UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EXPERIENCED AND BEGINNING BASIC SCHOOL TEACHERS' PERCEPTION OF THE IMPACT OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION ON PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN TWIFO-ATI MOKWA DISTRICT

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BY

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Thesis submitted to the Department of Basic Education of the College of Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Basic Education

AUGUST 2013

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:……. Date:……

Name: Fredua Agyemang

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:…… Date:…….

Name: Dr. C. K. Agezo

Co-Supervisor's Signature…… Date:……

Name: Mr. J. A. Yarquah

ABSTRACT

Effective supervision has been identified by many as one of the most vital ingredients for promoting effective teaching and learning. Beginning teachers serve as powerful workforce to support future development of a school yet the most critical problems facing the profession is how to improve the professional growth and development of beginning teachers. The main purpose of the study was to examine experienced and beginning teachers' perceptions of the impact of instructional supervision in the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District basic schools.

The study employed a descriptive survey method. The sample of the study consisted of 141 experienced and beginning teachers. Simple random and stratified sampling procedures were used to select the respondents. Four research questions were formulated to guide the study and questionnaire was the only instrument that was used to collect the data. The independent sample t-test as well as frequencies and percentages were used to analyse the data.

The main finding of the study was that both experienced and beginning teachers have positive perceptions about the kind of instructional supervisory practices carried out in the schools. It is recommended among others that supervisory approaches such as peer coaching, mentoring and clinical supervision should be emphasized more in the schools as these practices help beginning teachers to improve upon their teaching skills and to grow professionally.

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DEDICATION

To my family.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Education is a multi-faceted process. The role of a teacher in this process cannot be underestimated (Glatthorn, 1990). Through teachers, education fulfills its goal of teaching and nurturing students. In order to ensure an optimum teaching-learning environment, teachers need not only to be well educated, but be a part of the learning community. The purpose of teacher education and other professional development experiences is to promote the learning and growth of teachers as persons and as professionals.

According to Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1998), teachers who learn and grow become more adept in a broad range of instructional strategies, including building positive relationships with students, parents, and professional colleagues. As well, they become more capable and flexible in their capacity to make decisions. Supervision of instruction is designed to meet this developmental need in order to maintain effective education and provide sufficient resources for teachers. A variety of persons may be involved in improving classroom and school instruction and they are often referred to as supervisors. They are in a unique position to nurture, develop, and articulate the community's vision of what a learning environment can and should be (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). Among

those exercising supervisory responsibilities are school principals, assistant principals, instructional specialists, mentor teachers, instructional lead teachers, teacher study groups, counselors, clinical teachers, college faculty, programme directors, collaborative inquiry teams, and central office personnel (Reiman &Thies-Sprinthall, 1998). The main theme of this study is based on the belief that the supervisory process should be a collaborative effort reflecting the professional concerns of the individual teacher. Researchers (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Glatthorn, 1990; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 1998; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998) emphasized the importance of the collaborative effort of all participants involved in the supervisory process.

Over a long period of time supervision had been based on hierarchical principles. The role of the teacher was to impart basic truths to children, whereas the role of the supervisor was to serve as the "inspector" to ensure the curriculum had been followed and essential skills had been learned (Edmeier & Nicklaus, 1999). As this orientation toward teacher supervision became more common, many teachers were afraid to ask supervisors for help or to seek collegial assistance for fear that doing so would expose weaknesses in their teaching, which could be reflected later in low evaluations and possible punitive actions. As Edmeier and Nicklaus noted, supervision as an evaluation tool reduced the possibility of nurturing collegiality, collaboration, and reflective practice.

Redefinition of supervision, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), includes the disconnection of supervision from hierarchical roles and is viewed as a more democratic and professional process, involving multiple skills that are

equally available to teachers and supervisors. This new supervision embraces different configurations of teachers as colleagues working together to increase the understanding of their practice. Supervision plays an essential role in; deciding the nature and conduct of the curriculum; selecting the school organizational patterns and learning materials; facilitating teaching/learning; and evaluating the entire educational process (Neagley & Evans, 1970). Studies have shown that effective supervision of instruction is one of the important functions of the school administrator and has improved teaching and learning process tremendously. Many later researchers in teacher supervision have since expanded upon or moved away from earlier ideas to meet their needs and, according to them, to better meet the needs of teachers and supervisors. Today, many variations of models are used to supervise teachers.

Zepeda (2007) advocated for a combination of three aspects of supervision to best achieve the goal of improving teaching. Her cycle of supervision included instructional supervision, professional development, and evaluation (Zepeda, 2007). Research findings also suggested that learning improves when school administrators pay close attention to instructional supervision (Gensante, 1994). Again, according to Mankoe (2007), supervision seeks to improve methods of teaching and learning, create physical, social and psychological climate that is favourable to learning, and to coordinate and integrate all educational efforts and materials in order to ensure continuity.

One of the most critical problems facing the profession is how to improve the development of beginning teachers. Novice teachers find their first few years

of teaching a trying and often defeating experience (Glatthorn, 1990). Entrance into the teaching profession is marked by an initial period of challenges and opportunities. Teachers begin their careers facing the most difficult assignments (Huling-Austin, 1990) with a lack of time for planning, supervision, and interaction with colleagues (Odell & Ferraro, 1992).

Educational leaders in schools must "support successful teacher induction in the ways they respond to these beginning teachers' needs" (Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 1998, p.13). As Robinson (1998) pointed out, to be successful, beginning teachers must meet their challenges with perseverance, hard work and quality assistance from experienced teachers and administrators who are willing to provide and recognize extensive support for novice teachers during the first year or two of their teaching careers. Effective supervision and coaching programmes at the induction level have been found to ameliorate beginning teacher concerns, and to increase beginning teacher focus on instruction (Huling-Austin, 1990).The problems experienced by beginning teachers should not lead supervisors to conclude that all induction programmes should focus solely on survival issues (Glatthorn,1990). Historically, research has shown that beginning teachers leave the profession within a relatively short period of time. Darling-Hammond and Sclan (1996) reported that 50% of beginning teachers left the profession after five years.

In 1997 the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) in the U.S.A. reported that 20% of beginning teachers left the field of education after the first three years and 9% left after their first year. When a similar study was repeated by

NCES in 2001 it was found that 33% of beginning teachers left the profession within their first three years, and almost 50% left after five years (NCES, 2001). Although several complex factors may be responsible for teacher shortages, Ingersoll and Smith (2003) suggested that one important reason may be that beginning teachers are leaving the profession because of early disillusionment and dissatisfaction. Professional development, as a desired outcome of supervision, must be a key issue in induction, given that novice teachers are future educational leaders (Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 1998).Teachers differ in their preferences and choices for supervision (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). While there are teachers who would like to be left alone to do their job, others would appreciate comments about their teaching (Augustyn, 2001).

According to Glatthorn (1990), beginning teachers can also be characterized in terms of their preferences for certain of kinds supervisory practices. There is general agreement that most beginning teachers require the intensive assistance of clinical supervision. To improve their instructional performance, the supervisor should also work with them in two other styles, a direct supervisory style and flexible collaborative style.

Stemming from the need for improved supervision of teachers is a need to develop a connection between supervision and professional development (Dollansky, 1997). The route taken in professional development should parallel teacher needs (Jonasson, 1993). Professionalism of beginning teachers depends on how their particular needs are satisfied. It is the purpose of administrators as supervisors to provide necessary and effective models of supervisory practice for

professional development. Teachers need to have a choice among supervisory styles available for their academic growth. Thus, personal and professional development is the outcome of the effective supervision (Oja & Reiman, 1998).

Statement of the Problem

Beginning teachers serve as a powerful workforce to support future development of a school. As they are new to the teaching profession and the school, mentoring and professional development are effective ways to integrate the beginning teachers into the learning community and its culture. Providing an accommodating environment to beginning teachers will help retain the best teachers in school. Heads assume a significant role in working with beginning teachers to facilitate their entry to the teaching profession.

Notwithstanding, the first years of teaching are tough and that is no secret. Hundreds of studies from the past few decades, to present day, investigating the topics of reality shock, beginning teacher stress and burnout, and beginning teacher socialization all testify to the early life of new teachers being as Ryan (1986) described it "the most turbulent, difficult, perplexing, frustrating, and painful one in a young teacher's life" (p. 3). The transition from a student teacher to a teacher of students is a challenging and difficult journey that can take the novice through a whole odyssey of roller-coaster emotions, confusions, frustrations and a kind of reality shock. Veenman (1984) explained this phenomenon as "a collapse of the missionary ideals formed during training by the harsh and rude reality of everyday classroom life" (p.143). This reality shock seems to arise, in part, from a lack of preparation for many of the difficulties and

demands of teaching and an inability to transfer skills and concepts mastered at pre service into the classroom (Corcoran, 1981; Gaede, 1978; Gordon, 1991).

Ryan, Newman, Mager, Applegate, Lasley, Flora, and Johnston, (1980) identified several other areas of difficulty for first-year teachers. These areas include personal life adjustment, teachers' expectations and perceptions of teaching, the strains of daily interactions, and the teaching assignment itself. The researchers concluded that these difficulties lead to intense strain, fatigue, depression and subsequently, for many, exit from the profession. Meanwhile the administration and parents expect demonstrations of expertise comparable to those of a seasoned veteran (Howey & Bents, 1979).

According to Oliva (1976), the way teachers perceive supervision in schools and classrooms is an important factor that determines the outcomes of the supervision process. In addition, previous research and publications revealed that because of its evaluative approaches; less experienced teachers have more negative attitudes toward the practice of supervision than more experienced teachers. They consider supervisors as fault finders; they fear that supervisors will report their weaknesses to the school administrator, and consider supervision as having nothing valuable to offer to them (Blumberg, 1980; Oliva, 1976; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). However, literature on perception of teachers toward supervisory practices is very limited.

Research also shows that, little professional growth occurs in the initial years of teaching (Howey & Bents, 1979; Lagana, 1970; Shulman & Colbert, 1988). Without support and guidance, beginning teachers have been found to

adopt “coping survival strategies” which can actually prevent effective instruction from happening and unassisted beginners are also likely to develop negative teaching behaviours. Other beginning teachers become disillusioned and quit teaching after the first year (Gordon, 1991). Professionalism of beginning teachers depends on how their particular needs are satisfied.

