shared them with the non-performing ones. On his part, the officer at the headquarters had observed that most teachers (including heads) did not appreciate the need for continuing professional development. He had conducted a study which found that teachers thought initial teacher training was sufficient to equip them with life-long professional competencies. He believed, however, that teachers should continue to learn through in-service training to improve their competencies and, consequently, improve student learning.

Challenges to the conduct of supervision of instruction in schools. On this issue, the district head of supervision talked about time constraints on the part of heads, lack of funds, and a lackadaisical attitude on the part of some heads. The officer at headquarters said supervision was played down at the expense of management skills, emphasis on long service instead of professional competence, and insufficient funds for professional improvement.

According to the district head of supervision, some headteachers were also classroom teachers, and had a full teaching load. He said that only a few heads were detached, and those who were classroom teachers had to write their own lesson plans and vet other teachers' lesson notes. He went on to say heads had to attend to administrative issues, meet parents, and

go to their municipal education office for logistics and to submit records. He added that apart from being too busy, some heads were not working hard enough.

The district officer also said, "the office sometimes experiences logistics problems; finding it difficult for circuit supervisors to get fuel for their motor bikes to visit schools". It seemed that he was referring to insufficient allocation of funds to run the inspectorate unit, rather than logistics supply.

The officer at headquarters had observed that the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service emphasised managerial competencies while playing down supervision of instruction. "They think the head of a school should be a manager. Imagine you advertise for head supervision and the requirement is a person who has been in management position for seven (7) or more years. If you finally select a person from Social Security and National Investment Trust (SSNIT) or State Insurance Corporation (SIC) with seven years in a management position, how can you call such a person a Chief Inspector?" This officer would like supervision to be emphasized at all levels of the education ladder. He thought the head of supervision should be well versed in supervision, but not necessarily in management.

This officer at headquarters also touched on heads who find themselves in supervisory positions by virtue of long years of teaching experience. He thought teachers who had taught for 30 years or more but had not up-graded themselves were not in a better position to head and supervise his/her fellow teachers. "What can he/she offer to his/her teachers?", he asked. He observed that professional competencies are likely to improve pupil learning more than other variables like long service, salary increases, and pupil-teacher ratios.

Insufficient funds were another challenge to supervision as observed by the officer at headquarters. He regretted that the government had slashed the budget allocation for in-service training of circuit supervisors and regional heads of supervision. "In an era when we

want to raise the level of teaching and learning and you are demeaning the training for teachers, then you are not doing any good service to the system", he stated.

How the policy personnel thought supervision of instruction could be improved. The officers thought supervision would be improved if headteachers were relieved of teaching duties, by a better flow of logistics, and by providing regular in-service training to heads. They also said that supervisors should be professionals so that they would be able to perform their duties effectively. The district head of supervision suggested that all headteachers should be relieved of their teaching duties to enable them have enough time to oversee their fellow teachers. He believed that teachers would perform their work well if they received sufficient teaching-learning materials when needed. He concluded that regular in-serving training workshops would enhance the capabilities and capacities of heads. The officer at headquarters believed that supervision is a profession in itself, and that headteachers should be trained for it. He was of the view that if headteachers were well equipped for the role, there would not be the need for circuit supervisors. He further suggested circuit supervisors should be able to identify weak heads and provide them with the needed support.

Section Summary

All the interviewees provided general and specific conceptions of supervision of instruction. Teachers and heads thought supervision of instruction is about helping/assisting teachers and ensuring that they do effective work in their classrooms. While one officer thought supervision is helping teachers provide an enabling environment in the classroom for effective teaching and learning, the other described it as an act of inspecting, controlling, evaluating, advising, assisting and supporting teachers.

Headteachers and the officers were consistent about the availability of policy guidelines for supervision. They all agreed that there was once a headteachers' manual which contained general guidelines on school administration, financial management, and supervision. It was

out of date because one head had never seen a copy, and those who had seen one did not have it at the time of visit.

The heads catalogued some supervisory practices contained in the headteachers' manual (handbook). They said the manual expected them to vet teachers' lesson plans, and provide them with teaching-learning materials. They were also expected to visit classrooms frequently to check regular and punctual attendance of teachers and to check pupils' output of work. The manual, according to heads, expected them to provide support and assistance to teachers, model lessons, and organise in-service workshops or training for teachers.

When asked how they supervised instruction, the heads said they performed all activities directed by the guidelines. Teachers corroborated this when asked how they experienced supervision of instruction in their schools. When I asked the teachers how they thought it should be done, they said "in the same manner". The teachers, however, suggested they would like their supervisors to inform them before coming into their classrooms to observe lessons.

Both heads and teachers agreed on the categories of teachers who needed supervision. These respondents thought every teacher needed supervision, but that newly trained and inexperienced teachers, as well as old and untrained teachers needed it most.

As to how supervision could be improved, some teachers also suggested their heads should provide and discuss with them print materials about instructional strategies. A few teachers wanted their heads to "humble themselves", respect teachers, and give them more autonomy. A majority of the teachers and headteachers indicated in an open-ended item in the questionnaire that heads had little time to supervise instruction. All the three groups of respondents were also agreed in the interview that heads should be relieved of teaching duties to enable them have enough time to supervise. The officers suggested there should be regular

in-service training for heads and circuit supervisors. They also said circuit supervisors should be able to identify and support weak heads.

Both teachers and heads who responded to the interview were consistent on the issue of how supervisors behaved towards teachers in the course of their duties. Almost all of the teachers interviewed said their supervisors were humble, friendly, frank and straight forward. All the heads responded similarly. The teachers said they felt happy and comfortable about the way they were treated by their heads. These Interview responses are in contrast with the responses from responses from the 240 teachers to the open-ended questions on the questionnaire, where many teachers indicated that some of their heads were too harsh, always queries, not democratic, and did not show respect. Some of them also remarked that their supervisors always found faults with them, used intimidating strategies, corrected them in the presence of the pupils, and imposed ideas on them.

Headteachers and the officers agreed on the policy requirements for prospective heads. They agreed that a would-be head should a professional teacher, and must have taught for some time. They were not specific as to the minimum number of years in service required, but seniors were normally nominated for the selection interview. The officer at headquarters suggested that heads should be selected based on their professional skills and abilities. This may explain the reason for the selection interview.

On the question of the kind of preparation given to newly appointed heads, the district head of supervision said his office provided heads with their job description before they assumed duty. Newly appointed heads did not receive pre-service training, but were given occasional training whenever new developments in education arose.

The two officers also agreed on the type of support they gave to school supervision. The district directorate occasionally organised in-service training to heads to keep them abreast with contemporary educational trends. Headquarters on their part occasionally organised in-

service workshops to regional and district supervisors to enable them provide support to heads.

On their experiences related to supervision of instruction in public primary schools, the district officer noted that some heads worked hard while others were found to be lazy. While the district head of supervision noted that some heads improved their skills after completing in-service training, the officer at headquarters remarked most teachers (including heads) did not want to learn to grow professionally.

On the question of challenges to supervision of instruction, both officers and heads were consistent on the issue of time constraints on the part of heads and insufficient funds for in-service training. They admitted that heads did not have enough time at their disposal to supervise instruction. They also talked about insufficient funds to run in-service workshops to heads and circuit supervisors to improve supervision. The municipal (district) head of supervision complained that some heads have a lackadaisical attitude towards work. The officer at the headquarters was not in support of long years of service as yardstick for headship selection. He also did not agree with the emphasis on management skills at the expense of supervisory skills.

Headteachers and teachers also agreed with the officers that supervisors did not have enough time to supervise instruction because of their heavy workload. While headteachers complained about the negative attitude of some teachers, some teachers were also not happy about some supervisors' approach to supervision. Some headteachers complained that some teachers did not submit their lesson plans for vetting on time, while others did not want their lessons to be observed. Some teachers also remarked that their heads were harsh towards them and always found faults with their instructional practices.

Chapter Five

Discussion of Major Findings

This chapter is comprised of two sections. The first section briefly summarises the major findings for each of the five research questions which guide the study. The second part discusses the major findings and relates them to the literature described in chapter two.

Brief Summary of Results

Research question one. What does the GES policy on supervision of instruction require of headteachers? Most of the supervisory practices contained in the headteachers' appraisal form (policy guidelines) were found to be routine teaching and teaching-related activities required of teachers which headteachers are expected to monitor. The appraisal form contains activities and duties headteachers are expected to perform, and circuit supervisors use this to assess the performance of headteachers. The list of activities on the appraisal form did not include many of the contemporary supervisory practices described in the literature. Rather, the appraisal form comprised mostly the administrative and managerial duties that heads are expected to perform.

Research question two. How do participants conceptualise and experience instructional supervision in primary schools? Teachers and headteachers experienced a combination of some aspects of traditional and contemporary supervisory practices. In this study headteachers seemed to adopt either a traditional model of supervision, or a directive control approach to supervision. Heads made frequent informal visits to classrooms to check teachers' punctuality and the regularity of their attendance in class, and pupils' work output. Supervisors also formally observed lessons but rarely held conferences with teachers prior to lesson observation. Supervisors in the study seemed to relate well with their teachers and provided some forms of assistance and support to teachers. These supervisors (headteachers), however, behaved differently towards teachers during lesson observation.

Teacher and headteacher interviewees shared broad concepts of instructional supervision using similar statements. The study further showed that what teachers considered as aspects of instructional supervision were similar to their experiences. The district head of supervision gave concepts of instructional supervision which encompass almost all the models of supervision described in the literature. On his part, the officer at headquarters gave a general concept which reflects contemporary practices.

Research question three. Which aspects of instructional supervision do teachers and headteachers want to practise? Teachers and headteachers seemed to be generally satisfied with the frequency with which supervisors practised some aspects of traditional supervision in their schools. However, some teachers complained about their heads' supervisory behaviour. Overwhelmingly, both groups of respondents would like to practise almost all the aspects of contemporary supervision described in the literature. Specifically, teachers and heads wanted more collaboration among teachers and between teachers and heads in the form of peer-observation and group meetings to share ideas about instruction. Similarly, both teachers and heads wanted supervisors to promote professional development by providing teachers with literature about instruction, in-service training programmes and demonstrating teaching techniques (modelling lessons). Teachers and heads agreed that supervisors and teachers should plan for lesson observations together. Teachers in particular, wanted their headteachers to inform them prior to lesson observation.

Research question four. What are the differences, if any, between teachers and headteachers, in expectations and experiences of instructional supervision? Teachers and heads were consistent about the frequency with which they experienced traditional supervisory practices. However, headteachers reported experiencing contemporary supervisory practices more often than their teachers. The most prominent practices that heads seemed to experience more often than their teachers were: modelling lessons; providing objective feedback about classroom

observation; providing in-service training workshops to improve instruction; conferencing with teachers to plan lesson observation; and, providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas. This apparent discrepancy between the experiences of headteachers and teachers they supervise may be because heads (supervisors) supervise many teachers whereas each teacher is supervised by only one head. On the other hand, in this study headteachers and teachers both seemed comfortable with the frequency with which supervisors practised some aspects of traditional supervision. However, a majority of both groups would like supervisors to practice all the contemporary supervisory practices described in the literature more often than they currently experience.

Research question five. What systemic challenges are likely to affect supervision of instruction in the schools? The study revealed that the GES recruits and appoints people with managerial experience for the position of chief inspector (head of the supervision unit), instead of teachers with professional knowledge about instructional supervision. Secondly, most of the heads in public primary schools in Ghana are full-time teachers and, in addition, perform administrative and management duties/functions. As a result, they are left with little time to supervise instruction. Thirdly, the Inspectorate Unit of the GES and the district directorates did not have sufficient funds for in-service workshops for capacity building among district and school levels supervisors. Fourthly, the district did not have enough funds to fuel circuit supervisors' motor bikes to enable them visit schools to provide support to teachers and heads. Fifthly, prospective headteachers were not given pre-service training about instructional supervision upon assumption of office. Lastly, despite the finding in Research Question Two that headteachers and teachers related well, it was also the case that teachers complained that heads did not inform them prior to observing their lessons. Headteachers also complained that teachers did not want their lessons to be observed.

Discussion of Major Findings

Teachers and heads in this study provided broad concepts of instructional supervision using similar statements. However, their responses about instructional practices seemed to be entirely consistent and possibly influenced by the content of the policy guide detailing headteachers' duties and responsibilities (headteachers' appraisal form). Teachers are also aware of the content of the appraisal form: they know the instructional-related activities that heads are expected to monitor. The meanings teachers and heads hold about instructional supervision are also translated into practices they experienced in their schools. In general, respondents in this study experienced a combination of both traditional and contemporary aspects of supervision as described in the literature. While participants were satisfied with some aspects of traditional supervision practices, they nevertheless wanted more contemporary aspects of supervision to be practised.

This section discusses the concepts teachers and heads hold about instructional supervision, supervisors' perceived approaches to supervision practices, and what participants considered as challenges to instructional supervision practices and processes in Ghanaian public primary schools. The perspectives of participants are discussed under the following sub-headings: participants' concepts of instructional supervision; (headteachers') approaches to supervision; collaboration; assistance and support; informal visits to classrooms; the three phases of clinical supervision; leadership skills/behaviour; professional development; and, challenges.

The supervisory practices described in the literature were used to frame the items and questions in the survey and interviews. The themes which emerged were organised into sub-sections for the data analysis and presentation of the survey results. These themes (sub-headings mentioned above) form the basis of my discussion.

Concepts of instructional supervision. Participants in the present study shared seemingly similar meanings for instructional supervision practices. Teachers and heads used words like "making sure", "ensuring", and "seeing to it that" to describe the activities and practices involved in supervision of instruction. For example, "making sure/seeing to it that teachers perform their duties effectively" was a common response to both the teachers and headteachers. Teachers and headteachers viewed instructional supervision as monitoring teachers' instruction-related duties, providing teachers with teaching resources, visiting classrooms to observe lessons, and providing assistance and support to help teachers do their work effectively. They also perceived checking teachers' classroom attendance as an important aspect of supervision. Teachers' and headteachers' concepts of supervision of instruction were characterised mostly by monitoring and overseeing, which were likely to have been influenced by the policy guide on headteachers' duties and responsibilities.

Teaching-related activities which the Ghana Education Service and teachers (including heads) consider important are preparation of lesson plans, the number of exercises given, marked, and corrections made, and keeping of continuous assessment records. Lesson plan preparation is an important activity in Ghanaian public schools, and teachers are aware that they are likely to lose their job if they fail to prepare lesson plans. The assumption may be that a well-prepared lesson plan which is effectively followed would lead to improved student learning. But USAID (Jan, 2010) has observed that in countries where regular supervision and inspection systems exist, personnel are moving away from low-inference measures of preparation and performance like adherence to a standardized lesson plan and the use of attendance registers to an approach that engages teachers in discussions for improvement in student outcomes. The implication is that education authorities in Ghana should not emphasise these activities, but rather strive to improve supervisor skills in contemporary supervisory practices in order to improve instruction in schools.

The municipal head of supervision also described instructional supervision as an act of inspecting, overseeing, controlling, evaluating, advising, assisting and supporting and teachers. This description, which encompasses almost all the models described in the literature, suggests that a combination of various approaches to supervision is practiced in the schools. For his part, the officer at head office gave a general concept of supervision, which reflects contemporary supervisory practices. He conceptualised supervision of instruction as helping teachers to create the right environment in their classrooms for effective teaching and learning.

Approach to supervision. Supervisors in this study seemed to employ either an authoritarian approach reminiscent of the traditional supervision model or a directive control approach consistent with the clinical supervision model. This may be explained by a number of factors. Firstly, the language used in stating the duties of headteachers that are contained in the policy guidelines suggest the use of control and adherence to administrative procedures. Secondly, both headteachers and teachers wanted supervisors to continue directing teachers how they should teach, as well as inspecting teachers' instructional practices essentially for errors. But there seemed to be some inconsistencies in teachers' responses to this approach. On the one hand, teachers reported satisfaction with the frequency with which supervisors employed some aspects of traditional supervision, but on the other hand they expressed dissatisfaction about the way their supervisors always queried, found fault with their work, imposed ideas on them, and corrected their mistakes in the presence of pupils. These views of teachers suggest that supervisors' approaches closely align with a traditional supervision (supervision as inspection) model (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Supervision was formally viewed as an instrument for controlling teachers, and it seems that inspectors or supervisors in some countries continue to fulfil their tasks using an authoritarian approach (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2004). The empirical research literature has shown that supervisors

elsewhere also continue to use authoritarian approach to instructional supervision. Yimaz, Tadan and Ouz (2009) found that supervisors in Turkish primary schools continue to use the traditional approach to supervision. According to these researchers, supervisory activities were geared towards the determination of conditions, assessment and control, while activities like supporting and guiding teachers to improve instruction were ignored. Ayse Bas (2002) also found that in Turkish private primary schools, supervisors used control and intimidation in their supervisory practices.

In Ghana this supervisory approach might make teachers reluctant to have their lessons observed, as reported by some of the heads. The situation may also discourage teachers to seek advice, assistance and instructional support from their heads (supervisors). Equally importantly, teachers may not be likely to try out new ideas (innovation) to improve their instructional practices under such circumstances. The situation may also lead to loss of trust and confidence, resulting in discontent among teachers. The implication is that supervision in Ghanaian public primary schools would not be effective and would therefore be likely to impact negatively on student outcomes. Providing training programmes and guidelines about contemporary supervisory behaviour may guide improvements in practice.

It must also be acknowledged that headteachers in this study may not view their approach as authoritarian, but rather as a way of helping teachers, especially new and inexperienced ones. In the interviews, headteachers remarked that they did not go into classrooms to find fault with their teachers, but to provide assistance, and in their attempts to correct the teachers some of them became angry. All of the ten heads acknowledged that they did not supervise all of the teachers in the same manner, but rather paid much more attention to new and inexperienced teachers. If the heads understood the item 'inspecting instruction for errors' in the survey differently from 'fault-finding', then their approach aligns closely with the 'directive control' approach in the clinical supervision model (Glickman, 1990; Glickman

& Tamashiro, 1980). Glickman (1990) notes that even though the directive control approach is reminiscent of the traditional form of supervision it does not emphasise fault-finding. Some researchers suggest that this approach could be used most effectively with new or inexperienced teachers (Pajak, 2002), or with incompetent teachers (Glickman, 1990; Glickman & Tamashiro, 1980).

Teacher and headteacher participants in this study would like more contemporary aspects of supervisory practices than they currently experience. Both teachers and heads agreed on the frequency with which teachers should be supervised. Headteachers' contention that they supervised different categories of teachers according to their level of experience and needs suggests that they employed a differentiated model of supervision. Teachers in this study agreed that all teachers should be supervised according to the individual teacher's level of experience and professional background. Glatthorn (1990) posits that individual teachers respond to different approaches to supervision based on their needs and competencies, and cautions against a one-best-way approach. The rationale for differentiated supervision is that teachers are different (Sergiovanni, 2009). According to Sergiovanni, informal classroom visitations and/or formal lesson observations can be used to assess and assist individual teachers.

Evidence from the interviews and survey indicate that teachers and heads in this study may unconsciously embrace the concept of differentiated approach to supervision. This implies that if heads in the current study are able to effectively and frequently provide direct assistance and support to individual teachers taking into account their uniqueness, needs and experiences, then supervision at this level will most likely improve and, consequently, also raise the likelihood of improved student achievement.

Collaboration. Responses to the survey indicated that heads felt that they promoted collaboration among teachers and between supervisors and teachers more often than their

teachers believed they experienced it. However, both teachers and heads wanted more collegial supervision than they were currently experiencing. Additionally, the interview results showed that teachers used their own informal arrangements to collaborate with each other. Thus, the data do suggest that informal collaboration exists among teachers but rarely between teachers and supervisors. For example, only two teachers (one in an interview and one in response to an open-ended question on the survey) reported that their headteachers were a source of new ideas about instructional improvement.

Headteachers responded on the survey that they often provided opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction. This may be interpreted to mean that heads might have encouraged their teachers to consult with or approach their fellows for assistance, but not necessarily to have formal teams and/or scheduled meeting times. On their part, teachers might have also been comfortable with such informal arrangements.

The findings of this study also indicate that supervisors rarely engaged their teachers in formal meetings. Empirical studies have shown that some supervisors in other countries promoted collaboration among their teachers to improve instruction; this practice could be replicated in Ghana. In the US, Blasé and Blasé (1999) found that supervisors modelled teamwork, provided time for teams to meet regularly, and advocated the sharing of ideas. According to these researchers, collaboration resulted in increased teacher motivation, self-esteem, efficacy and reflective behaviour such as risk taking, instructional variety and innovation/creativity. In India, Tyagi (2009) found that in government and private-aided senior secondary schools, principals provided opportunities for teachers to meet with other teachers in their own disciplines and also with teachers from different schools to discuss their programmes.

Evidence from this study's survey and interviews suggests that heads (supervisors) might have encouraged, but not promoted collaboration among teachers and between teachers

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and their heads. The current situation in Ghana cannot therefore be characterised as a true "learning community" as advocated in the literature. DuFour (2004) suggests that formal teams must have time to meet during the workday and throughout the school year. Collaboration is a systematic process in which teachers work together to analyse and implement their classroom practices which, in turn, leads to higher levels of student achievement (DuFour, 2004). In the current situation, there are no formal teams to meet and discuss new strategies, gain insight into what is working and what is not, and implement findings to raise student achievement. Turning schools into "learning communities" by promoting collaboration can improve student learning.

With regard to peer observation, heads and teachers in this study wanted supervisors to encourage teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes to share ideas about instructional improvement. However, supervisors in this study rarely carried out this practice. The empirical research literature has shown that peer-observation improved teachers' instructional practices in the US schools; this could also be implemented in Ghana. In one study, Bays (2001) found that interaction among peers (teachers) was helpful and desirable. Bays, however, did not indicate whether such a move was initiated by supervisors. In another study, Blasé and Blasé (1999) reported that supervisors advocated peer observation. Teachers in that study indicated that their supervisors encouraged them to visit other teachers, even in other schools, to observe their classrooms and programmes. Teachers in Blasé and Blasé's study (1999) indicated that such interactions broadened their outlook and motivated them to try out a variety of instructional strategies.

The policy guide on supervision of instruction in Ghanaian public primary schools included the expectation that supervisors would encourage experienced teachers to help other teachers professionally. This seems to convey the notion that collegiality is a one-way relationship in which only experienced teachers help new, weaker and inexperienced peers.

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But the research literature suggests a practice wherein individual teachers (which may include heads) learn from one another through peer observation and group meetings. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) posit that collegiality consists of collaboration among teachers and between teachers and principals (supervisors), and is characterised by mutual respect, shared work values, co-operation and specific conversations about teaching and learning.

The statement in the policy guide that experienced teachers should help their counterparts may be beneficial, but it may also be counter-productive if it makes inexperienced teachers reluctant to express their ideas, many of which could be useful. If this statement from the policy guide is translated into practice, it could stifle the initiative and innovation of these categories of teachers, and resort to over dependence on others. Revising this statement could correct the misconception some teachers and heads might hold.

Assistance and support. Contemporary models of supervision promote the view that supervisors should provide various forms of assistance and support to teachers to improve instruction. Teachers and heads in this study were satisfied with the regularity with which supervisors provided direct assistance to teachers to help find solutions to instructional problems, readily availed themselves for instructional support and advice, and offered useful suggestions to teachers to improve instruction.

This supervisor behaviour in the current study is not a peculiar one; empirical studies in the US and in Africa have found this aspect of supervision practised. For example, Rous (2004) reported that public primary school principals (supervisors) in the US frequently offered suggestions to improve instruction. Similarly, teachers in public primary schools in the south-eastern, mid-western and north-western states of the US overwhelmingly reported that successful supervisors offered suggestions to improve instructional methods and solve problems (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). Pansiri (2008) found that public primary school supervisors in Botswana listened to the concerns of their teachers, and were accessible and approachable.

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In this study, however, the results from the survey that supervisors provided teachers with needed assistance contradict teachers' comments on an open-ended item. Teachers indicated that their supervisors often queried or found fault with their work, imposed ideas on them, and corrected their mistakes in the presence of the pupils. One head confirmed these claims by saying that he/she sometimes took the chalk from the teachers and helped "bail them out" of difficulties. Consequently, it would seem likely that teachers would lose trust in their supervisors and, therefore feel reluctant to seek assistance or any form of guidance from their heads. Providing training programmes and guidelines about current practices can improve supervision in schools.

On the issue of resource support, a great majority of teachers and heads indicated that supervisors often provided teachers with teaching-learning materials (TLMs). However, teachers wanted the materials to be provided on time and in adequate quantities. Headteachers in Ghana do not have direct control over the quantity and timely supply of teaching-learning materials. They purchase these materials based on an annual grant to the school, when these grants are lodged into the schools' accounts. As in the case of Ghana, empirical research has shown that some supervisors in the US and Botswana provided their teachers with TLMs, while others did not. Supervisors in public schools may not be held accountable for not providing such support because of administrative procedures. In Kentucky public primary schools, Rous (2004) found that while some supervisors provided teachers with resources, materials, and funds to support classroom activities, others did not. Pansiri (2008) also found in Botswana that while 59 percent of teachers did not have 'all' the teaching materials they needed, 22 percent reported that they did. Another related revelation is that 53 percent of the teachers in Botswana reported that their supervisors involved them in the selection and procurement of teaching resources. In Ghana, the current arrangements as to how the Capitation Grant (annual grant which takes into account school enrolments) should be

expended dictate that heads are to involve teachers in the preparation of the School Performance Improvement Plan (SPIP). But, the extent to which heads do involve teachers may be a different matter.

The fact that teachers in Ghana are concerned about the use of teaching-learning materials suggests that they consider these materials crucial for lesson delivery. The GES should, therefore, devise ways to provide schools with the required quantities of teaching resources in a timely manner. These measures alone may not improve student learning if supervisors fail to provide adequate supervision on the selection and effective use of these resources. To improve student learning schools should endeavour to look out for concrete and more durable learning materials, instead of drawing diagrams on cardboard, which tends to perish within a short time.

Similarly, heads would like to provide teachers with professional literature, and teachers also expressed a greater need for such materials than they were currently provided. Responses to the survey indicated that less than half of teachers and heads experienced this type of support often. In response to the survey and interview, not even a single teacher indicated that supervisors provided him/her with professional literature. The municipal head of supervision said the district directorate occasionally provides teachers with professional literature, but this turned out to be something different. The copy of a newsletter he showed me was from the Ghana National Association of Teachers' (GNAT), and contained articles about issues affecting members (teachers) of this professional body, but not issues related to instruction.

Unlike the situation in Ghana, public primary school teachers in the US have access to professional literature to improve their instructional practices. For example, teachers in Blasé and Blasé's (1999) study acknowledged that their principals enhanced their reflective behaviour by distributing written information about instructional practices to them. In the current study, supervisors seldom carried out this practice. However, supervisors of course

cannot be held accountable for this because of the economic and technological level of advancement in a lesser-developed country like Ghana, where less than 10 percent of public primary schools have access to computers. Many articles about instruction may be found on the internet, but access to them may be impossible if schools and teachers are not connected to the internet. Nevertheless it is important to make sustainable arrangements to obtain and disseminate professional literature to teachers in Ghana to improve instruction. Teacher participants' desire for the provision of professional literature corroborates researchers' belief that such materials would improve teachers' instructional practices and, consequently, student learning.