It appears that supervisors do not provide necessary and effective models of supervisory practice for professional development. The professional development of the beginning teachers in the first two years of teaching seems to be overlooked by most heads and circuit supervisors at the Basic Education level within the Ghana Education Service. This attitude makes most of these novice teachers unable to find their feet in the teaching environment. It is in this context that a survey research is being conducted to examine the beginning teachers’ perception of instructional supervision and its impact to professional development in Twifo Ati-Mokwa District.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to examine beginning teachers’ perceptions of the impact of instructional supervision on their professional development. It was to examine supervisory practices such as clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, reflective coaching, teaching portfolios, and professional growth plans and their perceived connection to professional development.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the instructional supervisory practices in basic schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?
2. What is the perception of beginning and experienced teachers regarding the actual and ideal supervisory practices in Basic Schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?
3. What is beginning and experienced teachers' level of satisfaction with supervisory practices in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?
4. What is beginning teachers' perception of the impact of instructional supervisory practices on teachers' professional development?

Significance of the Study

The significance of this study lies in the fact that it would hopefully contribute to the research literature, on the subject of supervision in Basic Schools. The findings will also enable teachers, headteachers, circuit supervisors other practitioners in the field of education to adopt the acceptable supervisory practices that will enhance effective teaching and learning in Basic Schools in Ghana.

The study again will also help the Ghana Education Service and Ministry of Education to be aware of the problems associated with supervision of novice teachers in Basic Schools so as to help manage them. In addition, it would help supervisors and teachers to cooperate in the use of the types of supervision in the

achievement of educational goals. Hence, it would help to improve supervision practices in the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District.

Finally, the study would benefit the school communities in the district as pupils' performance would greatly improve. The knowledge gained by the supervisors will enhance their supervisory role which will translate to effective teaching and learning.

Delimitation of the Study

The study was delimited to teachers who were in the first or second year of teaching in the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District of the Central Region. It was also delimited to teachers who have been in the teaching field for more than five years. The study also focused on perceptions of selected supervisory approaches.

Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of the study was the apathy on the part of some of the teachers involved in the study who displayed very little interest in the study. As a consequence, they rushed through responding to the various items in the questionnaire.

Lastly generalizability of this study cannot be done since the research was conducted in basic schools in one district from the region.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following notions were defined:

1. **Ideal supervisory approaches:** This refers to the frequency with which selected supervisory approaches (clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, self-directed, development or reflective

coaching, portfolios, and professional growth plans) that teachers prefer to be applied in their schools.

2. **Real supervisory approaches:** This refers to the frequency with which teachers perceive selected supervisory approaches actually occur in their schools.
3. **Beginning or novice teacher:** This term refers to a teacher presently in the first or second year of experience of teaching.
4. **Experienced teacher:** This refers to teachers as who have approximately 5 years or more of classroom experience.

Organisation of the Rest of the Study

The study is organized and presented in five chapters. Chapter two reviews some of the relevant literature pertaining to the area of instructional supervision. These are supervision, models of supervision, different approaches to supervisory process, definition of supervision, history of supervision, purpose of instructional supervision, overview of instructional supervisory approaches, professional growth plans, teachers' perception of supervisory process, teachers' satisfaction and attitude toward instructional supervision relationship between instructional supervision and professional development, fostering professional development through supervision, integrating supervision, professional development, and conceptual framework. Chapter three involves the research methodology. This includes research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, instruments, data collection procedure, and data analysis. Results and

discussion are presented in chapter four. A summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations for policy and practice are the focus of chapter five.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews literature on the models of supervision, concepts and some related studies under the following headings: definition of supervision; history of supervision; the purpose of instructional supervision; professional growth plans; teachers perception of supervisory processes; teachers satisfaction and attitude toward instructional supervision; relationship between instructional supervision and professional development; fostering professional development through supervision and conceptual framework of supervision.

Supervision

Typically, supervision has been viewed as a process that focuses on directing, controlling, or intimidating individuals (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000); however, the last decade has seen a paradigm shift to more of a collegial approach (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2001). This paradigm shift was brought about by criticisms of schools for being unresponsive to the needs of teachers, parents, and children (Johnson, 1990). Therefore, school administrators and supervisors have started including teachers in the overall responsibilities of school policy making. In addition to having more responsibility in establishing school policy, teachers also need to have more input pertaining to their own developmental process. Recent research stated that if the supervisory process is to

be effective, teachers need to have a voice in the evaluation of their teaching (Danielson, 1996). Allowing the supervisory process to be more follower-driven enriches and strengthens an organization (Gardner, 1990); therefore, understanding the type of leadership provided to teachers becomes imperative.

Leadership style can vary from individual to individual, particularly in educational settings. Some leadership styles are rooted in personality, and others are based on situations. Examples of leadership styles rooted in personality are the legalist, realist, analyst, and empathist (Barrett, 1991). The legalist leader maintains, stabilizes, and organizes people; the realist leader negotiates, troubleshoots, and take risks; the analyst leader is creative and multitalented; and the empathist leader is service-based and desires to serve a basic need of others (Barrett).

Contrary to leadership style based on personality, situational leadership (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2001) is determined by a leader matching his leadership style to a person's willingness and ability to complete a particular task. For example, an individual who is knowledgeable in a particular area but lacks self-confidence may need encouragement from the leader but does not need help completing the task. As Knowles (1980) pointed out in his theory of Pedagogy to Andragogy, adults need to be involved in their learning experience. Therefore, their leadership process should take into account individual desires and concerns. In particular, a supervisor currently functioning as the leader in an educational system should be concerned with current teacher issues, particularly teacher concerns.

Fuller, Parsons, and Watkins (1974) clearly outlined three stages of teacher concerns: self-adequacy, teaching task, and teaching impact. Self-adequacy concerns are described mostly as survival concerns. Some survival concerns often experienced by pre-service and beginning teachers include supervisor's approval, administrative support, relationships with other teachers, subject matter adequacy, and discipline problems with students. Teaching tasks are concerns that are often felt by teachers who are concerned with developing innovative teaching materials and methods within their specific workload. Teaching impact concerns are focused on the student as a whole and whether he or she is learning and advancing academically. Teachers are more focused on student needs and educational improvement. Moreover, teachers are concerned with personal and professional development and ethical issues within the educational system that could affect the student body. Thus, concerns vary from teacher to teacher and from school year to school year; therefore, the type of supervisory guidance given to teachers should vary along with those concerns.

Models of Supervision

Fritz and Miller (2003) developed the Supervisory Options for Instructional Leaders (SOIL) framework (Figure 1) for supervisors in educational settings. The essence of leadership portrayed in the SOIL framework is selecting a particular leadership style that reflects the current developmental level of the teacher. A teacher can select from supervisory models immersed in the structured, moderately structured, and relatively unstructured levels of the SOIL framework. The structured level of the framework contains two supervisory models, clinical

and conceptual, that offer a structured process for the supervisor and teacher to use. The clinical supervisory model would include a planning conference, classroom observation and data collection, analysis and strategy, supervision conference, and post conference analysis (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993). The conceptual model would consist of the supervisor and teacher addressing organizational factors (e.g., workload, classroom climate) and personal factors (e.g., life stage, teaching assignment) that influence the teacher's commitment and trust in the teaching system as well as how these factors directly reflect the performance quality of the teacher (Edmeirer & Nicklaus,1999).

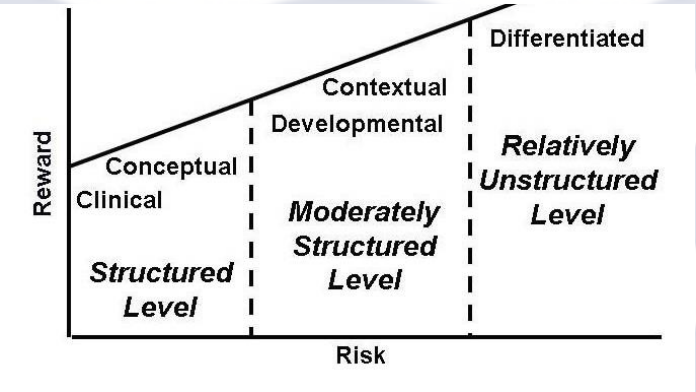

Figure 1. Supervisory options for instructional leaders (SOIL) framework. From "Supervisory options for instructional leaders in education" by C. A. Fritz and G. S. Miller, 2003, *Journal of Leadership Education*, *2*(2), p. 22.

The moderately structured level has two supervisory models for a teacher and supervisor to utilize. The models are developmental and contextual. The developmental model consists of three types of assistance from the supervisor: directive approach, collaborative approach and nondirective approach (Glickman et al., 2001). The directive approach consists of the supervisor setting goals and

objectives for the teacher; the collaborative approach provides an opportunity for the teacher and supervisor to establish goals together; and the non-directive approach provides for more teacher control in the supervisory process (Glickman et al.).

The contextual supervisory model (Ralph, 1998) focuses on matching supervisory styles with the readiness level of the teacher to perform a particular task. The readiness levels are based on the teacher's competence and confidence in teaching. There are four leadership styles a supervisor would use related to a teacher's competence and confidence: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. The telling phase is for a supervisor who is assisting a teacher who is confident in his/her abilities but is not completely competent in the particular subject matter area. The selling phase is primarily used with a teacher who is struggling with his or her confidence in the classroom and subject matter competence. A supervisor must almost perform like a salesman in order to boost the confidence and competence of the teacher. The participating supervisory style is used with a teacher who struggles with his or her confidence but who is competent in the subject matter in the classroom. The supervisor would need to assist in motivating the teacher to boost his or her confidence level in the classroom; however, the teacher in this phase is competent in the subject matter. The delegating supervisory style is used with a teacher who is confident in his or her teaching abilities and competent in the subject matter being taught. The supervisor would not need to provide a high amount of support but would provide feedback only if there were immediate concerns or requests.