Informal visits to classrooms (Presence). Teachers and headteachers in this study experienced regular visits by heads to classrooms, and wanted this practice to be continued. The supervisors visited classrooms regularly and purposefully to make sure that teachers were punctual and present in class, to make sure that teachers taught effectively and made good use of instructional time, to check pupils' exercise books for output of work, and to ensure that teachers recorded marks on continuous assessment forms. Responses to the survey and interview items suggest that both the teachers and headteachers considered the activities supervisors carried out during such visits very important aspects of supervision, and wanted the practice to continue. Participants' support/ endorsement for supervisors to check the regularity and punctuality of teachers' school attendance may be explained by the observation that some teachers in public primary schools were in the habit of absenting themselves from school (Oduro, 2008; World Bank, 2011), as well as reporting late to school. Similarly, participants' support for the practice whereby supervisors visit classrooms to check pupils' exercise books to find out whether teachers gave enough exercises, marked them, saw to it that corrections were made and marks transferred into continuous assessment records suggests that some teachers may not be performing these activities regularly. Headteachers and

teachers may also see such activities as important aspects of supervision in Ghanaian public primary schools even if the policy guidelines were not there.

This supervisory behaviour (informal visits to classrooms) is not peculiar to Ghana. The research literature shows that supervisors in US primary schools also used such visits to encourage and assist their teachers to improve instruction. For example, Blasé and Blasé (2004) and Rous (2004) noted that supervisors' frequent visits to classrooms helped boost teachers' morale, and made their presence felt in the schools. Rous noted that such visits, which are usually not planned, put teachers on the alert to ensure that they make good use of instructional time. In her study, Rous found that teachers in Kentucky public primary schools whose supervisors 'dropped by' the classrooms to interact with the students felt energized, while those teachers who experienced a lack of contact with their supervisors were negatively affected. Such supervisors' visits may create opportunities for teachers to solicit assistance and support from them. Similarly, heads may use their visits to identify areas in instructional practices for which teachers might need guidance and support. The findings from this study suggest that supervisors visited classrooms primarily to check teachers' regularity and punctuality to class, and their performance of teaching-related duties, rather than providing instructional guidance and support.

When teachers are regular and punctual to class and perform their teaching-related duties, students' time-on-task may increase and enhance student outcomes. Research has shown that increased time spent on learning activities yield increased student learning, provided that the teacher is competent, and the learning activities are effectively designed and implemented (Brophy, 1988). Although the monitoring of these activities is necessary, there is still the need for effective supervision of instruction. Supervision is likely to improve if supervisors pay much attention to the assistance, guidance and support they provide to

teachers to improve their instructional practices, rather than continuing to emphasise the monitoring of routine activities.

   The three phases of clinical supervision (lesson observation). Contemporary researchers of instructional supervision such as Acheson and Gall (1980) and Glickman (1990) have reduced the original eight-phase clinical supervision model developed by Cogan and Goldhammer to three phases: pre-observation conference, actual lesson observation, and post-observation conference and feedback. Headteachers and teachers in this study wanted much more in terms of pre-observation conferencing than they were currently experiencing. Responses to the survey indicated that a majority of teachers (55%) often experienced pre-observation conferencing. But there were some inconsistencies between these results and those from teachers in response to open-ended survey items and interview questions. Nine out of the ten teachers interviewed, and a majority of teachers who responded to the survey wanted their supervisors to inform them prior to lesson observation; implying that this practice is not common. These responses may be interpreted to mean that most supervisors in this study did not hold pre-observation conferences with their teachers. Researchers in clinical and other contemporary models of supervision suggest that supervisors should hold pre-observation conferences with teachers (Acheson & Gall, 1980; Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 1990; Goldhammer, 1969) to discuss with them the reasons and purposes of the observation, the focus, method and form to be used, and the times for observation and post-observation conference (Glickman, 1990). The pre-observation conference would prepare the minds of teachers and guide them as to what would be expected of them during the period of observation.

   This finding in Ghana that supervisors do not involve teachers in pre-observation planning is not an isolated case. In a similar study conducted by Ayse Bas (2002) in Turkish private primary schools, principals determined when visits would be conducted without

consulting teachers. But the situation is different from a similar study conducted in an African country. Pansiri (2008) found that in public primary schools in Botswana, 75 percent of teachers said their supervisors planned class visits with them. The practice where supervisors do not conference with teachers prior to lesson observation may be viewed by teachers as a way of trying to find fault with teachers' instructional practices. For their part, however, heads in this study indicated that they did not visit classrooms to find faults. The fact that both teachers and heads wanted this practice suggests that it could certainly be implemented in Ghana.

Supervision in Ghanaian public primary schools would improve if supervisors begin to hold pre-observation conferences with teachers. Involvement in the planning process make teachers aware of what aspect of the instructional process is to be observed, and the time and method of observation (Acheson & Gall, 1980; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 1990; Goldhammer, 1969). Teachers can then prepare adequately, which would potentially raise their level of confidence, boost their morale, and result in improvement in teachers' instructional practices. Providing heads with some training about contemporary supervision practices may equip them with skills to better provide supervision to teachers to improve teaching and learning in schools.

On the issue of lesson observation, both the teachers and heads experienced this activity, but wanted it more regularly than they currently experienced. The teachers and the heads, as well as the policy officers reported that lesson observations were not very frequent due to headteachers' tight schedules. Researchers have theorized that lesson observation is an important aspect of instructional supervision since it provides an opportunity for supervisors to assess the instructional strategies of teachers and to better provide the necessary assistance and support which can ultimately improve student outcomes (Acheson & Gall, 1980; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 1990; Goldhammer, 1969). They also believe that the

questions supervisors pose in the course of supervision serve as reminders to help teachers reflect upon their performances, as well as raise their level of confidence and eventually improve teachers' instructional practices.

The situation in Ghanaian public primary schools in which lesson observations were not as frequent as desired as a result of supervisors' numerous administrative and managerial duties is not an isolated phenomenon. Researchers have found similar situations in both developed and less developed nations: in the US (Bays, 2001; Kruskamp, 2003; Rous, 2004); and, in four African countries (De Grauwe, 2001). In one of these four African countries, Botswana, almost all the teachers acknowledged that their supervisors visited their classrooms to observe lessons (Pansiri, 2008). Pansiri did not, however, indicate whether lesson observations were interrupted or otherwise limited by supervisors' administrative and managerial duties. The situation where supervisors are saddled with numerous administrative and managerial duties impacts negatively on instructional supervision and, ultimately, on student outcomes.

Heads and teachers in this study were not specific about post-observation conferences, but noted that supervisors provided teachers with objective feedback about lesson observation. However, both groups of participants indicated that they wanted many more post-observation conferences. Some of the teachers interviewed said their supervisors drew their attention to mistakes, discussed findings, and provided advice during and after lesson observation. The current practice where supervisors provide feedback and suggestions about lesson observation is likely to improve instructional practices, and ultimately, student learning. Feedback and suggestions encourage teachers to reflect upon their performances and re-evaluate their instructional strategies. But for supervision to be more effective, supervisors need to be equipped with skills to practice the three synergistically linked phases of the

clinical supervision model. Eventually, this would likely improve student outcomes in the schools (Blasé & Blasé).

Empirical studies in the US and Africa have shown that providing objective feedback about lessons positively affects teachers' reflective behaviour to try out a variety of strategies to improve instruction (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004). As in the case of Ghana, these researchers did not indicate whether supervisors provided feedback to teachers during lesson observations or at post-observation conferences. In public primary schools in the US, teachers reported that the feedback they received from their supervisors was specific and non-judgemental, and encouraged them to consider and re-evaluate their strategies (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). In that study, teachers reported that feedback reflectively informed their behaviour and this resulted in the implementation of new ideas, trying out a variety of instructional practices, responding to student diversity, planning more carefully and achieving better focus. Similarly, in Kentucky public primary schools, feedback offered by supervisors was a formal behaviour, objective and based solely on class observation (Rous, 2004). Pansiri also found that 70 percent of public primary school teachers in Botswana were provided with constructive feedback. But in the rural district public schools in Virginia, specific feedback to teachers in the area of special education appeared to be limited (Bays, 2001). Bays' finding may be explained by the fact that some of the supervisors were not specialists in the field of Special Education, and might not have had sufficient background knowledge in the content and pedagogy in that field.

Leadership skills/behaviour. Contemporary researchers in supervision of instruction, such as Blasé and Blasé (1999), believe that the behaviour supervisors exhibit in the process of carrying out their duties affect teachers emotionally and psychologically, and hence their performance.

Teachers and headteachers in this study wanted supervisors to give more praise to teachers for specific teaching behaviour than what heads were currently doing. Blasé and Blasé (2004) posit that praising teachers significantly and positively affects teacher motivation, self-esteem, and efficacy. They also suggest that praise fosters teachers' reflective behaviour by re-enforcing teaching strategies, risk-taking, and innovation/creativity. Like most participants in this study, public primary school teachers in Botswana received praise from their supervisors for demonstrating good teaching strategies (Pansiri, 2008). Similarly, public primary schools teachers in the US said their supervisors offered praise which focused on specific and concrete teaching behaviour (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). The current situation in Ghanaian primary schools whereby supervisors praise their teachers is likely to boost teachers' morale, encourage them to try out new ideas and ultimately motivate them to strive for excellence to raise student learning. People are encouraged to improve their behaviour and performances when they receive genuine praise for specific work done.

Teachers and headteachers in the current study were generally satisfied about their relationships with each other. Almost all of the teachers interviewed and their heads said supervisors were friendly to all teachers, humble, frank and straight-forward and that they felt happy, good, secure and comfortable about such behaviour. On the other hand, however, some teachers remarked that their heads were disrespectful and too harsh towards them. These responses seem to contradict each other. Headteachers might have related well with teachers in their schools, but also behaved differently towards teachers during lesson observations. Thus, teachers might have drawn a distinction between supervisors' inter-personal relationship with teachers and their behaviour towards teachers during supervision. If this explanation depicts the actual situation in the schools, then there is the need for training programmes to improve supervisors' current practices.

Researchers have theorized that respectful relationships are important in instructional supervision. For example, Mastrangelo et al. (cited in Pansiri, 2008) believe that trust, caring, sharing and morals are essential characteristics in performing the responsibilities of professional leadership. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) also advised that good supervisors must relate well to people, be flexible and open-minded. Researchers have also shown empirically that respectful relationships between teachers and their supervisors can improve teaching. Rous (2004) for instance, found that in Kentucky public primary schools supervisors who showed respect for staff and families and demonstrated caring for children facilitated effective classroom instruction. Supervisors in the current study could certainly behave well towards their teachers not only outside instructional hours, but when supervising instruction to yield results similar to those in Kentucky.

When superior officers establish good inter-personal relationships with their subordinates during and after working hours the latter are encouraged to embark on activities that will accomplish desired goals. Supervisor behaviour during instructional hours is likely to motivate teachers to confide in them, seek their assistance and guidance, and try out new ideas about instruction to improve student learning without fear of reprimand. Supervision of instruction in the schools may improve if teachers have trust in their supervisors. And this will be achieved when supervisors behave well towards teachers during supervision.

Professional development. Contemporary researchers of supervision of instruction advocate that supervisors should model lessons, as well as provide school-based in-service training workshops to develop the professional skills of teachers.

Teachers and heads indicated in the survey that they needed more demonstration lessons to help improve teachers' instructional practices than they currently experienced. There appeared to be some inconsistencies between responses from both groups on the survey and responses provide by teachers in the interviews. While about 60 percent of teachers and

heads indicated on the survey that they often experienced lesson modelling, only one teacher and two out of ten headteachers in their interviews said they experienced modelling of lessons. These interviewees might not have considered modelling of lessons an important aspect of supervision since it is conspicuously missing from the policy guide.

While some empirical research findings in the US have shown that demonstrating teaching techniques to teachers can improve instruction, and consequently, raise student learning (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Rous, 2004), some supervisors in the US and Botswana never modelled lessons (Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008). In the same US (Kentucky), teachers reported that their supervisors modelled appropriate teaching techniques (Rous, 2004). Blasé and Blasé (1999) also found in the US that supervisors demonstrated teaching techniques during classroom visits. In contrast, Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2006) found in the US (New York public primary schools) that the supervisors never modelled teaching techniques. Similarly, Pansiri (2008) found that 71 percent of teachers in Botswana public primary schools neither experienced demonstration lessons nor were they coached about how to handle certain topics or lessons.

Evidence from the survey and interviews in this study suggest that supervisors in the study rarely demonstrated teaching techniques to teachers to improve instruction. And the fact that teachers and heads want supervisors to provide model lessons suggests that they believe such activities can lead to significant improvement in instruction. The practice should, therefore, be encouraged in Ghanaian public primary schools.

Teachers and heads in this study wanted much more time for in-service training than they currently had. However, there were also some inconsistencies in participants' responses. Sixty-five percent of teachers and heads indicated on the survey that supervisors often organised in-service workshops to improve teachers' instructional practices. But only three teachers and no headteacher in their interview responses acknowledged that supervisors

organised in-service workshops/training for teachers. When teachers were also asked about their sources of new ideas and/or changes in their instructional practices in the survey and interview, a majority of them in either case mentioned in-service workshops organised by the municipal education directorate. It seems that headteachers in this study did not consider in-service training provided by heads as an aspect of instructional supervision because it had been placed under professional development within the policy guide.

Unlike supervisors in Ghana, researchers have shown empirically that some supervisors directly or indirectly provide teachers with this type of professional support to improve their instructional practices. For example, Blasé and Blasé (1999) found that supervisors in public primary schools in the US provided their teachers with funds and information about innovative seminars and workshops. According to Blasé and Blasé, in-service training provides teachers with new ideas that broaden their outlook, and increases instructional variety and innovation. In Pansiri's (2008) study, 83 percent of public primary school teachers in Botswana indicated that their supervisors ran school-based in-service workshops for them to address their curriculum needs.

Challenges. From the perspectives of teachers, headteachers and policy officers, the main challenges which were likely to affect supervision of instruction in public primary schools in Ghana were: 1) the criteria used by the Ghana Education Service (GES) to recruit and appoint the head of the Inspectorate Unit (the chief inspector); 2) time constraints on the part of headteachers (supervisors); 3) lack of funds for capacity building; 4) inadequate preparation (training) for prospective headteachers; and, 5) teachers' and headteachers' attitudes towards lesson observation.

The interview responses suggested that GES recruits and appoints people (Chief Inspectors) who have been in management positions for seven years or more without considering their professional background in education, and more specifically, in supervision

of instruction. The officer at headquarters wanted changes in the mode of selection of officers to this position. Researchers have theorized that instructional supervisors should have sufficient knowledge and technical skills (Glickman et al., 2004; Holland, 2004; Huse (1980) cited in Kruskamp, 2003) to be able to provide assistance and support to improve instruction. In most cases, credentials serve as evidence. For example, the professional knowledge and technical skills of the national head of supervision (Chief Inspector), to a large extent, would have an influence on the supervisory practices of personnel in the schools. The person in this capacity is most likely to influence the planning and implementation of policies affecting supervision. Such a person should, therefore, be a professional in the field of supervision so that he/she would be in a good position to provide inputs to improve instructional supervision in the schools.

This finding that heads of supervision are selected based on their managerial experience (and not their expertise in instructional supervision) is not consistent with suggestions provided by researchers in the literature. Glickman et al. (2004) and Holland (2004) maintain that supervisors must offer evidence that they have the necessary knowledge and skills to make important decisions about instruction. According to Holland, degrees and diplomas are a form of such evidence, but credentials alone do not inspire trust. The finding in the current study in which the Chief Inspector may not be an expert in instructional supervision could result in role ambiguity. According to Huse (1980, cited in Kruskamp, 2003), role ambiguity occurs when an individual has insufficient knowledge of the expectations associated with assigned roles and responsibilities. The empirical research literature (De Grauwe, 2001) has shown that in four African countries (Botswana, Tanzania, Zanzibar and Zimbabwe) qualifications and experience seemed important in the selection of supervisors (including headteachers); this practice could also be implemented in Ghana.

Evidence from the interviews, however, suggests that GES is recruiting and appointing personnel to this position who do not have the necessary experience. Managerial experience may be necessary, but not sufficient. If a person is abreast with contemporary supervisory practices and has in-depth knowledge of current educational issues, he or she will likely be able to make a significant impact on instructional supervision. It is likely that instructional supervision in public primary schools in Ghana would improve if GES reconsidered its method of selecting instructional supervisors, including headteachers.

Participants in this study also thought that headteachers' time constraints negatively influence instructional supervision. All three groups of respondents were consistent in their view that heads had little time to supervise instruction. Headteachers in public primary schools in Ghana need more time to supervise instruction. Some headteachers are allocated full-time teaching duties in addition to their administrative, managerial and supervisory roles. According to Oduro (2008), apart from the "magnitude of tasks" that headteachers in Ghanaian public primary schools perform, those in remote and deprived communities combine their supervisory roles with teaching and visiting pupils in their communities.

The situation in Ghana in which supervisors do not have enough time to supervise instruction is not an isolated case. For example, Rous (2004) found that teachers in Kentucky public primary schools did not see enough of their supervisors in their classrooms. One of the respondents in Rous' study said he would have liked to seek his supervisor's opinion on how to deal with certain children's behaviour, but she (supervisor) did not have time. Bays (2001) also found in the US (Virginia) that management and administrative issues took much of the principals' time and energies, and detracted from principals providing consistent supervision to teachers. De Grauwe (2001) also found in four African countries that supervisors focussed much attention on administration rather than pedagogy. In another related study in a high school in the US (Georgia), Kruskamp (2003) reported that time was a constraint to the

practice of instructional supervision. All the three department heads in his study said they had too many tasks, and not enough time to supervise instruction. However, countries like Spain, France and Guinea did not experience such problems because they separate school administration from pedagogical supervision (Carron & De Grauwe, 1997).

Supervision may not be effective because supervisors in the study are pre-occupied with administrative and managerial duties, and left with little time to visit classrooms to supervise instruction. Reducing or removing administrative and managerial duties could improve instructional supervision in Ghana. Better still, the kind of arrangement in Spain, France and Guinea where administrative duties and pedagogical supervision are performed by separate officers could be considered in Ghana to improve supervision.

A lack of funds for capacity building was considered a challenge by the two policy officers. The two policy officers interviewed in this study were consistent in their responses that a lack of funds for training was likely to affect supervision of instruction. The districts and headquarters needed more financial resources to provide in-service training to improve supervision for district and regional supervisors, as well as headteachers. The municipal directorate also needed funds to fuel circuit supervisors' motor bikes to enable them to visit schools regularly to provide support to heads to improve supervision. Ghana, like other lesser developed countries, depends largely on development partners for technical and financial support to provide various forms of in-service training for the teaching service. This explains to some extent why such training programmes are not held on a regular basis. The current situation is unfortunate, though, as the GES has not put in place sustained training programmes for up-grading personnel at the regional, district and school levels to effectively supervise instruction in the schools. Over reliance on donor countries to fund training programmes for supervision staff may lead to stagnation when funds and other forms of support are not forthcoming or suspended.

Headteachers and the head of supervision at the district were consistent in their responses that prospective heads are not given sufficient pre-service training. Prospective heads were selected through interviews and then simply given their job descriptions. Thus, the heads were left to use their own experience and the policy guide to supervise instruction. Headteachers in public primary schools in Ghana need pre-service and regular in-service training to equip them with the knowledge and technical skills to be able to perform their supervisory roles effectively.

This finding is not an isolated case: it confirms other studies conducted in Ghana and in other countries. For example, about 75 percent of interview participants (heads) in a related study conducted by Oduro (2008) in Ghana reported that headteachers had received little or no training in leadership, and therefore used trial and error techniques to address challenges they faced in their leadership roles. De Grauwe (2001) found that in Botswana and Zimbabwe, formal pre-service training existed, but not all newly appointed supervisors had the opportunity to attend. In another related study, Kruskamp (2003) reported that only one of three senior secondary school department heads in the US state of Georgia had completed a course which included a topic in instructional supervision, yet he/she did not receive any formal training from the local system in the practice of instructional supervision.

The opposite appears to be true in findings from studies conducted in some developed countries. Bays (2001) found in the state of Virginia that administrator training was a certification requirement to provide principals with knowledge of supervision theory and practice and personnel management. EURYDICE's report (1991, cited in Carron & De Grauwe, 1997) also indicated that primary school supervisors in Portugal completed a one year course (unit) in supervision of instruction. Pre-service programmes for newly appointed heads are necessary, and likely to improve their skills and competencies to enable them to

effectively provide assistance, guidance and support to teachers to improve their instructional strategies. This would be likely to eventually raise student achievement.

Respondents also thought the attitudes and behaviour of teachers and heads towards lesson observation were likely to affect supervision of instruction in schools. Even though teachers and headteachers had earlier indicated that they related well to each other, some teachers also complained that their heads did not inform them prior to lesson observation. Most headteachers, on the other hand, noted in the interviews that some teachers felt reluctant for their lessons to be observed. Each group of respondents wanted changes in the behaviour and attitudes towards supervision: heads wanted teachers to embrace lesson observation, while teachers wanted to be consulted before observation. Blasé and Blasé (2004) suggest that supervisors should mutually decide with teachers on what and how to observe before proceeding to the classroom to actually conduct observation. As discussed earlier in this chapter, education authorities should provide heads with training programmes to develop their skills in contemporary supervisory practices. And more importantly, supervisors at this level should endeavour to change their approach in order to attract teachers' co-operation in the supervision process.

As discussed earlier in this chapter, while this finding is similar to one conducted in Turkish private primary schools (Ayse Bas, 2002), it differs from a similar study conducted in Botswana (Pansiri, 2008). Headteachers in Ghana may not have involved teachers in pre-observation planning because the policy guide is silent on the practice of pre-observation conferencing, and therefore they did not see the need to inform teachers or conference with them. Teachers might also not have had any idea about the possibility of a pre-observation conference, but simply needed to be informed so that they would prepare for it. Supervisors should endeavour to involve teachers in pre-observation planning process to improve the benefits that can accrue from collaborative, collegial supervision of instruction**.**

Summary

Supervision of instruction in Ghanaian public primary schools follows the guidelines established by the authorities. Supervisors (headteachers) are doing what is expected of them, and they are also practising many of the traditional aspects of supervision, such as monitoring and evaluating teachers, that have been identified in the literature. The findings also show, however, that teachers and headteachers would like to practise all the contemporary supervisory practices described in the literature more often than they currently experience.

Teachers and headteachers in the current study conceptualise supervision of instruction in several forms, including: monitoring teachers' performance of their teaching-related duties, providing teaching resources and checking teachers' absenteeism and lateness to school. They also see supervision as an act of visiting classrooms, observing lessons and providing other forms of assistance and support to teachers. These activities were typically all contained in the policy guide used by circuit supervisors to assess the performance of headteachers in Ghanaian public primary schools.

In the schools, teachers and heads experienced a combination of traditional and contemporary models of supervision. However, a greater proportion of heads than teachers experienced many of the canvassed supervisory practices. Both teachers and heads wanted a more contemporary version of instructional supervision to be practised in the schools than they currently experienced. Policy officers, on their part, wanted changes in the mode of recruitment and selection of Chief Inspectors of the Inspectorate Unit, as well as more financial support to train and resource regional and district supervisors and heads. Headteachers and policy officers in the current study wanted GES to provide heads with pre-service and in-service training programmes to equip them with knowledge and skills to perform their roles as supervisors effectively. Headteachers and teachers in this study wanted supervisors to be relieved of some administrative duties so as to have more time to provide

assistance, guidance and support to teachers to perform their duties effectively and, consequently, to improve student outcomes.

Chapter Six

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of teachers and headteachers in public primary schools in Ghana about how they conceptualised, as well as experienced supervision of instruction. The study also sought to discover the aspects of instructional supervision teachers and headteachers want to practise. The following research questions were posed to guide the study:

1. What does the Ghana governments' (GES) policy on supervision of instruction in Ghanaian primary schools require of supervisors (headteachers)?

2. How do participants conceptualise and experience instructional supervision in primary schools?

3. Which aspects of instructional supervision do teachers and headteachers want to practise?

4. What are the differences, if any, between teachers and headteachers, in expectations and experiences of supervision of instruction?

5. What systemic challenges are likely to affect supervision of instruction in the schools?

Summary of Major Findings

The findings that emerged from the study are discussed under the following areas: participants' conceptions about instructional supervision; the status of instructional supervision in the schools; aspects of instructional supervision that teachers and headteachers want to practise; and, challenges to supervision.

Evidence from the study showed that teachers and headteachers shared similar concepts about instructional supervision. Both groups conceptualised instructional supervision as headteachers "making sure", "ensuring", or "seeing to it" that teachers perform their duties effectively. When participants were asked to itemise aspects of instructional supervision, all

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of the supervisor practices they mentioned were consistent with the GES policy guide on instructional supervision and teacher development. These included the provision of resources to teachers, visiting classrooms to observe lessons, checking teachers' classroom attendance and monitoring the performance of teachers' teaching-related duties. Teachers' teaching-related duties which headteachers were expected to monitor, which were counted as aspects of instructional supervision, included teachers' lesson plan preparation, pupils' output of work (the number of exercises teachers give to pupils, mark, and on which corrections are made), and teachers keeping continuous assessment records. The municipal head of supervision described instructional supervision as the act of inspecting, overseeing, controlling, evaluating, advising, assisting and supporting teachers. For his part, the officer at GES headquarters conceptualised instructional supervision as helping teachers to create the right environment in their classrooms for effective teaching and learning.

The study also showed that supervisors spent much of their time performing the duties and activities listed in the GES policy guide on instructional supervision (which have been mentioned in the previous paragraph). In other words, experiences closely matched the ways in which teachers and headteachers conceptualised instructional supervision. Evidence gathered from the study further showed that supervisors in this study employed a combination of practices from both traditional and contemporary models of instructional supervision. The 40 supervisors who participated in the study tended to employ traditional authoritarian approaches such as finding fault, correcting teachers' mistakes in the presence of pupils, querying, and imposing ideas on teachers. However, almost all the teachers reported that their supervisors established good inter-personal relationships with them. The study also revealed that supervisors did not frequently observe lessons due to their numerous administrative and managerial duties.

While supervisors in this study were able to provide some forms of instructional support to teachers, there were others areas in which they rarely assisted. Teachers noted that headteachers provided them with feedback and suggestions about ways to improve instruction when they were able to observe lessons. Teachers and headteachers further reported that teachers were supervised differently according to the stages of their careers and individual needs. Some of the teachers also reported that their supervisors provided them with some assistance and support, but rarely provided in-service training programmes or modelled lessons to show teachers how to improve their instructional strategies. Additionally, supervisors did not inform their teachers about impending lesson observation, which suggests that they did not involve teachers in pre-observation planning. The study further revealed that supervisors were unable to provide teachers with professional literature to improve their instructional practices. Materials about instruction can increase teachers' repertoire of knowledge and equip them with new ideas to improve instruction, but public primary schools in Ghana are not connected to the internet. The study also revealed that headteachers (supervisors) did not promote collaboration among teachers or between teachers and heads in their schools. Rather, teachers used their own initiative to consult one another for assistance when needed.