The relatively unstructured level of the SOIL framework consists of the differentiated supervisory model (Glatthorn, 1997). A supervisor operating under this level of supervision (relatively unstructured) is unique because the teacher is allowed to select which supervisory technique he or she would receive (Glatthorn, 1997). The techniques the teacher could select from are: intensive development, cooperative professional development, self-directed, and administrative monitoring**.** Intensive development provides an opportunity for the supervisor and teacher to focus on one objective until the objective is perfected. For example, the teacher is struggling with classroom management and needs assistance with this area. Therefore, the supervisor and teacher would work on this area until it was perfected. Cooperative professional development is a technique that includes a team of three to four teachers who observe each other's classroom and provide feedback. Self-directed is completely influenced by the teacher; therefore, the teacher self-directs his or her own supervision through student feedback, videotapes, journals, and portfolios. Administrative monitoring consists of the supervisor arriving at the teacher's classroom unannounced to conduct a supervisory visit. The supervisor could use any supervisory style he or she chooses for administrative monitoring; however, most supervisors would utilize an open-ended evaluation tool to accompany this style. Risk is a major component of the SOIL framework and is defined by Mish (1989) as "the exposure to possible loss or injury" (p. 632). Some examples of these risks for the supervisor as a result of incorporating more teacher driven models of supervision could be:

(a) colleagues criticizing work ethic,

(b) losing identity of a job title,

(c) teachers' not fulfilling their responsibilities, and

(d) accountability for teaching performance. The structured level offers less risk for the supervisor but is potentially less rewarding when compared with less-structured models found in the moderately structured or relatively unstructured levels. Reward is another component of the SOIL framework.

Reward is defined as "something given or offered for some service or attainment" (Mish, 1989, p. 628). Several rewards could be gained if the supervisor employed less structured and therefore more teacher-driven types of supervision. Some possible rewards are:

(a) reflection opportunities for the teacher to measure growth over time,

(b) flexibility for the supervisor,

(c) collaboration opportunities for the supervisor and teacher, and

(d) greater job satisfaction. For example, less directive supervisors can provide an opportunity for the teacher to gain more self-control, which could lead to greater teacher job satisfaction (Hersey et al., 2001). In the SOIL framework, moving from structured levels to unstructured levels of supervision potentially increases risk for the supervisor, but it also increases potential for reward.

Definition of Supervision

There is no single unifying definition of supervision in the literature (Alfonso & Firth, 1990). Supervision can be defined according to different aspects of the notion, but from an educational administration perspective, of great

interest are the definitions which reveal supervision as a collaborative action aimed at developing effective instruction.

As Wanzare and Da Costa (2000) stated, a survey of the literature revealed many definitions of supervision - each one unique in its focus and purpose - ranging from a custodial orientation to a humanistic orientation. Drake and Rose (1999) noted that in a custodial context, 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. A whole-school approach suggested, "supervision is the function in schools that draws together all the discrete elements of instructional effectiveness into whole-school action" (Glickman, 1998). A more humanistic definition suggested that supervision of instruction is a multifaceted, interpersonal process that deals with teaching behaviour, curriculum, learning environments, grouping of students, teacher utilization, and professional development (Pfeiffer & Dunlap, 1982).

Beach and Reinhartz (2000) regarded instructional supervision as a process that focuses on instruction and provides teachers with information about their teaching so as to develop instructional skills to improve performance. The focus of this improvement, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), may be on a teacher's knowledge, skills, and ability to make more informal professional decisions or to solve problems better, or it may be to inquire into his or her teaching. Such a focus on teachers' instructional improvement permits to achieve higher quality of learning.

Glatthorn (1990) added that supervision is "the comprehensive set of services provided and processed to help teachers facilitate their own professional development so that the goals of the school district or the school might be better attained" (p. 84).

According to Musaazi (1982) supervision is basically concerned with all actions taken to ensure the achievement of instructional objectives. Whereas Oliva, (1993), explains the term as any service to teachers as individuals or groups that will help in improving instruction. School supervision, according to Beycioglu and Donmez (2009), is defined as "an administrative inspection that lays emphasis on administrative monitoring, enforcement and control" (p.71). As it is described by various writers, school supervision is generally related with external inspection aimed at monitoring and control of teachers' performance and school improvement (Beycioglu & Donmez, 2009; Grauwe, 2007; Zepeda, 2007). Lovell and Wiles, (1983) added that "Instructional supervisory behaviour is assumed to be an additional behaviour system formally provided by the organization for the purpose of interacting with the teaching behavior system in such a way to maintain, change, and improve the design and actualization of learning opportunities for students" (p. 4). Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2005) define supervision as the application of certain knowledge, interpersonal and technical skills to the tasks of direct assistance, group development, curriculum development, professional development, and action research that will enable teachers to teach in a collective purposeful manner that brings together organizational goals and teachers' needs, and also improves quality of student

learning. Glickman, Gordon & Ross – Gordon (2007) views supervision as "The function in schools that draws together the discrete elements of instructional effectiveness into whole – school action". (p.8). They presuppose that supervision today denotes a common vision of what teaching and learning can and should be that is created together by supervisors, teachers and other members of the school community. To them, no matter the nature of a school, the success of the school is achieved only when supervision is able to provide a common glue that keeps individual teachers needs and school needs together.

As the literature review shows, definitions of instructional supervision which focus on the improvement of instruction are the most widespread (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993; Hoy & Forsyth, 1986). Intrinsic to these definitions is that supervision is viewed as a set of services and processes aimed at improving the effectiveness of instruction and the professional development of the teachers. Teachers and administrators must actively engage in the process of supervision. Both parties must understand the characteristics of effective supervision and enthusiastically enter into the process (Glatthorn, 1990). Beach and Reinhartz (2000) stated that the challenge for supervisors is to integrate what is known about supervision into a process that helps remove obstacles in working with teachers to foster their professional growth and promote quality teaching and learning. Teachers should then have the opportunity to reflect on all aspects of the teaching process and to participate in professional development activities that foster instruction.

History of Supervision

Supervision in schools began in the late 1830s in the United States. Initially, superintendents inspected schools to see to it that the city school system followed the prescribed curriculum and that students were able to recite their lessons. In the early decades of the twentieth century, the scientific movement in both industrial and public administration and the child-centered and experience-based curriculum theories of European education influenced schools. Thus; school supervisors were caught between the demands to evaluate teachers scientifically and a diverse repertory of instruction that makes responses to students' natural curiosity and level of readiness.

In the second half of the century, supervision became closely identified with clinical supervision, (Starrat, 1997). Clinical supervision which was initially formulated by Morris Cogan and Robert Anderson mixed elements of "objective" and "scientific" classroom observation with aspects of collegial coaching, rational planning, and a flexible, inquiry-based concern with student learning. Goldhammer, (1969) proposed five-stage process in clinical supervision. These processes are as follows:

1. Pre-observation conference between supervisor and teacher concerning elements of the lesson to be observed;
2. Classroom observation;
3. Supervisor's analysis of notes from the observation, and planning for the post-observation conference;
4. Post-observation conference between supervisor and teacher; and

5. Supervisor's analysis of the post-observation conference.

Many practitioners, however, reduced these stages to three: the pre-observation conference, the observation, and the post-observation conference. Cogan insisted on a collegial relationship focused on the teacher's interest in improving student learning, and on a nonjudgmental observation and inquiry process. The initial practice of supervision of instruction suffered a lot of pressures from the views coming out of the post-sputnik curriculum reforms of the 1960s that focused on the structures of the academic disciplines. Thereafter, perspectives generated by research on effective schools and effective classrooms that seemed to have discovered the basic steps to effective teaching governed the clinical supervision process. It was during this period also that the noted educator Madeline Hunter adapted research findings from the psychology of learning and introduced what was also to become a very popular, quasi-scientific approach to effective teaching in the 1970s and 1980s. These various understandings of curriculum and teaching were frequently superimposed on the process of clinical supervision and became normative for supervisors' work with teachers. However, in many academic circles the original collegial and reflective process of Cogan and Goldhammer continued as the preferred process of supervision.

In Ghana, supervision of instruction begun in the late 1800's when inspectors were used to ensure that teachers accounted for the instructional time they spent with learners and the salary paid them. The nature of supervision at the time emphasized the adherence to rules and regulations (Oduro, 2007). The first inspector of schools, Reverend Sunter was appointed in the year 1881 and a full

inspectorate director appointed in1890. In the 1940's, visiting Europeans also carried out supervision to support untrained teachers in rural areas in Ghana. The work of supervisors at the time was to ensure that headteachers and teachers complied with rules and regulations, were accountable for education inputs and also to assess and upgrade teachers (Oduro, 2007). But as the focus of supervision changed from accountability to instructional improvement, the Ghana Education Service also adopted clinical supervision.

The Purpose of Instructional Supervision

The purpose of setting up schools includes creating the enabling environment and situations for the learners to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes that will be useful to them, in terms of earning a living and to the society, in terms of producing the needed man-power. This purpose or goal is achieved mainly through classroom instruction. Supervising instruction to maintain and improve teaching and learning is therefore important in every educational set up.

Writers such as Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, (2007) believe that supervision in schools takes care of ensuring that the needs of individuals in the schools are synchronized with the needs of the school to make sure that actual teaching and learning outcomes are consistent with stated instructional goals. Sergiovanni and Starrat, in Mankoe, (2007) believe that the purpose of supervision is to maintain standards, improve teacher commitment to achieving educational goals and help teachers develop professionally. Thus, they summarize the purpose into three main categories namely: supervision for quality control, supervision for professional development and supervision for teacher motivation.

Ukeje, Akabogu & Alice (1992), also explained that "instructional supervision aims at helping teachers to become self–directive, that is, developing in them the necessary positive attitudes, skills and information that will make them prepared to willingly contribute to the solution of educational and instructional problems and also provide a favourable setting for student learning". (p. 346).

It also aims at the promotion of pupil growth by supplying leadership in adapting the educational programme to needs and values of society (Wiles & Lovell, in Ukeje, Akabogu & Alice, 1992). Wanzare and Da Costa (2000) classified purposes of supervision, which include the following:

1) Instruction improvement (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Glickman et al.,1998; Goldsberry,1997; Nolan, 1997; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998; Waite, 1997).
2) Effective professional development of teachers (Acheson & Gall, 1997; Beach & Reinhartz, 2000; Glatthorn, 1984; Waite, 1997; Wiles & Bondi, 1996).
3) Helping teachers to become aware of their teaching and its consequences for learners (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon 1998; Nolan, 1997)
4) Enabling teachers to try out new instructional techniques in a safe, supportive environment (Nolan, 1997).
5) Fostering curriculum development (Nolan, 1997; Oliva & Pawlas, 1997; Wiles & Bondi, 1996).
6) Encouraging human relations (Wiles & Bondi, 1996).
7) Fostering teacher motivation (Glickman et al., 1998).