Evidence from the study showed that while some teachers and headteachers seemed to be satisfied with some aspects of traditional supervision, these participants overwhelmingly wanted to practise all aspects of contemporary instructional supervision as described by leading researchers. Among the traditional supervision practices that some participants wanted was that supervisors should direct teachers in the ways they should teach. The results from the survey and interviews also showed that a majority of these participants wanted supervisors to pay regular visits to classrooms to provide direct assistance and support to teachers in improving instruction. Further, almost all the teachers and headteachers wanted

supervisors to involve teachers in pre-observation planning, observe teachers' lessons, and hold post-observation conferences with teachers. Most teachers and headteachers also wanted supervisors to provide teachers with objective feedback and suggestions to improve their instructional practices. In addition, teachers wanted their supervisors to praise teachers for demonstrating desired instructional behaviour. The study also revealed that a majority of teachers and headteachers embraced the idea that supervisors should provide teachers with professional literature, in-service training, and demonstrate teaching techniques to guide and equip them with knowledge and skills to improve their instructional strategies. Similarly, both groups of participants wanted supervisors to promote peer observation and collaboration among teachers in their schools. Finally, both teachers and headteachers wanted to experience a more trusting relationship, based on mutual respect, than they currently experienced in their schools.

This study's findings also highlight a number of problems which are likely to negatively affect the conduct of instructional supervision in the schools. Almost all teachers and headteachers, as well as the two policy officers acknowledged that heads (supervisors) were occupied with too many administrative and managerial duties to have enough time to effectively supervise instruction. It was also apparent that newly appointed heads (prospective supervisors) were not provided pre-service training about ways to supervise instruction effectively. A further potential barrier to good practice in instructional supervision is that the GES recruits and appoints personnel, primarily with managerial experience, to head supervision at the national level without considering their professional qualifications and experience in instructional supervision. Finally, there was insufficient and irregular allocation of funds to provide in-service training for capacity building among regional, district and school level supervisors. For example, the mobility of circuit supervisors to visit schools to provide teachers and heads with instructional support was hampered by insufficient funds.

Importance of Instructional Supervision

The immediate purpose of this study is to better understand the practice of instructional supervision in Ghanaian public primary schools. This purpose, however, is undergirded by a larger purpose: that of improving student learning through improvements in supervising teachers' instructional practices. One important way of achieving that improvement (after teachers complete their initial preparation) is via appropriate on-the-job supervision, training and development (i.e. instructional supervision). This section, therefore, discusses instructional supervision practices and behaviour that contemporary researchers believe have the potential to improve instruction in schools (Blase & Blase, 2004; Dufour, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2009; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1993; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000; Tyagi, 2009). This section is presented to serve as a foundation for the study's conclusions and recommendations.

Empirical research studies have shown that contemporary instructional supervision practices have the potential to improve instruction and the entire school environment (Blase & Blase, 2004; Dufour, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2009; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1993; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000; Tyagi, 2009). However, while a direct relationship between contemporary supervision and improved teaching has been established, the further link to improved student outcomes is much more tenuous (Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006). Nevertheless, most researchers and practitioners believe that improved instructional supervision can improve student learning via improved teaching. Researchers have suggested various supervisory practices and behaviour which are likely to guide and equip teachers with the skills and competencies capable of improving their instructional practices and, which ultimately are likely to improve student outcomes (Blase & Blase, 2004; Dufour, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2009; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1993; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000).

One important aspect of supervision which researchers have theorised and shown empirically can improve instructional practices is informal visits to classrooms, also called "walk throughs" (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Rous, 2004). Researchers have found that such visits provide supervisors the opportunity to identify areas where teachers have difficulties and/or need improvement. Such knowledge helps supervisors provide assistance and support to teachers individually and in groups. Similarly, supervisors' physical presence in the classrooms affords teachers the opportunity to seek assistance from supervisors, boost their morale and confidence, and encourages them to strive to improve student achievement.

Another important aspect of supervision advocated by researchers such as Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) is the pre-observation conference. Researchers have empirically shown that pre-observation conferencing between supervisors and teachers improve teachers' instructional practices (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008). When teachers and supervisors plan lesson observations together, teachers become aware of what will be observed, and the time and method of observation. During such meetings, supervisors discuss with teachers areas they want them (teachers) to improve. Such meetings provide opportunities for teachers to prepare adequately and feel confident during lesson presentation and, ultimately, provide the basis for improvement in teachers' instructional strategies and practices.

In support of Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer's (1969) views, researchers have shown empirically that lesson observation provides supervisors the opportunity to assess teachers' instructional strategies, and also better provides them with the necessary guidance and support for instructional improvement (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Sergiovanni, 2009; Tyagi, 2009). Questions posed and suggestions made during the observation process can serve as guides and prompts to help teachers reflect on their actions, behaviour and performances, and to make changes for improvement. When

teachers' reflective behaviour and thought processes are enhanced, they are motivated to implement new ideas, vary their instructional strategies, and respond to student diversity (Blasé & Blasé, 1999). These behavioural changes on the part of teachers are likely to lead to improved student outcomes.

An equally important aspect of supervision advocated by researchers is the post-observation conference proposed by Cogan and Goldhammer. Empirical evidence has shown that this strategy provides supervisors the opportunity to provide feedback and suggestions to teachers about lessons observed (Blase & Blase, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Tyagi, 2009). Feedback that is non-judgemental and/or not characterised by fault-finding has potentially positive effects on teacher motivation, self-esteem, efficacy, and sense of security (Blasé & Blasé; 1999). Feedback focused on classroom behaviour encourages teachers to reflect upon their performances and re-evaluate their strategies to improve student learning. These researchers also believe that suggestions given by supervisors during post-observation meetings strongly enhance teachers' reflective behaviour and their thought processes, and also enhance their planning to improve instruction.

Contemporary researchers of supervision have also found benefits in the provision of professional literature to guide teachers' instructional practices (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Tyagi, 2009). Providing materials about instruction can increase teachers' repertoire of knowledge and equip them with new strategies and skills to improve their instructional practices. Demonstrating teaching techniques and providing in-service training for teachers to improve their instructional practices are also considered important aspects of supervision (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glanz, Shulman & Sullivan, 2006; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Tyagi, 2009). These researchers have found that teachers tend to learn new ideas about instructional supervision from these programmes. These activities increase teachers' repertoire of knowledge and skills, enhance their reflective behaviour, and foster their sense of creativity

and innovation (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Teachers are, therefore, in a better position to plan their lessons well and manage their classrooms effectively, both of which are likely to improve student achievement.

Theorists and empirical researchers consider collegial meeting (where teachers meet and collaboratively discuss and take decisions on instruction) an important aspect of instructional supervision (Bays, 2001; Blase & Blase, 2004; Dufour, 2004; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1993; Sergiovanni, 2009; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). According to these researchers, when teams of teachers meet to analyse and plan instruction together, members gain insight into what is working and what is not. The team discusses new strategies to implement in their classrooms to improve instruction and, eventually, raise student learning. Researchers believe that collegial meeting encourages teacher reflection, creativity, and risk-taking (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Dufour, 2004). Collaboration among teachers and between teachers and their supervisors can help schools become learning communities.

Researchers have also observed empirically that leadership skills like praise, trust and respect, and good inter-personal relationships motivate teachers to perform their duties effectively (Blase & Blase, 2004; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Genuinely praising teachers for demonstrating specific instructional behaviour can increase teachers' motivation, self-esteem, and efficacy. Praise also fosters teachers' reflective behaviour, boosts their morale, and encourages risk-taking and creativity. Good inter-personal relationships among people are likely to result in trust and respect for one another (Blasé & Blasé, 1999; Pansiri, 2008; Rous, 2004; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). These researchers have found that teachers typically respect and trust supervisors who relate well with them both within instructional hours and other times of the school day. Teachers who trust their supervisors are often willing to confide in their supervisors and approach them for instructional assistance and support. Similarly, when teachers get to know that their

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supervisors respect them, as well as have trust in them, they are more likely to be willing participants in supervisors' observation of their lessons, seek assistance and support from supervisors, and feel secure to try out new strategies. Trusting teachers and respecting their dignity serves as motivation for teachers to embark on activities which will result in improvement in their instructional practices.

The previous section of this chapter presented a summary of the major findings of the study. Both teachers and heads expressed the desire for more contemporary instructional supervision practices than they currently experienced in their schools. The current section has shown that contemporary instructional supervision practices improve teachers' instructional strategies, which in turn are likely to improve students' learning experiences and outcomes. Based on the summary of findings and the discussion about the role of contemporary instructional supervision in improving teachers' instructional practices, the next section offers conclusions and recommendations to improve instructional supervision, and by extension, the teaching and learning environment in Ghanaian public primary schools.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This section presents a number of conclusions and recommendations based on the study's findings regarding participants' conceptions about instructional supervision, the status of instructional supervision in the schools, teachers' and headteachers' expectations about instructional supervision and challenges to supervision.

Conclusion 1. Supervision of instruction experienced and practised in public primary schools in Ghana is currently characterised by a combination of both "traditional" and contemporary supervision practices. Both teachers and headteachers agreed on this. Teachers and headteachers in public primary schools in Ghana are conversant with the contents of the GES policy guide on instructional supervision. Teachers are, therefore, aware of the duties they are expected to perform, and which headteachers are expected to monitor. These aspects

of instructional supervision in the policy guide are mostly monitoring teaching-related duties and checking teachers' attendance, which are considered traditional supervision practices. Based on evidence from the study, therefore, it seemed highly likely that supervisors' practices were largely guided by the contents of the GES policy guide on instructional supervision. However, the evidence gathered also showed that supervisors employed some aspects of contemporary supervision practices such as occasionally visiting classrooms, occasionally observing lessons, and providing some guidance and feedback to teachers about ways to improve instruction.

Teachers' and headteachers' conceptualisations of instructional supervision are similar to how they experienced and practised it in their schools. In other words, their conceptualisations of instructional supervision are also characterised by a combination of both 'traditional' and contemporary models of instructional supervision. When asked about their conceptualisations of instructional supervision, teachers and headteachers listed aspects and practices that are similar to those found in the GES policy guide on instructional supervision. The policy guide emphasises aspects of instructional supervision that are related to monitoring of instructional activities and ensuring maximum use of instructional time. Both groups of participants used almost the same statements as found in the guide to describe aspects of instructional supervision. Most of the statements in the policy guide are preceded by words/phrases such as "ensuring that", "making sure that", and "seeing to it that", which the participants also used to describe their conceptualisation of instructional supervision. For example, "ensuring that" teachers perform their duties effectively. However, teachers and headteachers also noted that supervisors should pay regular visits to classrooms to provide direct assistance and guidance to teachers, and give suggestions and feedback about lessons observed. Teachers, in particular, thought that involving them in pre-observation planning would be a desirable feature of instructional supervision.

Conclusion 2. The nature of supervision of instruction desired by both teachers and heads can be characterised as considerably more contemporary than currently experienced. Teachers and headteachers overwhelmingly wanted supervisors to practise all aspects of contemporary instructional supervision as described in the literature and included in the questionnaire. Even teachers and heads who had not been trained in or exposed to contemporary instructional supervision practices expressed their views in their responses. While teachers and headteachers only mentioned a few contemporary instructional supervision practices when asked to describe how they conceptualise instructional supervision in the interviews and open-ended survey items, a large majority (over 85%) indicated that they wanted to practise all aspects of contemporary supervision listed in the survey.

Conclusion 3. Some features of the system supporting instructional supervision in Ghana negatively affect instructional supervision in public primary schools. First, the study revealed that headteachers' administrative, managerial and teaching responsibilities prevent them from having enough time to supervise instruction. Evidence from the study showed that headteachers in Ghana perform numerous administrative and managerial roles and, in addition, some are fulltime classroom teachers. Second, GES has not put in place sustained training programmes to upgrade and develop the skills of personnel involved in supervision of instruction. Similarly, GES does not have a sustained budget allocation for the training of personnel responsible for supervision at the regional, district, and school levels. Finally, GES either could not find personnel who have the necessary qualifications and experience to head the Inspectorate Unit or hold the view that individuals with managerial experience also have the knowledge or experience necessary for effective instructional supervision. For example, a major selection criterion for the position of Chief Inspector of the inspectorate Unit of the GES is management experience of seven years or more. However, experience or expertise in instructional supervision is not a major selection criterion.

Recommendation 1. Given the evidently prominent role of the GES policy guide, the GES could consult with teachers and headteachers to revise the contents of the guide on instructional supervision to include more aspects of contemporary supervision practices. Regular review of the contents of this guide is necessary to meet the changing needs of teachers. Of course, consideration should also be given to retaining some of the existing instructional supervision practices in the policy guide. The Ghanaian context, whereby some teachers frequently absent themselves from school and/or report to school late (Oduro, 2008; World Bank, 2011), is such that those aspects of instructional supervision in the policy guide which are likely to increase students' time-on-task should be retained. The revision could include adding aspects of contemporary instructional supervision that are described in the literature and that were supported by the teachers and headteachers in this study. Such a revision would likely improve supervisory practices in the schools and, consequently improve student outcomes and better meet the needs of teachers.

Recommendation 2. Teachers (including headteachers) could be exposed to desired aspects of contemporary instructional supervision through pre-service and in-service training programmes. First, aspects of contemporary instructional supervision could be incorporated into the teacher training programmes at both the diploma and degree levels to sensitise teachers' awareness about contemporary instructional supervision practices. Second, prospective headteachers could be given pre-service training in instructional supervision as part of their induction process. Finally, periodic in-service training programmes about new developments in the education system could be provided to headteachers to keep them abreast with current trends and practices. Every professional teacher (including headteachers) would then be conversant with, and more likely to practise these desired aspects of contemporary supervision, which may consequently improve instruction and student learning. Providing pre-service and in-service training programmes to teachers, and especially headteachers,

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about contemporary instructional supervision practices is likely to develop the knowledge and skills of supervisors, which in turn may improve teaching and learning in schools.

    Recommendation 3. In conclusion 3, some support systems of the GES were identified as potentially having a negative impact on the conduct of instructional supervision in public primary schools in Ghana. It is, therefore, recommended that some support systems be revised to improve instructional supervision in the schools and, consequently, teachers' instructional practices. First, it is recommended that GES considers either reducing or separating administrative and managerial duties from instructional supervision, as suggested by Carron and De Grauwe (1997). Supervisors would, therefore, be able to more regularly supervise instruction to improve teachers' instructional practices/strategies and, consequently, raise student learning. Further, it would seem appropriate for GES to put in place sustainable training programmes to better equip personnel at the regional, district and school levels with the knowledge and skills to improve instruction in schools, than is currently the case. It is also be recommended that GES, in conjunction with the Ministry of Education, plan a long term budgetary allocation for such programmes to build the capacity of personnel in charge of supervision at the primary school level. These steps would ensure regular training programmes for supervision to improve instructional practices, and improve student outcomes. It is further recommended that GES reconsider its method of recruiting and selecting instructional supervisors and Chief Inspectors. GES could make it a priority to groom personnel for internal recruitments to this position. It is likely that a professional educator, especially one with expertise in instructional supervision, would be in a better position to lead the introduction of periodic changes that respond to the needs of the education system.

Suggestions for Further Studies

This study sought to examine how teachers and headteachers in public primary schools in Ghana perceived and practised instructional supervision. The literature and findings call for further research studies in the field of supervision.

The present study did not delve much into supervisor-supervisee relationships, which would be interesting to examine. Sullivan and Glanz (2000) have advised that good supervisors must relate well to people, be flexible and open-minded. Rous (2004) found empirically that respectful relationships can improve teaching. In this study almost all of the ten teachers interviewed and a majority of teachers and headteachers in the survey reported that supervisors established good inter-personal relationships with their teachers. However, a majority of teachers in response to the survey also indicated that supervisors found fault, corrected teachers' mistakes in the presence of pupils, queried, and imposed ideas on them. These results suggest that the supervisors' behaviour during lesson observations and at other times of the school day differed. Further studies on supervisory relationships between supervisors and teachers using interview and observation instruments would also provide education authorities a better understanding of supervisors' behaviour and teachers' needs and expectations.

Glanz, Shulman and Sullivan (2006) referred to Witziers, Bosker and Kruger's observation that making a connection between supervision and student achievement has been elusive and tenuous. In this study, the municipal head of supervision noted that schools with 'strong headships' excelled in the Basic Education Certificate Examination. Since there is no empirical study to that effect, I suggest that correlational studies could be conducted to better understand the relationships between instructional supervision and student achievement. Researchers could also use document analysis (reports and research findings) and secondary analyses of previously collected data (e.g., test results) procedures to conduct studies in this

area. Such studies could further inform policy makers about the need to improve instructional supervision in schools.

Proponents of clinical supervision such as Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) suggest several activities involved in pre-observation lesson observation and post-observation conferencing. The current study did not delve deeply into *how* these activities are conducted. I suggest that future researchers could use case studies to examine how supervisor behaviour during lesson observations influence teachers' instructional practices. Case studies could also be conducted to determine how supervisor characteristics (practices and behaviour) translate into student learning. I suggest the use of interviews, observation (observer as participant), and document analysis. These approaches would help researchers understand how supervisors observe lessons and their potential effects on instructional improvement and help researchers to determine whether supervisors observe lessons with pre-determined standards of their own or use procedures agreed upon by both supervisors and teachers at pre-observation conferences. Findings from these studies could be used to improve supervisors' instructional practices.

Final Comments

This concluding chapter has summarised the major findings of the study and provides empirical evidence about how aspects of contemporary instructional supervision described in the literature can improve teachers' instructional practices. Further, the chapter presents conclusions based on the findings, and provides recommendations for improvement. It concludes with possible limitations to the study and suggestions for further research.

This study is unique in two ways. First, it sought the views/opinions of three groups of key stakeholders involved in instructional supervision: teachers, headteachers (internal supervisors) and external supervisors. Previous studies have targeted one or two of these groups at a time. It is envisaged that opinions from all the three groups will enrich the

credibility of the results. Second, the study has also attempted to approach the topic holistically by examining the relationships among three aspects of teachers' and headteachers' views (experiences, conceptualisations and desires). It sought to examine how teachers and headteachers experienced instructional supervision in their schools, their conceptualisations of instructional supervision, and aspects of instructional supervision they want to practise. Previous studies have tended to investigate only leadership characteristics or the practice of instructional supervision in schools without taking into consideration the views of teachers at "the coalface".

In summary, this study has attempted to reverse the top-down trend of decision-making process about policies affecting the education system. Education policies affecting teachers in Ghana have always been formulated at the 'top' and handed down to teachers and headteachers for implementation. This study has recommended the involvement of teachers and headteachers in decisions about instructional supervision to improve instruction and, by extension, the environment for learning in the schools. When the inputs of those affected by policies are considered, they feel that they are respected, and that their opinions count. They might also have ideas that no one at the top would have even thought of. Going to the coalface can be a rich source of innovation and creativity, and doing so is likely to increase teachers' commitment to the effective implementation of education policies, which may improve the school system. More so, bottom-up initiatives are more likely to be implemented/pursued by those who contributed to their enactment than those imposed from outside.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Questionnaire for Headteachers

Survey of Teachers' and Headteachers' Perspectives about
Supervision of Instruction

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this study is to collect information on how teachers and headteachers in primary schools perceive supervision of instruction. Thank you for agreeing to help us by completing this anonymous survey which should take less than twenty minutes. Please feel free to indicate your opinion because no response is treated as wrong.

Participant Consent

I have read the information about the purpose of study of this survey. Any questions I have about the research have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to take part in this research. By handing over the survey to the researcher, I give my consent for the results to be used in the research. I am aware that this survey is anonymous and does not contain any details which may personally identify me by the research.

I know that I may change my mind and withdraw my consent to participate at any time; and I acknowledge that once my survey has been submitted it may not be possible to withdraw my data.

I understand that the researchers will treat all information I provide confidential and will not release it to a third party unless required by law to do so by law.

I understand that no information which can specifically identify me will be published as part of the findings.

Background information:

Please insert/tick details or circle the appropriate category for you.

Sex: Male/Female

Age: ☐ Up to 29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60+

Your Location: Rural / Urban

Your highest qualification: _____

Your professional status: Trained / Untrained

Your position: Teacher/Headteacher

Number of years you have served in your current position: _____

Questionnaire for Headteachers

Please tick whichever is appropriate for your circumstance. **How I experience supervision of instruction in my current school. I have been:**				Please respond to the scales on both sides of the statement	Please tick whichever matches your understanding. **How I think supervision of instruction should be. Supervision means:**			
Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
				1. Suggesting to teachers how they should teach.				
				2. Using control to affect teachers' instructional practices.				
				3. Inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors.				
				4. Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices.				
				5. Readily availing himself/herself for advice and instructional support.				
				6. Evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices.				
				7. Assessing teachers' content knowledge.				
				8. Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time.				
				9. Engaging teachers in mutual dialogue about ways to improve teaching.				
				10. Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices.				
				11. Praising teachers for specific teaching behaviour.				
				12. Ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching- learning materials to teach.				
				13. Providing teachers with articles on research findings about instruction.				
				14. Demonstrating teaching techniques.				
				15. Making informal visits to classrooms.				
				16. Formally observing teaching and learning.				
				17. Conferencing with teacher to plan for lesson observation.				
				18. Providing objective feedback about classroom observations.				
				19. Encouraging teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes.				
				20. Providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction.				
				21. Providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills.				
				22. Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers.				
				23. Treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect.				
				24. Implementing the use of Action Research in the school.				

25. What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

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26. Suggest any support to improve supervision of instruction in your school.

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27. Briefly describe problems you face in supervision.

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28. Any other comments

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Thank you for completing this survey. Your participation is very much appreciated.

Appendix B: Questionnaire for Teachers

Survey of Teachers' and Headteachers' Perspectives about
Supervision of Instruction

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this study is to collect information on how teachers and headteachers in primary schools perceive supervision of instruction. Thank you for agreeing to help us by completing this anonymous survey which should take less than twenty minutes. Please feel free to indicate your opinion because no response is treated as wrong.

Participant Consent

I have read the information about the purpose of study of this survey. Any questions I have about the research have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to take part in this research. By handing over the survey to the researcher, I give my consent for the results to be used in the research. I am aware that this survey is anonymous and does not contain any details which may personally identify me by the research.

I know that I may change my mind and withdraw my consent to participate at any time; and I acknowledge that once my survey has been submitted it may not be possible to withdraw my data.

I understand that the researchers will treat all information I provide confidential and will not release it to a third party unless required by law to do so by law.

I understand that no information which can specifically identify me will be published as part of the findings.

Background information:

Please insert/tick details or circle the appropriate category for you.

Sex: Male/Female

Age: ☐ Up to 29 ☐ 30-39 ☐ 40-49 ☐ 50-59 ☐ 60+

Your Location: Rural / Urban

Your highest qualification: _____

Your professional status: Trained / Untrained

Your position: Teacher/Headteacher

Number of years you have served in your current position: _____

Questionnaire for Teachers

Please tick whichever is appropriate for your circumstance.				Please respond to the scales on both sides of the statement	Please tick whichever matches your understanding.			
How I experience supervision of instruction in my current school. My supervisor has been:					**How I think supervision of instruction should be. Supervision means:**			
Always	**Sometimes**	**Rarely**	**Never**		**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
				1. Suggesting to teachers how they should teach.				
				2. Using control to affect teachers' instructional practices.				
				3. Inspecting teachers' instructional practices for errors.				
				4. Helping teachers find solutions to problems they encounter in their instructional practices.				
				5. Readily availing himself/herself for advice and instructional support.				
				6. Evaluating teachers' classroom instructional practices.				
				7. Assessing teachers' content knowledge.				
				8. Ensuring that teachers make good use of instructional time.				
				9. Engaging teachers in mutual dialogue about ways to improve teaching.				
				10. Offering useful suggestions to improve instructional practices.				
				11. Praising teachers for specific teaching behaviour.				
				12. Ensuring that teachers have adequate teaching- learning materials to teach.				
				13. Providing teachers with articles on research findings about instruction.				
				14. Demonstrating teaching techniques.				
				15. Making informal visits to classrooms.				
				16. Formally observing teaching and learning.				
				17. Conferencing with teacher to plan for lesson observation.				
				18. Providing objective feedback about classroom observations.				
				19. Encouraging teachers to observe other teachers' classrooms and programmes.				
				20. Providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction.				
				21. Providing in-service workshops to teachers to develop their skills.				
				22. Establishing open and trusting relationship with teachers.				
				23. Treating teachers professionally with a sense of caring and respect.				
				24. Implementing the use of Action Research in the school.				

25. What ways do you think supervision of instruction could be improved in this school?

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26. What are your sources of new ideas or changes in instructional practices?

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27. Briefly describe challenges you face in supervision.

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28. Any other comments

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Thank you for completing this survey. Your participation is very much appreciated.

Appendix C

Interview Schedule for Headteachers

1. What do you think supervision of instruction is about?

2. What are the GES policy requirements of headteachers in instructional supervision? (qualifications and Teaching experience)

3. Is there any policy document or guidelines (manuals) on supervision of instruction available to you?

4. If so, what does the policy expect from you?

5. Can you please tell me how you supervise instruction in this school?

6. Do you supervise all teachers in the same manner? How do you do it?

7. What personal attributes to you bring to bear to encourage teachers to put of their best?

8. What challenges do you face in the conduct of supervision of instructions in your schools?

9. How do you think supervision of instruction would be improved?

Appendix D

Interview Schedule for Teachers

1. What do you think supervision of instruction is about?

2. In your view, which categories of teachers need supervision? Why?

3. How is supervision of instruction conducted in this school? I mean the practices.

4. In your opinion, how should it be done?

5. How does your supervisor behave towards teachers when supervising instruction? I mean his/her attitudes towards teachers.

6. How do you feel about such supervisor behaviour/attitude to teachers?

7. What are your sources of new ideas or changes in instructional practices? Can you think of other support?

8. What opportunities exist for teachers to share and learn new strategies from colleagues?

9. How do you think supervision of instruction would be improved?

Appendix E

Interview Schedule for Head of Supervision, Headquarters.

1. What do you think supervision of instruction is about?

2. Can you please tell me the main objectives of supervision of instruction?

3. What are the policy requirements of headteachers in instructional supervision?
   (Qualifications and Teaching Experience)

4. What form of preparation is provided to supervisors at the school level? (In-Service
   Training).

5. What type of support does Headquarters provide for school level supervision?

6. Describe your experiences related to supervision of instruction in public primary
   schools?

7. What are the challenges that face the conduct of supervision of instructions in schools?

8. How would supervision of instruction be improved?

Interview Schedule for the District Head of Supervision.

1. What do you think supervision of instruction is about?

2. What are the policy requirements of headteachers in instructional supervision?

3. How are headteachers prepared to supervise instruction in schools?

4. How regular are in-service programmes on instructional supervision organised for headteachers, if available?

5. What feedback do you receive from supervisory practices as a result of the training programmes?

6. How do you support supervision of instruction in schools?

7. Can you describe your experiences related to supervision in your schools?

8. What challenges face the conduct of supervision of instructions in schools?

9. How would supervision of instruction be improved?

Appendix G

Interview Consent Form

Supervision of Instruction in Public Primary Schools in Ghana:

Teachers' and Headteachers' Perspectives.