8) Monitoring the teaching-learning process to obtain the best results with students (Schain, 1988).

9) Providing a mechanism for teachers and supervisors to increase their understanding of the teaching-learning process through collective inquiry with other professionals (Nolan & Francis, 1992).

Supervision is primarily concerned with the improvement of classroom practice for the benefit of students regardless of what may be entailed, be it curriculum development or staff development (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992). As McQuarrie and Wood (1991) stated, "the primary purpose of supervision is to help and support teachers as they adapt, adopt, and refine the instructional practices they are trying to implement in their classrooms"(p. 93). Sergiovanni (1992), summarizing the reasons for supervision noted, "We supervise for good reasons. We want schools to be better, teachers to grow, and students to have academically and developmentally sound learning experiences; and we believe that supervision serves these and other worthy ends" (p. 204). To sum it up, Wanzare and Da Costa (2000) stated that the overarching purpose of supervision is to enhance teachers' professional growth by providing them with feedback regarding effective classroom practices.

Supervisors can enhance these purposes by using a variety of supervisory strategies with different teachers just as effective teachers must employ a rich methodology to reach all their students. There is a clear understanding among scholars that teachers have different backgrounds and experiences, different abilities in abstract thinking, and different levels of concern for others (Beach &

Reinhartz, 2000; Glickman et al., 1998; Wiles & Bondi, 1996). Thus, effective supervisors must employ a framework that most appropriately matches the strategies to the context and the unique characteristics of the teacher. Matching supervisory approaches to individual needs has great potential for increasing the motivation and commitment of teachers at work.

Concise matching of supervisory approaches to individual needs and preferences is impossible, but more informed matching decisions can be made by considering different styles in supervision (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998).

Mankoe (2007) gave a general purpose of supervision as providing leadership that ensures perpetuation in and constant re-adaptation in the educational system for a period of years, at all levels, and learning experiences. Mankoe also gave three immediate purpose of supervision as follows.

1. To improve methods of teaching and learning
2. To create a conducive physical, social and psychological environment for learning
3. To co-ordinate and integrate all educational efforts and materials in order to ensure continuity.

Supervision should help teachers participate effectively in maintaining their schools as learning organizations by organizing and leading activities that promote learning; and fixing the flaws in the current design. Fullan, (1995) Glickman, Gordon & Ross – Gordon (2007) also summarize the purpose of supervision as follows:

> Supervision is intended to reduce the norms of the one room-isolation, psychological dilemma, routine inadequate teacher induction, inverted beginner responsibilities, lack of career stages, and the absence of shared technical culture-and increase the norms of public dialogue and action for the benefit of all students (p. 32).

From the above definitions, it is clear that instructional supervision is intended among other things to promote students' learning and motivate teachers to be more committed to their work. Instructional supervision also ensures teachers' professional development.

Providing Options for Teachers

The educational practice of instructional supervision appears to be a contentious issue in contemporary educational circles, and it has been characterized by shifting attitudes among researchers and educators alike. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) stated that contemporary schools need to provide teachers with options in supervisory approaches. The set of approaches may differ for beginning and experienced teachers.

In response to the concerns about the state of supervisory practices for beginning teachers, alternative models of supervision have arisen and taken hold over the past two decades. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) noted that these models of supervision refer to face-to-face contact with teachers with the intent of improving instruction and increasing professional growth. The shift here is toward viewing supervision as a process "designed to help teachers and supervisors learn

more about their practice, to be better able to use their knowledge and skills to observe parents and schools, and to make the school a more effective learning community" (p. 50).

Rikard (as cited in Shively & Poetter, 2002) stated that new models that envision the possibility that teachers themselves can provide the kind of supervisory leadership necessary for strengthening teaching and programmes for beginning teachers are taking hold and proving to be effective. Administrators and teachers in the schools with programmes that support teacher education programmes can be well-equipped to supervise beginning teachers. As Sullivan and Glanz (2000a) stated, the major finding that emerged from their research was that certain leadership and implementation practices promoted the successful implementation of alternative approaches to supervision, such as mentoring, peer coaching, peer assessment, portfolios, and action research. The proper use of various approaches to supervision can enhance teacher's professional development and improve instructional efficiency.

The following review differentiates between both traditional and alternative approaches to supervision that can be considered most effective for staff development and teacher effectiveness. These include clinical supervision, developmental approach, collaborative development, self-directed or reflective development, portfolios, and professional growth plans. Administrative monitoring is included in the review, but cannot be considered as an option for teachers. Implementing of different models of supervisory practices is intended

not only to give choices to the teachers; it is also designed to provide choices to the administrators and schools (Glatthorn, 1984).

Overview of Instructional Supervisory Approaches

Formative Evaluation

Sergiovanni (1992) stated that "today, supervision as inspection can be regarded as an artifact of the past, a function that is no longer tenable or prevalent in contemporary education" (p. 204). He explained that though functioned for a considerable span of time, this type of externally steered accountability perspective on supervision caused negative stereotypes among teachers, where they were viewed as subordinates whose professional performance was controlled. Supporting this idea, Anderson and Snyder (1993) stated, "because of this, teachers are unaccustomed to the sort of mutual dialogue for which terms like mentoring, peer coaching and collegial assistance are coming in to use" (p.1).

It should be clear, however, that traditional supervisory approaches should not be removed completely because supervisory authority and control are essential for professional development. Mitchell and Sackney (2000) explained this as "much of past practice is educationally sound and should not be discarded" (p. 37). Having said this, it is important to differentiate instructional supervision from evaluation. Poole (1994) stated that "instructional supervision is a *formative* process that emphasizes collegial examination of teaching and learning" (p. 305). In this regard, participants in the instructional supervision process plan and carry out a range of professional growth opportunities designed to meet teacher's professional growth and educational goals and objectives at different levels.

Teacher evaluation, on the other hand, is "a *summative* process that focuses on assessing the competence of teachers, which involves a formal, written appraisal or judgment of an individual's professional competence at specific time" (Poole, 1994, p. 305). Implementing different supervisory approaches is essential not only to give choices to teachers; it is also important to provide choices to the administrators and schools (Kutsyuruba, 2003). The widely used approaches to instructional supervision (formative evaluation) are categorized as clinical supervision, collaborative supervision (peer coaching, cognitive coaching, and mentoring), self-reflection (self-directed development), professional growth plans, and portfolios (Alfonso & Firth, 1990; Clarke, 1995; Poole, 1994; Renihan, 2002; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Zepeda, 2007).

Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision is a systematic, sequential, and cyclic supervisory process that involves the interaction between the supervisors and teachers. Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski (1993) stated that clinical supervision means that there is a face-to-face relationship of supervisors with teachers, though in the past it had been conducted at a distance, with little or no direct teacher contact. Methods of clinical supervision can include group supervision between several supervisors and a teacher, or a supervisor and several teachers (Pajak, 2002). One of the first advocates of clinical supervision, Cogan (1973) defined clinical supervision as:

Clinical supervision, or intensive development (Glatthorn, 1990), has also been defined as "that phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from

first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face (or other associated) interaction between the supervisor and teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviours and activities for instructional improvement" (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewki 1980, p. 19-20). Lovell and Wiles (1983) supported that Clinical Supervision is an effort by the supervisory system to interact directly with a teacher or group of teachers to provide support, assistance, and service to those teachers in order to improve their classroom performance

This form of supervision has been traditionally viewed as an intensive skill-focused process that incorporates a five-step cycle. Researchers (Goldhammer et al., 1980, 1993; Tanner & Tanner, 1987; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007) provided a structure of clinical supervision that includes pre-observation conference, classroom observation, analysis and strategy, supervision conference, and post conference analysis. Clinical supervision can be used with inexperienced beginning teachers, teachers who are experiencing difficulties, and experienced teachers looking to improve their performance in the classroom.

Glickman, Gordon & Ross–Gordon (2007) assert that clinical supervision is one of the most popular established structures for giving classroom teachers direct assistance. Originally resulting from the first work of Morris Cogan, Clinical supervision has seen numerous alterations. (Goldhammer, Anderson, Krayewski, 1993; Pajak, 1993, Acheson & Gall, 1992; Costa and Garmstorn, 1985; Anderson & Snyder, 1993). Morris Cogan (as cited in Acheson and Gall, 1997) defines clinical supervision as "the rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance" (p. 9). Cogan was positive that for

this to be effective, data had to be collected from the teacher in the classroom, and that both the supervisor and teacher involved would then come together to plan programmes, procedures and strategies aimed at improving the teacher's classroom behaviour, specifically instruction techniques.

Developmental Supervision

Another process of supervisory practice is referred to as developmental supervision (Glickman et al., 1998). "Developmental supervision encompasses a number of tasks and skills that promote instructional dialogue and learning and teacher professional growth and development" (Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 1998, p.12). This model views teachers as individuals who are at various levels of professional growth and development. The supervisors are seen appropriately employing different leadership styles with different teachers and according to different circumstances. Within this framework, supervisors (as they interact with teachers) seek to foster thinking skills, which help in the analysis of classroom instruction and make teachers more aware of the many options for change (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000).

For Glickman et al. (1998), " instructional improvement takes place when teachers improve their decision making about students, learning content, and teaching" (p. 51), which is largely a process of adult learning through supervision. Developmental supervision is built on the premises that human development is the purpose of education. This model presupposes that as supervisors work with the teachers, they need to match their assistance to teachers' conceptual levels, and they also need to allow teachers to take charge of their own improvement. In

addition, supervisors must be knowledgeable about and responsive to the development stages and life transitions of teachers.

As Tanner and Tanner (1987) noted, in this approach supervisors would employ three leadership orientations with teachers, namely directive, collaborative, and nondirective. Glickman et al. (1998), however, in describing the developmental process, identified four styles supervisors may employ: directive control, directive informational, collaborative, and non-directive.