Participant

I have read the participant information sheet, which explains the nature of the research and the possible risks. The information has been explained to me and all my questions have been satisfactorily answered. I have been given a copy of the information sheet to keep.

I am happy to be invited for an interview to be audio recorded as part of this research. I understand that I do not have to answer particular questions if I do not want to and that I can withdraw at any time without consequences to myself.

I agree that research data gathered from the results of the study may be published provided my name or any identifying data is not used. I have also been informed that I may not receive any direct benefits from participating in this study.

I understand that all information provided by me is treated as confidential and will not be released by the researcher to a third party unless required to do so by law.

_____   _____
            Signature of Participant   Date

Researcher

I have fully explained to _____ the nature and purpose of the research, the procedures to be employed, and the possible risks involved. I have provided the participant with a copy of the Information Sheet.

_____   _____
            Signature of Researcher   Date

Name_____

Appendix H

Information Letter

Supervision of instruction in Public Primary Schools in Ghana:

Teachers' and Headteachers' perspectives.

The purpose of this project is to examine teachers' and headteachers' perspectices about the nature and practices of supervision of instruction in public primary schools in Ghana. Dr Laura Perry is working with Associate Prof. Helen Wildy and Peter Baffour-Awuah (student/field assistant) to evaluate this program. We hope to find whether the program is meeting its aims successfully and whether there is anything we can learn from you that will be of value to other similar programs.

You are invited for an interview which will last about 30 minutes.

It will take place on---------------------- at ---------------------------------------.

We want to find out both your understanding of Instructional supervision as well as your opinions about how it is practised in your school. To help us achieve this, we will ask you to complete a brief survey. The survey will also ask about your age group, professional status, highest qualification and current work position. You will also be required to indicate your school location, the number of years you have served in your current position and in your current school.

You can decide at any time to withdraw your consent to participate in this research. If you decide to withdraw, any material you have given us will be destroyed. Withdrawing from the research will have no consequences for your ongoing participation in the program.

If you are willing to participate, could you please complete the details below? My supervisors and I are happy to discuss with you any concerns you may have on how this study has been conducted. If you wish to talk to an independent person about your concerns you can contact Murdoch University's Human Research Ethics Committee on +6189360 6677 or email ethics@murdoch.edu.au

You can expect to receive feedback in December, 2009. Thank you.

Appendix I

Ghana Education Service Performance Appraisal
for Heads of Basic Schools

Headteachers' manual (policy guide) should have been used for the purpose of this study. But the document appeared to be out of print at the time of my visit; one head had never seen a copy before, and I could not set eyes on one either. However, I was able to obtain a copy of the headteachers' appraisal form. It contains a set of criteria circuit supervisors use to assess the performance of headteachers. Some of these criteria are relevant to the current study because they comprise the de-facto dimensions by which heads are assessed. I have decided to reproduce only the relevant sections.

Management Activities

a) Has up-to-date knowledge of educational policies and ensures their implementation.

b) Involves staff in decision making.

c) Holds staff meetings regularly and effectively.

d) Involves pupils in decision making as and when necessary.

e) Delegates duties to staff.

f) Assigns responsibilities to pupils as needed.

g) Has cordial relationships with staff and ensures cordiality among staff.

h) Makes allocation of classes and shares responsibilities to teachers according to abilities.

i) Plans effective time table for school.

j) Ensures that co-curricular activities effectively supplement classroom work.

k) Ensures regular attendance and punctuality of staff to school.

l) Ensures regular attendance and punctuality of pupils to school.

m) Ensures effective discipline in the school.

n) Administers reprimands and sanctions as appropriate.

o) Maintains school property in good order.

p) Ensures that school compound is kept clean and healthy.

q) Manages financial matters effectively.

r) Ensures adequate storage and effective use of school textbooks, equipment and other supplies.

s) Submits end of term and end of year reports to the District Education Office through the Circuit Supervisor.

Instructional Supervision

a) Ensures that teachers teach according to the syllabus.

b) Monitors the effective use of teachers' handbook, textbook and stationery for teaching and learning.

c) Ensures that teachers use library periods properly.

d) Ensures that teachers make effective use of class time tables.

e) Regularly vets teachers' lesson notes accurately and effectively.

f) Ensures that continuous assessment records are kept up-to-date by teachers.

g) Visits classrooms to observe teaching/learning activities on regular basis.

h) Uses individual and/or group meetings with teachers to discuss their work.

i) Regularly does random sampling to obtain accurate information on pupils' performance.

j) Discusses performance of pupils with teachers and parents/guardians as appropriate.

Staff Development

a) Organizes school-based in-service training for new and beginning teachers.

b) Involves other teachers in school-based in-service training for new and beginning teachers.

c) Encourages experienced teachers to help other teachers professionally.

Records Keeping

Ensures accurate keeping of:

a) Admissions Register

b) Cash Analysis Book

c) Cash Book

d) Farm Records (if applicable)

e) Health Record Book

f) Inventory book/ledger and tally cards

g) Log Book

h) Minutes of School Management Committee

i) Parents/Visitors Book

j) Parent Teacher Association (PTA) Minutes Book

k) Pupils Attendance Registers

l) Pupils Cumulative Records

m) Pupils Individual Files (if applicable)

n) Pupils Report Cards

o) Reports on Disciplinary Problems

p) Staff Attendance Book

q) Staff Movement Book

r) Staff Minutes Book

s) Termly Assessment Plan

Communication Skills
a) Oral Communication

b) Written Communication

Personality Traits
a) Initiative and Foresight

b) Appearance

c) Decency in Relationships

Appendix J
Comparison of Participants' Responses to the Questionnaires by Gender, Location and the Number of Years in Current Position.

Comparison by Gender (Headteachers)

ITEM	Experience						Desired					
	Male			Female			Male			Female		
	Som	Alw	Total	Som	Alw	Total	Agr	SA	Total	Agr	SA	Tot
Suggesting how to teach	50.0	50.0	**100**	72.7	22.7	**95**	50.0	38.9	**89**	59.1	22.7	**82**
Using control	64.7	0.0	**65**	40.0	15.0	**65**	50.0	0.0	**50**	33.3	14.3	**48**
Inspecting for errors	18.8	18.8	**38**	15.8	47.4	**63**	35.3	23.5	**59**	50.0	15.0	**65**
Helping to solve problems	33.3	61.1	**94**	36.4	59.1	**96**	27.8	72.2	**100**	31.8	68.2	**100**
Availing self for advice	22.2	72.2	**94**	18.2	81.8	**100**	44.4	50.0	**94**	42.9	57.1	**100**
Evaluating teachers	55.6	44.4	**100**	61.9	38.1	**100**	72.2	27.8	**100**	50.0	50.0	**100**
Assess content knowledge	70.6	29.4	**100**	55.0	35.0	**90**	70.6	29.4	**100**	68.4	26.3	**95**
Instructional time	11.8	82.4	**94**	4.5	95.5	**100**	22.2	72.2	**94**	9.1	90.9	**100**
Mutual dialogue	55.6	33.3	**89**	42.9	57.1	**100**	52.9	47.1	**100**	36.4	63.6	**100**
Offering useful suggestions	22.2	66.7	**89**	27.3	68.2	**96**	33.3	66.7	**100**	31.8	68.2	**100**
Praising teachers	61.1	22.2	**83**	63.6	27.3	**91**	61.1	33.3	**94**	50.0	40.9	**91**
Teaching materials	11.8	82.4	**94**	18.2	77.3	**96**	22.2	77.8	**100**	9.1	86.4	**96**
Articles on research	31.2	0.0	**31**	66.7	9.5	**76**	44.4	33.3	**78**	57.1	38.1	**95**
Demonstrating teaching	68.8	0.0	**69**	57.1	19.0	**76**	70.6	16.6	**88**	52.4	38.1	**91**
Informal visits	47.1	29.4	**77**	75.0	25.0	**100**	66.7	16.7	**83**	52.4	38.1	**91**
Formal lesson observation	61.1	11.1	**72**	66.7	23.8	**91**	50.4	44.4	**95**	54.5	45.5	**100**
Pre-observation conference	64.7	5.9	**71**	54.5	9.1	**64**	72.2	22.2	**94**	63.6	31.8	**95**
Objective feedback	64.7	23.5	**88**	57.1	28.6	**86**	47.1	52.9	**100**	63.6	31.8	**95**
Peer observation	38.9	11.1	**50**	50.0	9.1	**59**	66.7	16.7	**83**	54.5	31.8	**86**
Meeting to share ideas	61.1	22.2	**83**	76.2	9.5	**86**	66.7	33.3	**100**	36.4	63.6	**100**
In-service workshops	58.8	17.6	**76**	63.6	13.6	**77**	22.2	72.2	**94**	27.3	63.6	**91**
Relationships with teachers	5.6	88.9	**95**	22.7	68.2	**91**	16.7	83.3	**100**	27.3	63.6	**91**
Caring and respect	0.0	88.9	**89**	13.6	72.7	**86**	22.2	61.1	**83**	27.3	63.6	**91**
Action research	50.0	5.6	**56**	50.0	27.3	**77**	61.1	27.8	**89**	36.4	50.0	**86**

Note. All figures are in percentages. Som = Sometimes, Alw = Always, Agr = Agree, and SA = Strongly Agree.

Comparison by Location (Heads)

ITEM	Experience						Desired					
	Rural			Urban			Rural			Urban		
	Som	Alw	Total	Som	Alw	Total	Agr	SA	Total	Agr	SA	Tot
Suggesting how to teach	50.0	50.0	**100**	66.7	30.0	**97**	50.0	50.0	**100**	56.7	23.3	**90**
Using control	80.0	0.0	**80**	40.7	11.1	**52**	70.0	0.0	**70**	31.0	10.3	**41**
Inspecting for errors	11.1	33.3	**44**	19.2	34.6	**54**	50.0	30.0	**80**	40.7	14.8	**55**
Helping to solve problems	40.0	40.0	**80**	33.3	66.7	**100**	40.0	60.0	**100**	26.7	73.3	**100**
Availing self for advice	30.0	60.0	**90**	16.7	83.3	**100**	30.0	70.0	**100**	48.3	48.3	**97**
Evaluating teachers	70.0	30.0	**100**	55.2	44.8	**100**	90.0	10.0	**100**	50.0	50.0	**100**
Assess content knowledge	77.8	22.2	**100**	57.1	35.7	**93**	70.0	30.0	**100**	69.2	26.9	**96**
Instructional time	10.0	80.0	**90**	6.9	93.1	**100**	20.0	80.0	**100**	13.3	83.3	**97**
Mutual dialogue	40.0	40.0	**80**	51.7	48.3	**100**	50.0	50.0	**100**	41.4	58.6	**100**
Offering useful suggestions	10.0	70.0	**80**	30.0	66.7	**97**	30.0	70.0	**100**	33.3	66.7	**100**
Praising teachers	60.0	10.0	**70**	63.3	30.0	**93**	80.0	20.0	**100**	46.7	43.3	**90**
Teaching materials	10.0	80.0	**90**	17.2	79.3	**97**	10.0	90.0	**100**	16.7	80.0	**97**
Articles on research	60.0	0.0	**60**	48.1	7.4	**56**	40.0	50.0	**90**	55.2	31.0	**86**
Demonstrating teaching	70.0	0.0	**70**	59.3	14.8	**74**	90.0	10.0	**100**	50.0	35.7	**86**
Informal visits	60.0	10.0	**70**	63.3	33.3	**97**	80.0	20.0	**100**	51.7	31.0	**83**
Formal lesson observation	60.0	10.0	**70**	65.5	20.7	**85**	70.0	30.0	**100**	46.7	50.0	**97**
Pre-observation conference	70.0	10.0	**80**	55.2	6.9	**62**	80.0	20.0	**100**	63.3	30.0	**93**
Objective feedback	66.7	11.1	**78**	58.6	31.0	**90**	77.8	22.2	**100**	50.0	46.7	**97**
Peer observation	30.0	20.0	**50**	50.0	6.7	**57**	80.0	10.0	**90**	53.3	30.0	**83**
Meeting to share ideas	80.0	10.0	**90**	65.5	17.2	**83**	70.0	30.0	**100**	43.3	56.7	**100**
In-service workshops	50.0	10.0	**60**	65.5	17.2	**83**	20.0	70.0	**90**	26.7	66.7	**93**
Relationships with teachers	10.0	80.0	**90**	16.7	76.7	**93**	40.0	60.0	**100**	16.7	76.7	**93**
Caring and respect	0.0	70.0	**70**	10.0	83.3	**93**	40.0	40.0	**80**	16.7	73.3	**90**
Action research	40.0	20.0	**60**	53.3	16.7	**70**	70.0	20.0	**90**	40.0	46.7	**87**

Note. All figures are in percentages. Som = Sometimes, Alw = Always, Agr = Agree, and SA = Strongly Agree.