The **directive control style** includes the following kinds of supervisory behaviours: directing, standardizing, and reinforcing consequences. The result of this orientation is the mutually agreed-upon plan of action between the supervisor and the teacher. The directive supervisor judges the most effective way to improve instruction by making tasks clear, reassessing the problems and possible solutions, and showing teachers what is to be done. It implies that the supervisor is more knowledgeable in the matter and his or her decisions are more effective for improving the instruction. In the directive informational style, the supervisor standardizes and restricts choices during the meetings, with the result of a supervisor-suggested plan of action. This orientation is used to direct teachers to consider and choose from clearly delineated alternative actions. Such an approach is useful when the expertise, confidence, and credibility of the supervisor clearly outweigh the teachers' own information, experience, and capabilities (Glickman et al., 1998).

The **collaborative style** is premised on participation by equals in instructional decision making process. This orientation includes the following

behaviors: listening, presenting, problem solving, and negotiating, which lead to a development of a contract between the teacher and the supervisor. Collaboration is appropriate when teachers and supervisors have and are aware of similar levels of expertise, involvement, and concern with a problem. Equality is the major issue in this orientation. The result is a contract, mutually agreed upon and carried out as a joint responsibility.

In **a non-directive style,** supervisors view teachers as capable of analyzing and solving their own instructional problems. Non-directive behaviours include listening, reflecting, clarifying, encouraging, and problem solving. The purpose of this type of supervision is to provide an active sounding board for thoughtful professionals (Glickman et al., 1998). The outcome is generated by the teacher, who determines the plan of action.

In general, developmental supervision provides the supervisor with the way to connect the teacher's levels of professional development with the appropriate supervisory style. As Tanner and Tanner (1987) indicated, "if teachers are to grow in their professional commitment for solving problems, a growth of developmental model of supervision is required" (p. 187).

Collaborative Supervision

Collaboration and collegiality are very important in today's modern schools. According to Burke and Fessler (1983), teachers are the central focuses of collaborative approach to supervision. Collaborative approaches to supervision are mainly designed to help beginning teachers and those who are new to a school or teaching environment with the appropriate support from more experienced

colleagues. Thus, these colleagues have an ethical and professional responsibility of providing the required type of support upon request (Kutsyuruba, 2003). In this regard, a teacher who needs collegial and collaborative support should realize that "feedback from colleagues and other sources should be solicited in order to move toward improvement" (Burke & Fessler, 1983, p.109). The major components of collaborative approaches to supervision are: peer coaching, cognitive coaching, and mentoring. However, it is stated by various authors that these approaches to instructional supervision overlap each other but are quite different in their purpose and function (Kutsyuruba, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Showers & Joyce, 1996; Sullivan & Glanz, 2002; Uzat, 1998).

Peer Coaching

One of the approaches of collaborative supervision is peer coaching (Showers & Joyce, 1996). According to Glatthorn (1990), peer coaching seemed to be the most intensive process among all cooperative development models. The coaching approach uses cohorts and is often coupled with clinical supervision. As teams work together, their emphasis is on asking questions, which serve to clarify their own perceptions about instruction and learning. Peer coaching provides opportunities to refine teaching skills through immediate feedback and through experimentation with alternate strategies as a result of the informal evaluation (Bowman & McCormick, 2000). During peer coaching, beginning teachers collaborate to develop a shared language, forums to test new ideas about teaching, and, ultimately, expertise (Glickman et al., 1998).

According to Hosack-Curlin (1993), coaching "which is built upon a collaborative relationship between observer and teacher, significantly increases classroom utilization of newly acquired skills…" (p. 231). Peer coaching is really important for beginning teachers. Hosack-Curlin (1993) stated that findings in this area showed that the beginning teachers rated experienced teachers who coached them as highly competent and the process itself as very necessary.

Robbins clearly stated peer coaching as "a confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect on current practices; expand, refine, and build new (innovative) skills; share ideas; teach one another… or solve problems in the work place" (as cited in Latz, Neumeister, Adams, & Pierce, 2009, p. 28). The goal of coaching as described by Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), is to develop communities within which "teachers collaborate each other to honour a very simple value: when we learn together, we learn more, and when we learn more, we will more effectively serve our students"(p. 251).

Peer coaching can be very effective for all participants because both parties profit from the exchange. Showers and Joyce (1996) stated that peer coaching helped nearly all participants; furthermore "teachers introduced to the new models could coach one another…" (p.14).

Cognitive Coaching

The term cognitive in supervision refers to becoming aware (mediated thinking) of one's own teaching effectiveness. Cognitive coaching is an effective means of establishing sound relationships between two or more professionals of different status (beginners with experienced teachers, beginners with assigned

supervisors, or experienced teachers with assigned supervisors). According to Neubert and Bratton (cited in Batt, 2010), "the cognitive coach should be more knowledgeable and experienced in the practices being learned than the teacher being coached"(p. 999). Thus, in cognitive coaching, the coaches (more experienced teachers or supervisors) act as a mediator between the beginner teacher to be coached and his or her own thinking. Cognitive coaching is therefore, defined as "a set of strategies, a way of thinking and a way of working that enables self and others to shape and reshape their thinking and problem solving capacities" (Costa & Garmston, 2002, p. 22). Cognitive coaching also refers to "a nonjudgmental process in which supervisor (senior teacher) attempts to facilitate teacher learning(the one to be coached) through a problem solving approach by using questions to stimulate the teacher's thinking" (Costa and Garmston ,1994, p. 2). Cognitive coaching differs from peer coaching in that peer coaching focuses on innovations in curriculum and instructions, whereas cognitive coaching is aimed at improving existing practices (Showers & Joyce, 1996).

Mentoring

Mentoring is a process by which an experienced teacher assists the new professional towards professional growth and experience. The mentor, as an experienced professional, opens the pathway to the new professional to become established.

Over the past decade, reports and related research have come out advocating the enhanced use of mentoring to assist novice teachers within their first years of teaching.

Smith (2002) stated that traditionally, many beginning teachers entered the classroom with only minimal opportunity to interact with students and more importantly, learn from master teachers. But recent research projects and publications have addressed mentoring in teacher professional development. Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1998) in their book described the connection between mentoring, supervision and professional development.

Mentoring as defined by Sullivan and Glanz (2000) is "a process that facilitates instructional improvement wherein an experienced teacher (*mentor*) works with a *novice or less experienced teacher* collaboratively and nonjudgmental to study and deliberate on ways instruction in the classroom may be improved" (p. 213). It differs from peer coaching and cognitive coaching in that mentoring involves a hierarchical relationship only between a novice and senior (more experienced) teacher. In addition, in mentoring, one senior teacher from the same department is assigned as a mentor for one novice teacher. Thus, it is a one-to-one correspondence between senior and novice teachers (Murray & Mazur, 2009). Mentoring is a form of collaborative (peer) supervision focused on helping new teachers or beginning teachers successfully learn their roles, establish their self images as teachers figure out the school and its culture, and understand how teaching unfolds in real class rooms (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), "mentors are not judges or critics, but

facilitators of instructional improvement, and all their interactions and recommendations with staff members are confidential" (p. 213).

Self-Reflection

As the context of education is ever-changing, teachers should have a professional and ethical responsibility to reflect on what is happening in response to changing circumstances. Thus, they can participate in self assessment reflective practices (Kutsyuruba, 2003). According to Glatthorn (1990), self- directed development is a process by which a teacher systematically participates for his or her own professional growth in teaching. According to Sergiovanni (1991), self-directed approaches are "mostly ideal for teachers who prefer to work alone or who, because of scheduling or other difficulties, are unable to work cooperatively with other teachers"(305). In addition, this approach is "particularly suited to competent and experienced teachers who are able to manage their time well" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007, p. 276). Sergiovanni and Starratt further considered this option to be "efficient in use of time, less costly, and less demanding in its reliance on others" (p.276). Thus, the writers indicated that in self-directed supervision "teachers work alone by assuming responsibility for their own professional development" (p. 276).

Portfolios

As teachers want to be actively participating in their own development and supervision, they need to take ownership of the evaluation process (Kutsyuruba, 2003). The best way for teachers to actively involved in such practices is the teaching portfolio (Painter, 2001). A teaching portfolio is defined as a process of

supervision with teacher compiled collection of artifacts, reproductions, and testimonials that represents the teachers' professional growth and abilities (Riggs & Sandlin, 2000). A portfolio, according to Zepeda (2007), is "an individualized, ongoing record of growth that provides the opportunity for teachers to collect artifacts over an extended period of time" (p. 85). In portfolios, teachers evaluate themselves and develop their teaching practice as well as pedagogical and domain knowledge with the evidence from collection of the artifacts (Reis & Villaume, 2002).

Similarly, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) stated that the intent of portfolio development is to establish a file or collection of artifacts, records, photo essays, cassettes, and other materials designed to represent some aspects of the class room programme and teaching activities. As Sullivan and Glanz (2000) stated portfolio documents are not only innovative and effective practices of teachers, but also it is a central road for teachers professional growth "through self-assessment, analysis, and sharing with colleagues through discussion and writing" (p. 215).

A professional portfolio can serve many different purposes. Although the portfolio can be time-consuming to construct and cumbersome to review, it not only documents the development of innovative and effective practices, but "it is a central vehicle for the growth of the teacher through self-reflection, analysis, and sharing with colleagues through discussion and writing" (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b). Wolf (1996) advocated the importance of this approach by stating that it can capture the complexities of professional practice in ways that no other

approach can: “Not only are they [portfolios] an effective ways to assess teaching quality, but they also provide teachers with opportunities for self reflection and collegial interactions based on documented episodes of their own teaching” (p. 34). Although each portfolio is different, they usually include teacher resources, references, and professional articles with practical suggestions.

Portfolios can be used to support and enrich mentoring and coaching relationships (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b). Wolf (1996) noted that teachers create portfolios for a variety of reasons, namely, to demonstrate their achievements, to acquire new positions, or to build their own professional development by creating portfolios based on individual growth plans.

Professional Growth Plans

Professional growth plans are not a particularly new approach to teacher supervision and staff development (Fenwick, 2001). Beach and Reinhartz (2000) stated that in order to assess teacher performance, one must consider the instructional intent, the teaching learning interactions, and the results of teachers’ efforts. It is useful for the supervisor to engage teachers in reflective writing, as well as describing the goals and objectives with their perceived results. In the past teachers participated in individual goal setting activities, which now are referred to as professional development plans “long term projects teachers develop and carry out” (McGreal, as cited in Brandt, 1996, p. 31).

The teachers are required to reflect on their instructional and professional goals and become more active participants in the assessment process by describing intended outcome and plans for achieving the goals. Teachers select

the area in which they wish to enhance their skills, put their entire plan in writing, including where to obtain the knowledge, what workshops they will attend, what books and articles they expect to read and how they will set up practice activities. It also includes who will observe them as they begin to implement the new learning (Barkley & Cohn, 1999). Professional growth plans "could produce transformative effects in teaching practice, greater staff collaboration, decreased teacher anxiety, and increased focus and commitment to learning" (Fenwick, 2001, p. 422).

Teachers' Perception of Supervisory Processes

From laypersons conducting school inspection in the 18th century, up to the practice of neoscientific management, supervision in most schools of the world has focused on inspection and control of teachers (Alemayehu, 2008). Sullivan and Glanz (2000) stated that "the evaluation function of supervision was historically rooted in a bureaucratic inspectional type of supervision"(p. 22). In a study of supervision and teacher satisfaction, Fraser (1980) stated that "the improvement of the teaching learning process was dependent upon teacher attitudes toward supervision" (p. 224). He noted that unless teachers perceive supervision as a process of promoting professional growth and student learning, the supervisory practice will not bring the desired effect.

Kapfunde (1990) stated that teachers usually associate instruction supervision with appraisal, rating, and controlling them. In Ethiopia, many teachers resent or even fear being supervised because of the history of supervision, which has always been biased towards evaluation or inspection

(Haileselassie, 1997). Regarding the challenges of teachers, it is stated in various literatures that beginning teachers face more challenges than more experienced teachers.

Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (1998) stated that "teaching has been a career in which the greatest challenge and most difficult responsibilities are faced by those with the least experience"(p. 21). Similarly, Johnson (2001) noted that "at least 30 percent of beginning teachers leave the profession during the first two years" (p. 44). For many less experienced teachers, supervision is viewed as a meaningless exercise that has little value than completion of the required evaluation form (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). The writers further described that "no matter how capable are designated supervisors, as long as supervision is viewed as nothing value to teachers, its potential to improve schools will not be fully realized" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007, p. 5).

Moreover, Acheson and Gall (1992) said that the hostility of teachers is not towards supervision but the supervisory styles teachers typically receive. Thus, selecting and applying supervisory models aimed at teachers' instructional improvement and professional growth is imperative to develop a sense of trust, autonomy, and professional learning culture (Hargreaves & Fullan, 2000).

Teachers' Satisfaction and Attitude toward Instructional Supervision

In a study of instructional supervision and teacher satisfaction, Fraser (1980, p. 224) stated that "the improvement of the teaching learning process was dependent upon teacher attitudes toward supervision". He further noted that unless teachers perceive instructional supervision as a process of promoting professional growth

and student learning, the supervisory practice will not bring the desired effect. Instructional supervision become effective when supervisors (principals, vice principals, department heads, senior teachers, assigned supervisors) focus their attention on building the capacity of supervisee, then giving them the autonomy they need to practice effectively, and finally, enabling them responsible for helping students be effective learners (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007).

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), better teaching means improved student learning. When students are not learning well, and when teachers are not teaching well, one important problem may be the amount (frequency) and quality of instructional supervision the school provides. Supporting this, research findings indicated that "teachers who experienced collaborative instructional supervision reported a slightly but significantly higher level of satisfaction than teachers who did not experience collaborative supervision" (Thobega & Miller, 2003, p. 57).

The attitude and satisfaction of teachers toward instructional supervision depends largely on several factors such as smooth teacher-supervisor relationship, availability of supervisory choices based on teachers' needs, as well as mutual trust, respect and collaboration among supervisees and supervisors (Kutsyuruba, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Zepeda, 2007). In this regard, a research conducted by Kutsyuruba (2003) on beginning teachers' perception of instructional supervision revealed that "beginning teachers desire more frequent use of instructional supervision that meets their professional needs, that promotes

trust and collaboration, and that provides them with support, advice and help" (p. 4).

In addition, recent studies show that beginning teachers' perception of inadequacies of the amount and quality of instructional supervision develops into the sense of disappointment and forming negative attitudes toward supervision process (Choy, Chong, Wong & Wong, 2011).

Relationship between Instructional Supervision and Professional Development

The overall purpose of instructional supervision is to help teachers improve, and this improvement could be on what teachers know, the improvement of teaching skills, as well as teacher's ability to make more informed professional decisions (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007). Instructional supervision is an important tool in building effective teachers' professional development. Instructional supervision is "an organizational function concerned with teacher growth, leading to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning" (Nolan & Hoover, 2008, p. 6). It is clear that continuous improvement in methods and skills is necessary for every professional, and so the professional development of teachers has become highly important (Anderson & Snyder, 1998; Carter, 2001; Zepeda, 2007).

According to Zepeda (2007), there must be a clear connection of instructional supervision to professional development. She added that the various models or approaches of instructional supervision such as clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring have their contributions to enhance teachers' professional development. Research findings on instructional

supervision suggested that there is a significant link between instructional supervision and professional development. They are inter-linked and inter-dependent (Burant, 2009). Supporting this, Sullivan (1997) on the other hand, stated that as fields of educational development, instructional supervision and professional development are interlinked and "can and should overlap as needs and local preferences dictate" (p. 159).

Instructional supervision and professional development are linked in several ways. As McQuarrie and Wood (1991) noted one connection to be through is the use of data obtained from supervisory practices used in planning and implementing staff development as part of instructional improvement and helping teachers improve their skills.

Fostering Professional Development through Supervision

Wanzare and Da Costa (2000) pointed to four key strategies for enhancing the professional growth of teachers through supervision. First, according to Starratt (1997), the establishment and subsequent administrative support and provision of guidance for a systemic and continuing staff development process, supported by collaborative approaches to problem solving (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995), should focus on means of linking new knowledge, on ways of thinking, and on practical use of the knowledge, experience, and values (Glickman et al., 1998).

Second, teachers need to engage individually and in groups in the concrete tasks of teaching, observation, assessment, experimentation, and reflection (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995). This approach can result in a better

understanding of the learning and development processes given their teaching contexts and students.

Third, given the wide variety of supervisory approaches described in the literature, supervisors should match appropriate supervisory strategies to teachers' unique characteristics and their levels of developmental needs. The ultimate goal of supervisors should be to enable teachers to be self-directed and encourage independent decision making on supervisory techniques (Glickman et al., 1998).

Fourth, Wanzare and Da Costa (2000) stated that organizational leaders should work to establish a culture that values professional, collegial interactions among participants, such as team planning, sharing, evaluation, and learning to create methods for peer review of practice. In doing so, they promote the spread of ideas and shared learning (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995).

Integrating Supervision and Professional Development

Supervision and professional growth are linked processes (Jonasson, 1993). According to Sullivan (1997), supervision and professional development as fields of educational development are inextricably linked and "can and should overlap as needs and local preferences dictate" (p.159).

Supervision and staff development are connected in several ways. McQuarrie and Wood (1991) regarded one connection to be through the use of data from supervisory activities that can be used in the planning and implementation of staff development to improve instructional practices and as a means of helping teachers to refine and expand skills acquired during in-service training. Staff development is a prerequisite to effective supervision and may be

used to prepare teachers and supervisors to participate in supervision programmes by teaching them the skills they need to implement and maintain effective supervisory practices. McQuarrie and Wood also noted that both supervision and staff development (1) focus on teacher effectiveness in the classroom; (2) are judgment-free processes that improve teachers' instructional practices in a collaborative atmosphere; (3) may be provided by teachers, supervisors, and administrators; and (4) promote in their participants a sense of ownership, commitment, and trust toward instructional improvement.

Supervision is an important vehicle for staff development (Wanzare & Da Costa, 2000). As Glickman et al. (1998) suggested, "The long-term goal of developmental supervision is teacher development toward a point at which teachers, facilitated by supervisors, can assume full responsibility for instructional improvement" (p. 199). The authors concluded that teacher development should be a critical function of supervision for three reasons: teachers functioning at higher developmental levels tend to use a wider variety of instructional behaviours associated with successful teaching; teachers who have themselves reached higher stages of cognitive, conceptual, moral, and ego development are more likely to foster their own students' growth in those areas; and teachers at higher levels of adult learning are more likely to embrace "a cause beyond oneself" and participate in collective action toward school-wide instructional improvement - a critical element found in effective schools research.

The connection between supervision and professional development has changed and become stronger in the recent years. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998)

stated that traditionally improvements have been sought by providing formal and informal in-service programmes and activities, the emphasis of which is on training teachers. But in recent years, in-service has given way to professional development, where teachers play key roles in deciding the direction and nature of their professional development. In-service education assumes a deficiency which needs a development of a certain skill. Conversely, professional development assumes that teachers need to grow and develop on the job. Supervisors are viewed as facilitators of such growth.

The planning and conducting of effective professional development programmes should be based on and directed by research and best practice (Wood & Thompson, 1993). In this process, the emphasis is on the development of the professional expertise by involving teachers in problem solving and action research. According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), "teachers and supervisors share responsibility for the planning, development, and provision of staff development activities, and the focus is much less of training than on puzzling, inquiring, and solving problems" (p. 276).

Supervisor's role in professional development emphasizes providing teachers with the opportunity and the resources (teaching materials, media, books, and devices) they need to reflect on their practice and to share their practice with others. Supervisors, therefore, help both indirectly, by promoting opportunity and support, and directly, by collaborating with teachers as colleagues (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). The supervisors need to be aware of the teacher's professional

level and to provide the right framework and accountability for their development (Ogden, 1998).

Professional development needs differ for novice and experienced teachers, and special programmes should be developed to meet these needs. Several major concerns of the beginning teachers are outlined, among which are fatigue, work overload, and pressure of being a new teacher.