Comparison by Work Experience (Heads)

ITEM	Experience						Desired					
	Up - 4 years			5+ years			Up – 4 years			5+ years		
	Som	Alw	Total	Som	Alw	Total	Agr	SA	Total	Agr	SA	Tot
Suggesting how to teach	66.7	33.3	**100**	59.1	36.4	**96**	83.3	11.1	**94**	31.8	45.5	**77**
Using control	62.5	0.0	**63**	42.9	14.3	**57**	41.2	5.9	**47**	40.9	9.1	**50**
Inspecting for errors	13.3	53.3	**67**	20.0	20.0	**40**	56.2	18.8	**75**	33.3	19.0	**52**
Helping to solve problems	33.3	61.1	**94**	36.4	59.1	**86**	33.3	66.7	**100**	27.2	72.7	**100**
Availing self for advice	11.1	83.3	**94**	22.2	72.7	**94**	41.2	58.8	**100**	45.5	50.0	**96**
Evaluating teachers	64.7	35.3	**100**	54.5	45.5	**100**	55.6	44.4	**100**	63.6	36.4	**100**
Assess content knowledge	50.0	50.0	**100**	71.4	19.0	**89**	68.8	31.2	**100**	70.0	25.0	**95**
Instructional time	11.1	83.3	**94**	4.8	95.2	**100**	11.1	88.9	**100**	18.2	77.3	**96**
Mutual dialogue	50.4	44.4	**94**	47.6	47.6	**95**	47.1	52.9	**100**	40.9	59.1	**100**
Offering useful suggestions	22.2	72.2	**94**	28.6	66.7	**95**	27.8	72.2	**100**	36.4	63.6	**100**
Praising teachers	66.7	22.2	**89**	59.1	27.2	**86**	50.0	44.4	**94**	59.1	31.8	**91**
Teaching materials	22.2	72.2	**94**	9.5	85.7	**95**	0.0	94.4	**94**	27.3	72.7	**100**
Articles on research	52.9	5.9	**59**	47.6	4.8	**52**	58.8	41.2	**100**	45.5	31.8	**77**
Demonstrating teaching	58.8	11.8	**71**	65.0	10.0	**75**	66.7	22.2	**89**	55.0	35.0	**90**
Informal visits	68.8	18.8	**88**	57.1	33.3	**90**	58.8	29.4	**88**	59.1	27.3	**86**
Formal lesson observation	82.4	11.8	**94**	50.0	22.7	**73**	44.4	55.6	**100**	59.1	36.4	**96**
Pre-observation conference	77.8	5.6	**83**	42.9	9.5	**52**	66.7	33.3	**100**	68.2	22.7	**91**
Objective feedback	58.8	29.4	**88**	61.9	23.8	**86**	58.8	41.2	**100**	54.5	40.9	**95**
Peer observation	50.0	11.1	**61**	40.9	9.1	**50**	61.1	22.8	**84**	59.1	22.7	**82**
Meeting to share ideas	61.1	27.8	**89**	76.2	4.8	**81**	38.9	61.1	**100**	59.1	40.9	**100**
In-service workshops	61.1	22.2	**83**	61.9	9.5	**71**	16.7	77.8	**95**	31.8	59.1	**91**
Relationships with teachers	11.1	88.9	**100**	18.2	68.2	**86**	16.7	77.8	**95**	27.3	68.2	**96**
Caring and respect	5.6	88.9	**94**	9.1	72.7	**82**	11.1	83.3	**94**	31.8	50.0	**82**
Action research	61.1	27.8	**89**	40.9	9.1	**50**	38.9	55.6	**95**	54.5	27.3	**82**

Note. All figures are in percentages. Som = Sometimes, Alw = Always, Agr = Agree, and SA = Strongly Agree.

Comparison by Gender (Teachers)

ITEM	Experience						Desired					
	Male			Female			Male			Female		
	Som	Alw	Total	Som	Alw	Total	Agr	SA	Total	Agr	SA	Tot
Suggesting how to teach	61.8	18.4	**80**	62.2	23.2	**85**	59.2	22.4	**82**	61.0	15.2	**76**
Using control	38.2	6.6	**45**	32.9	9.9	**43**	22.4	11.8	**34**	32.1	8.0	**40**
Inspecting for errors	38.7	16.0	**55**	45.6	24.1	**70**	41.3	17.3	**59**	50.9	17.4	**68**
Helping to solve problems	44.7	39.5	**84**	46.3	45.1	**91**	46.1	48.7	**95**	48.8	48.8	**98**
Availing self for advice	43.4	43.4	**87**	38.4	44.0	**82**	46.1	47.4	**94**	51.2	42.0	**93**
Evaluating teachers	49.3	29.3	**79**	52.2	27.7	**80**	70.7	22.7	**93**	69.2	19.1	**88**
Assess content knowledge	54.1	9.5	**64**	46.5	22.0	**69**	69.0	18.3	**87**	59.6	21.2	**78**
Instructional time	28.0	65.3	**93**	21.7	72.7	**94**	35.5	60.5	**96**	47.6	51.8	**99**
Mutual dialogue	50.0	32.9	**83**	43.8	41.4	**85**	46.7	44.0	**91**	49.8	45.0	**96**
Offering useful suggestions	52.6	42.1	**95**	42.0	47.8	**90**	49.3	46.7	**96**	54.9	42.0	**97**
Praising teachers	39.5	35.5	**75**	54.0	26.1	**80**	46.1	51.3	**97**	50.3	42.9	**93**
Teaching materials	42.1	43.4	**86**	33.1	45.6	**79**	35.1	62.2	**97**	39.9	52.1	**92**
Articles on research	29.3	12.0	**41**	37.3	13.0	**50**	59.2	31.6	**91**	55.3	32.9	**88**
Demonstrating teaching	49.3	9.3	**59**	44.4	13.0	**57**	71.1	15.8	**87**	61.5	23.1	**85**
Informal visits	72.0	10.7	**83**	65.2	14.9	**80**	55.4	25.7	**81**	62.5	20.0	**83**
Formal lesson observation	64.0	10.7	**75**	59.7	11.9	**72**	72.4	18.4	**91**	66.9	19.0	**86**
Pre-observation conference	46.1	10.5	**57**	42.7	11.6	**54**	61.8	21.1	**83**	62.5	20.0	**83**
Objective feedback	52.6	21.1	**74**	42.0	22.8	**65**	57.3	30.7	**88**	62.1	28.0	**90**
Peer observation	33.3	20.0	**53**	36.2	11.9	**48**	55.4	17.6	**73**	58.2	19.0	**77**
Meeting to share ideas	44.7	21.1	**66**	44.3	19.6	**64**	53.9	39.5	**93**	53.7	40.7	**94**
In-service workshops	50.7	14.7	**65**	47.8	14.9	**63**	45.3	50.7	**96**	44.4	53.1	**98**
Relationships with teachers	34.2	47.4	**82**	24.7	52.5	**77**	38.2	57.9	**96**	41.3	55.6	**97**
Caring and respect	32.9	57.9	**91**	30.2	54.3	**85**	35.5	59.2	**95**	35.0	57.7	**93**
Action research	39.5	14.5	**54**	37.7	14.2	**52**	57.9	30.3	**88**	60.5	28.4	**89**

Note. All figures are in percentages. Som = Sometimes, Alw = Always, Agr = Agree, and SA = Strongly Agree.

Comparison by Location (Teachers)

ITEM	Experience						Desired					
	Rural			Urban			Rural			Urban		
	Alw	Som	Total	Alw	Som	Total	Agr	SA	Total	Agr	SA	Tot
Suggesting how to teach	67.2	16.4	**84**	59.9	23.7	**84**	62.3	11.5	**74**	59.3	19.8	**79**
Using control	37.7	4.9	**43**	32.8	10.3	**43**	29.5	4.9	**34**	28.0	10.9	**39**
Inspecting for errors	50.0	10.0	**60**	40.4	25.7	**66**	48.3	13.3	**62**	47.1	19.0	**66**
Helping to solve problems	59.0	27.9	**87**	40.6	49.1	**90**	60.7	37.7	**98**	42.9	53.1	**96**
Availing self for advice	47.5	36.1	**84**	36.6	47.1	**84**	57.4	36.1	**94**	46.3	46.9	**93**
Evaluating teachers	55.0	20.0	**75**	49.4	31.4	**81**	72.1	13.1	**85**	67.8	23.0	**91**
Assess content knowledge	50.8	16.9	**68**	48.8	18.6	**67**	63.8	19.0	**83**	62.3	20.4	**83**
Instructional time	32.6	59.0	**92**	20.2	75.1	**95**	41.0	55.7	**97**	44.1	54.8	**99**
Mutual dialogue	62.3	29.5	**92**	40.0	42.3	**82**	53.3	43.3	**97**	48.0	45.7	**94**
Offering useful suggestions	55.0	40.0	**95**	41.9	48.3	**90**	68.3	28.3	**97**	47.4	49.1	**97**
Praising teachers	47.5	36.1	**84**	49.4	27.0	**76**	58.3	35.0	**93**	45.2	49.7	**95**
Teaching materials	50.0	40.0	**90**	31.0	47.1	**78**	41.0	50.8	**92**	37.4	56.9	**94**
Articles on research	39.0	11.9	**51**	33.1	13.1	**46**	62.7	25.4	**88**	54.0	35.2	**89**
Demonstrating teaching	48.5	11.7	**60**	45.1	12.0	**57**	71.2	8.5	**80**	62.0	25.1	**87**
Informal visits	70.0	8.3	**78**	66.1	15.5	**82**	58.3	15.0	**73**	60.5	24.4	**85**
Formal lesson observation	65.5	8.6	**74**	59.2	12.6	**72**	75.4	14.8	**90**	65.9	20.5	**86**
Pre-observation conference	59.0	9.8	**69**	37.9	11.9	**50**	62.7	22.0	**85**	61.7	20.0	**82**
Objective feedback	50.0	18.0	**68**	42.9	24.0	**67**	65.0	23.3	**88**	58.6	31.0	**90**
Peer observation	31.7	10.0	**42**	36.4	16.2	**53**	48.3	12.1	**60**	59.9	20.9	**81**
Meeting to share ideas	52.5	13.1	**66**	40.9	22.8	**64**	51.7	40.0	**92**	54.0	40.9	**95**
In-service workshops	63.3	10.0	**73**	43.1	16.7	**60**	44.3	54.1	**98**	44.3	52.3	**97**
Relationships with teachers	31.1	54.1	**85**	27.7	50.3	**78**	42.6	55.7	**98**	38.7	57.2	**96**
Caring and respect	32.8	59.0	**92**	29.7	54.9	**85**	42.6	55.7	**98**	32.4	59.7	**92**
Action research	49.2	9.8	**59**	34.3	16.0	**50**	67.2	23.0	**90**	56.6	31.4	**88**

Note. All figures are in percentages. Som = Sometimes, Alw = Always, Agr = Agree, and SA = Strongly Agree.

Comparison by Work Experience (Teachers)

ITEM	Experience						Desired					
	Up – 4 years			5+ years			Up – 4 years			5+ years		
	Alw	Som	Total	Alw	Som	Total	Agr	SA	Total	Agr	SA	Tot
Suggesting how to teach	60.2	24.7	**85**	63.0	19.9	**83**	58.1	17.2	**75**	61.6	17.8	**79**
Using control	39.8	6.5	**46**	30.8	10.5	**41**	28.3	6.5	**35**	29.0	4.1	**33**
Inspecting for errors	48.4	20.9	**69**	39.7	22.0	**62**	50.5	18.7	**69**	45.9	16.7	**63**
Helping to solve problems	44.1	39.5	**84**	46.5	42.4	**89**	48.4	46.2	**95**	47.2	50.7	**98**
Availing self for advice	39.8	39.8	**80**	39.7	46.8	**87**	53.8	39.8	**94**	46.5	46.5	**93**
Evaluating teachers	52.2	31.5	**84**	50.4	26.2	**77**	63.4	24.7	**88**	72.7	17.5	**90**
Assess content knowledge	46.7	21.1	**68**	50.7	16.2	**67**	66.7	20.7	**87**	60.4	19.4	**80**
Instructional time	28.3	65.2	**94**	20.3	74.1	**94**	45.2	53.8	**99**	42.5	55.5	**98**
Mutual dialogue	48.9	37.0	**86**	43.4	40.0	**83**	47.8	45.7	**94**	50.7	44.4	**95**
Offering useful suggestions	38.9	52.2	**91**	49.3	42.3	**92**	53.3	42.4	**96**	52.8	44.4	**97**
Praising teachers	48.9	28.3	**77**	49.3	29.9	**79**	57.0	39.8	**97**	43.4	49.7	**93**
Teaching materials	41.8	39.6	**81**	32.6	48.6	**81**	48.9	45.6	**95**	32.2	61.0	**93**
Articles on research	35.5	10.0	**45**	33.8	14.1	**48**	60.2	25.8	**86**	53.8	37.1	**91**
Demonstrating teaching	48.4	13.2	**62**	44.8	11.0	**56**	64.4	17.8	**82**	64.5	22.7	**87**
Informal visits	66.3	16.3	**83**	67.8	11.9	**80**	57.1	18.7	**76**	62.0	23.9	**86**
Formal lesson observation	63.0	12.0	**75**	59.6	11.3	**71**	63.4	21.5	**85**	71.7	17.2	**89**
Pre-observation conference	40.9	18.3	**59**	45.2	6.8	**52**	64.1	20.7	**85**	60.8	20.3	**81**
Objective feedback	41.9	25.8	**68**	47.2	20.1	**67**	55.9	31.2	**87**	62.0	27.5	**90**
Peer observation	29.3	18.5	**48**	39.4	12.0	**51**	53.8	22.0	**76**	59.3	16.4	**76**
Meeting to share ideas	40.0	18.9	**59**	46.9	21.0	**68**	59.8	35.9	**96**	49.7	43.4	**93**
In-service workshops	54.3	12.0	**66**	44.8	16.8	**62**	52.2	44.6	**97**	39.6	57.6	**97**
Relationships with teachers	28.3	52.2	**81**	26.9	50.3	**77**	53.3	43.5	**97**	31.5	65.0	**97**
Caring and respect	33.3	52.7	**86**	29.2	57.6	**87**	43.0	53.8	**97**	30.3	61.4	**92**
Action research	35.9	17.4	**53**	40.0	12.4	**62**	57.0	28.0	**85**	61.1	29.9	**91**

Note. All figures are in percentages. Som = Sometimes, Alw = Always, Agr = Agree, and SA = Strongly Agree.