As Glatthorn (1990) stated, beginning teachers can be characterized in terms of their preferences for certain kinds of supervisory processes. First, a general view is that most beginning teachers need the intensive assistance of clinical supervision. They can benefit from the developmental processes of pre-conference, observation, and post conference. Second, the supervisor should work with them in a so-called "flexibly collaborative style" (p. 364), which presupposes suggestion-based action plan on behalf of the supervisor or mentor.

Administrators can provide opportunities for novice teachers to be engaged in team teaching with experienced professionals. This professional orientation may involve planning for teaching, team-teaching, and providing feedback. The mentor may be an experienced peer, college professor or supervisor, school principal or former teacher. It is the administrators' responsibility to see to it that mentors are qualified, well-trained, and capable of providing the guidance needed for improving the professional development of novice teachers.

Experienced teachers have special professional development preferences and needs, too. Only a small percentage need intensive clinical supervision that

focuses on the essential skills of teaching (Glatthorn, 1990). The greater number can benefit from collaborative and self-directed models that will foster their continuing professional growth and recognize their unique talents.

In sum, for professional development to be meaningful to both the beginning and experienced teachers, and to lead to the renewal and instructional improvement, Glickman et al. (1998) stated that it needs to operate at two levels. First, the teachers as individuals should have a variety of learning opportunities to support the pursuit of their own personal and professional career goals. And second, teachers as part of the educational organization should be willing to define, learn, and implement skills, knowledge, and programmes together, in order to achieve the goals of education.

Conceptual Framework

Supervision is a continual process that allows teachers the opportunity to facilitate their own professional growth. Each teacher is an individual with a set of preferences and perceptions that cause specific behaviours in different situations. Each school, as an organization, is relatively unique with its own peculiar professional context. The changing situational character of schools, or "contingency theory" (Hanson, 2003) is currently coming to be understood as a key to effective educational administration. A contingency view of supervision is based on the premise that teachers are different and that matching supervisory options to these differences is important (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998). In choosing a supervision method, "teachers play key roles in deciding which of the options make most sense to them given their needs at the time" (p. 252). The

process gives teachers the support and knowledge they need to change themselves in order to grow professionally.

The conceptual framework model (see Figure 2) shows that supervision is a cyclical process. Depending on the professional context for instructional supervision, beginning teachers and supervisors collaboratively select between approaches to formative supervision. The formative process is developmental in nature and incorporates the ideas of developmental supervision model (Glickman et al., 1998). It is aimed at assisting beginning teachers to become effective and to constantly improve (Poole, 1994). The summative process involves evaluation as a means of judgmental appraisal to measure professional growth of beginning teachers (Wareing, 1990). Supervision and evaluation are viewed as separate activities (Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation, 2002). Teacher evaluation is viewed as a critical function of administration, but systematic evaluation of teacher performance remains separate from supervision (Glatthorn, 1990).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) suggested that teachers may choose between collaboration with supervisors or peers and self-reflection paths in supervision. Once the collaborative path is chosen, teachers can select from many supervision approaches including: clinical supervision (Goldhammer et al., 1993), cognitive coaching (Costa & Garmston, 1994), peer coaching (Showers & Joyce, 1996), and mentoring (Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 1998). Clinical supervision is a three-step process consisting of a pre-conference, an observation, and a post-conference. Cognitive coaching allows teachers to ask questions to explore thinking behind their practices. In peer coaching, teachers work collaboratively in

pairs and small teams or cohorts, in which the coach provides feedback to teachers to help them to reach their professional goals. Mentoring provides the opportunity for experienced educator (mentor) to work with a novice or less experienced teacher (protégé) collaboratively and nonjudgmental to study and deliberate on ways instruction in the classroom may be improved. Some teachers prefer to be supervised by a self-reflective process. Self-reflection path can involve self-evaluation (Glatthorn, 1990), portfolios (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b), and professional growth plans (Fenwick, 2001).

Teachers using self-evaluation work alone and are responsible for their own professional growth. In the portfolio approach, teachers collect information from their students, colleagues, or themselves about their teaching. In professional growth plans, teachers reflect on their instructional and professional goals and become more active participants in the assessment process by describing intended outcomes and plans for achieving the goals.

As can be seen from Figure 2, the supervisory process remains developmental, considering teachers' levels of development (Glatthorn, 1990; Glickman et al., 1998). At the conclusion of the formative supervision process, beginning teachers should experience professional growth and an improvement in their ability to reflect on aspects of their teaching performance. Parallel to formative processes, summative evaluation is used to measure the extent of professional growth and development of beginning teachers for the purposes of retention.

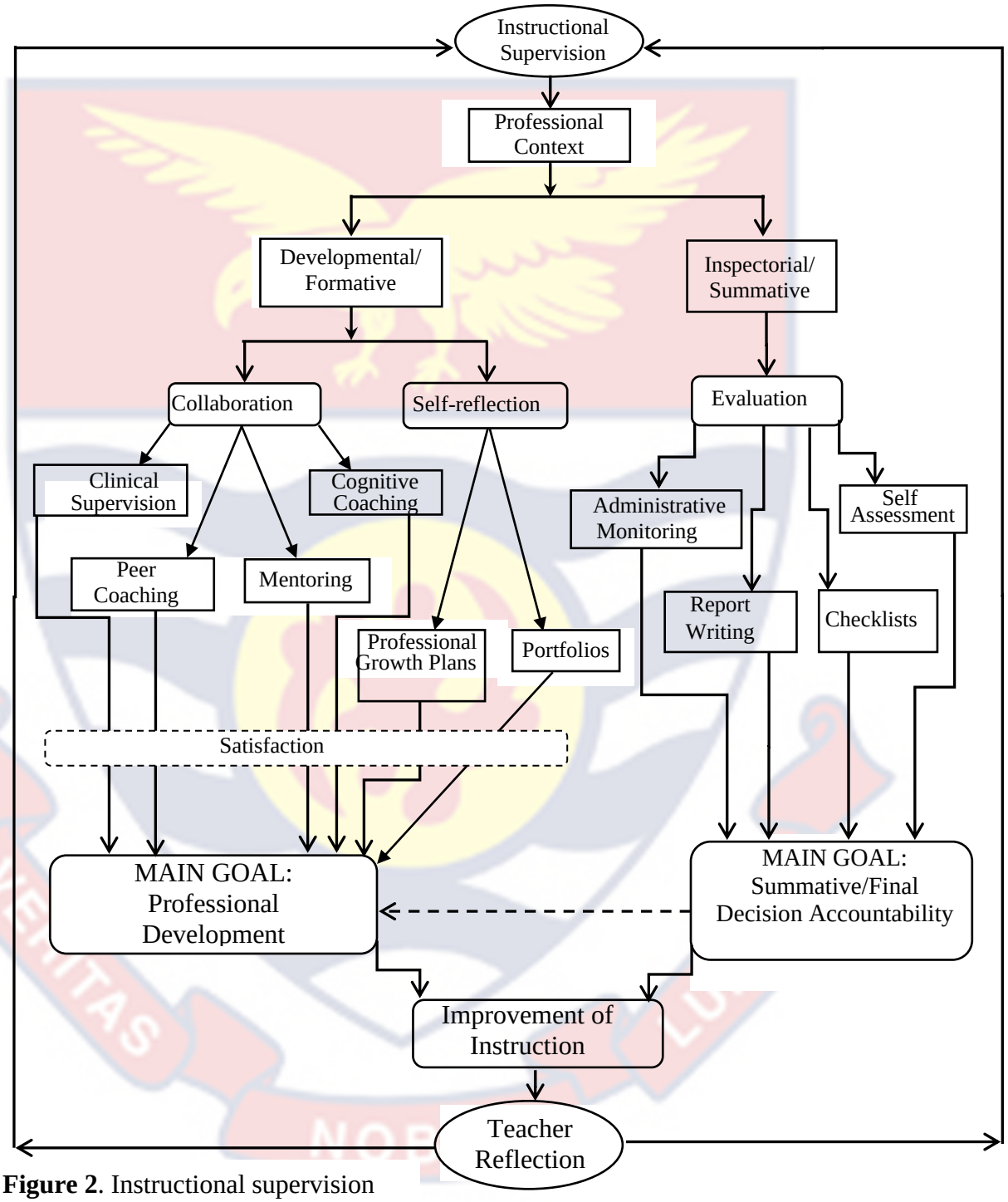

Figure 2. Instructional supervision

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the procedure through which data were collected for the study. It comprises the area of study, the research design and its nature, the population, sample and sampling procedure, the research instrument, data collection procedure and data analysis procedure.

Research Design

The design that was used in this study is descriptive survey. I found descriptive survey was more appropriate in investigating beginning teachers' perception of instructional supervision on professional development in the basic schools of Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. The survey approach was employed because it is helpful to collect the views and opinions from a large number of respondents.

Ideal for use in education, survey research is used to gather information about population groups to "learn about their characteristics, opinions, attitudes, or previous experiences" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005, p. 183). This is done by administering a questionnaire, to a group of respondents, and the responses to the questions form the data for the study (Berends, 2006; Best & Kahn, 2003; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009; Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006; Mertler & Charles, 2008; Polit & Beck, 2006).

Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2009) define survey, as "an instrument to collect data that describes one or more characteristics of a specific population" (p. 175). Some researchers may be able to work with the entire population, which is referred to as a census (Berends, 2006; Gay et al., 2009; Mertler & Charles, 2008). However, most survey research is conducted with a sample of respondents from the target population. If proper sampling techniques are employed, the researcher can generalize the attitudes and ideas from the sample to the larger population (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2009; Gay et al., 2009; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006).

As previously mentioned, survey research is used to gain insight into the thoughts, ideas, opinions, and attitudes of a population. It is descriptive in nature, so unlike experimental designs, the researcher does not manipulate variables (Burns & Grove, 2005). Instead, the survey researcher describes and draws conclusions from frequency counts and other types of analysis. Although it is descriptive research, survey research may serve as a stimulus for more in depth analytical research. Many correlational and causal-comparative studies include survey research as part of the data collection process (Burns & Grove; Mertler & Charles, 2008). Researchers turn to survey research because it offers a flexible design and is appropriate for gathering a large amount of data from many different types and sizes of populations (Mertler & Charles; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006; Polit & Beck, 2006;). Finally, survey research is ideal for working with large and or geographically dispersed populations when other

methods of research are not always feasible (Best & Kahn, 2003; O'Sullivan, Rassel, & Berner, 2003; Rubin & Babbie, 2008).

However, confidentiality is a big disadvantage of descriptive research. Furthermore, according to Leedy (1985), "one of the most subtly and ineradicable shortcomings of descriptive survey is the presence of bias" (p.132) and especially when one uses questionnaires. In interviews, participants may also refuse to answer any questions that they feel are too personal or difficult. Subjectivity and error also play a disadvantageous role in descriptive research. Questions presented by a researcher are predetermined and prescriptive, while studies can contain errors. A researcher may choose what information to use and ignore data that do not conform to their hypothesis.

Population

The population of the study includes all teachers within Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. There are two hundred and thirty- five (235) basic schools in ten (10) circuits in the district comprising one hundred and forty-one (141) primary schools and ninety-four (94) Junior High Schools (J.H.S.). However, the accessible population was the beginning teachers and all the other teachers within the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. According to Twifo-Ati Mokwa District Education Directorate, 2012, in 2011 and 2012, thirty (30) and twenty-five (25) respectively beginning teachers were posted to the district. As of the time the data was collected, forty-one beginning teachers were at post. In all, a total of 1,255 participants formed the target population for the study.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

A sample is taken from the population being researched. If the sample is adequate it will have the same characteristics of the same population (Zikmund, 2003) and the findings are usually used to make conclusions about the population (Field, 2009). The sample size used for the study consisted of 141 participants comprising 41 beginning teachers 100 experienced. According to Gay and Diehl, (1992), generally the number of respondents acceptable for a study depends upon the type of research involved - descriptive, correlational or experimental. For descriptive research the sample should be 10% of population. But if the population is small then 20% may be required. According to Bannister (1981), if you obtain a statistically significant result from a small sample size, then the impact of the difference is probably more obvious and useful. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling (hat and draw method) techniques were used to select 100 experienced teachers from 235 schools in the district. Moreover, sampling techniques are methods that are used to select a sample from the population, by reducing it to a more manageable size (Saunders, Lewis & Thomhill, 2007). According to de Leeuw, Hox and Dillman (2008), these sampling techniques are used when inferences are made about the target population.

Stratified random sampling is "a process in which certain subgroups, or strata, are selected for the sample in the same proportion as they exist in the population" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p. 96). In stratified sampling, the researcher first identifies the strata of interest and then randomly draws a

specified number of subjects from each stratum; either by taking equal numbers from each stratum or in proportion to the size of the stratum in the population (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2002). The stratification variables used were the circuits within the district. The 10 circuits form the strata and in each stratum, 10 experienced teachers were drawn through random sampling.

Purposive sampling technique was also used to select all the 41 beginning teachers because they met the criteria I had set for participating in the study. Also, in line with the assertion held by Nwana (1993) every member of a population must be studied if the population size is small.

Instruments

The main instrument used was questionnaire with closed-ended items to collect relevant and adequate information. A total of 53 items were used to seek views of teachers concerning instructional supervision, perception of supervisory practices, and teachers' satisfaction with instructional supervision practices and their perception of the impact of instructional practices on teachers' professional development. The questionnaire was organized into five sections. Section A focused on teacher's demographic, personal, and contextual data and consisted of 5 questions. The section B which consisted of 20 questions sought data on teachers' instructional supervision practices in the schools using a five (5) point Likert-type scale (ranging from 'Strongly Disagree' to ' Strongly Agree'). A five (5) point Likert-type scale (ranging from 'Never' to 'Always') was used in section C which consisted of 7 questions on seven selected supervisory approaches. In this section, respondents were asked their perception of the actual (real) and ideal

use of these supervisory approaches. A definition of each supervisory approach was included in this section. A five (5) point Likert-type scale (ranging from 'Not at all satisfied' to 'Highly satisfied') was developed to measure respondents' level of satisfaction with the supervisory practices in section D consisting 4 questions, and section E sought data on the perceived connection of instructional supervision and professional development. This section contained 16 items. A five (5) point Likert-type scale (ranging from 'Strongly Disagree' to 'Strongly Agree') was developed to measure respondents' level of agreement with each response. The opportunity for written responses was provided in the last part of the survey, requesting the respondents to share any other comments on ways in which instructional supervision could be improved. Suggestions were recorded and used to enhance the presentation of data and to complement the discussion of the findings.

Pre-testing of Instruments

To ascertain the validity and reliability of the instrument used for gathering information for the study, pre-testing of the instrument was done. This was conducted using beginning and experienced teachers selected from Komenda Edina Eguafo Abrem District. This district was chosen because it possesses similar features as the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District.

For the conduct of the pilot-testing of the questionnaire, 25 experienced teachers were randomly selected and 10 beginning teachers also were purposively selected. To ensure the validity of the questions, the preliminary questionnaire

was given to my supervisor who went through in order to give necessary suggestions and corrections.

In administering the questionnaire, the researcher assembled the teachers in each of the selected schools and explained the questionnaire to them, before allowing them to answer. They responded by ticking their responds to closed-ended questions. Respondents drew my attention to the questions they did not understand and those that were ambiguous. This helped to check respondents understanding of the items on the questionnaire and also to remove any ambiguities. Also, the Cronbach's co–efficient alpha was used to determine the internal consistency of all the Likert-type scales. The four main sub-scales: instructional supervisory practices in the school, perception of supervisory approaches, level of satisfaction with supervisory practices and instructional supervision and professional development had Cronbach's alpha coefficients of 0.85, 0.86, 0.97 and 0.79 respectively indicating that the instrument was reliable. This is in line with what Payne and Payne (2005) said that the reliability which falls within 0.6 and above is deemed reliable. An open- ended question was also tested. The response of teachers to the questions and its demand for clarification with others prompted the reframing of the questions.

Data Collection Procedure

The researcher made personal contacts with the respondents in order to administer the instruments. The instruments were administered during the third term in the 2012/2013 academic year.

A letter of introduction was collected from the Department of Basic Education and sent to the various schools. The researcher conferred with the various headteachers to fix dates for the questionnaire administration. The second visit was used to administer the questionnaires. For each of the schools, the researcher administered the questionnaires and collected them on the same day except for a few teachers that personal follow up had to be made at a later date and the return rate was 100%. This procedure by the researcher ensured that teachers did not have the opportunity to compare their responses. It was also to ensure that majority of the questionnaires were retrieved.

Data Analysis

The data collected were edited to ensure that responses were suitable. The editing also helped to exclude the questionnaires which were not complete. The questionnaires were serially numbered for easy identification. Finally, the questionnaires were coded for easy analysis. All responses were analysed using the Statistical Product for Service Solutions version 16. The research questions were analysed using frequencies and percentages as well as the independent sample t-test.

First, frequency counts and percentages were applied to items in section one of the questionnaire which includes respondents' demographic information like gender, years of teaching experience, position in school, level of education, and rank of teachers. Next, instructional supervisory practices in basic schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District were analysed with frequency counts and percentage.

Next to that, Independent sample t-test showing differences in perception of beginning and experienced teachers on real and ideal supervisory practice in basic schools was used to analyse whether differences were found between beginning and experienced teachers, regarding ideal and actual supervisory approaches.

Again, Independent sample t-test was conducted to find out if significant differences existed between the mean score of beginner and experienced teachers' level of satisfaction with the frequency and quality of supervision they received in their schools in the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. Then, mean scores and standard deviation were applied to analyse respondents' perception to find out how beginning teachers perceived the impact of instructional supervisory practices on their professional development.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the research findings related to teachers' perception of instructional supervision and its relationship with professional development. The general aim of the study was to examine beginning teachers' perceptions of the impact of instructional supervision on their professional development. The following questions served as a guide in this research:

1. What are the instructional supervisory practices in basic schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?
2. What is the perception of beginning and experienced teachers regarding the actual and ideal supervisory practices in Basic Schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?
3. What is beginning and experienced teachers' level of satisfaction with supervisory practices in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?
4. What is beginning teachers' perception of the impact of instructional supervisory practices on teachers' professional development?

In order to pursue the teachers' perceptions of the supervisory process, it was necessary to elaborate on the research questions and to examine the following five aspects relating to teacher supervision: demographic information of respondents, instructional supervision practices in schools, perception of supervisory

approaches, level of satisfaction and instructional supervision and professional development.

Summative data collected on the surveys are presented in tables. A brief discussion follows the results of each table. In each section, survey data are complemented by the qualitative information and actual quotations of the respondents.

Demographic Information

The survey was sent to the beginning and experienced basic school teachers in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. Demographic information included gender, years of teaching experience, position in school, level of education, and teachers' rank. The demographic data is summarized in Tables 1-5.

Table 1: Respondents According to Gender

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	63	44.7
Female	78	55.3
Total	**141**	**100**

n=141, source field data (2013)

As shown in Table 1, 63 respondents were males which constituted 44.7% whiles 78 respondents were females which constituted 55.3%.

Table 2: Respondents' Years of Teaching Experience

Years in teaching	Frequency	Percentage
1-2years	41	29.1
3-6 years	43	30.5
7-9 years	19	13.5
More than 9 years	38	27
Total	**141**	**100**

n=141, source field data (2013)

In Table 2, 41 respondents which constituted 29.1% were in their first or second year of teaching (beginners), forty-three respondents which formed 30.5% had 3-6 years of teaching experience. Moreso, 19 respondents which also constituted 13.5% had 7-9 years of teaching experience and 38 respondents which formed 27% had more than 9 years of teaching experience.

Table 3: Respondents Position in School

Position	Frequency	Percentage
Form Master	40	28.4
Class Teacher Only	101	71.6
Total	**141**	**100**

n=141, source field data (2013)

According to Table 3, 40 respondents held a position as a form master constituting 28.4% and 101 respondents held a position as a class teacher only, which constituted 71.6%

Table 4: Respondents' Level of Qualification

Level of educ.	Frequency	Percentage
Masters Degree	4	2.8
Bachelors Degree	65	46.1
Diploma	51	36.2
Teacher's Cert. 'A'	11	7.8
Others	10	7.1
Total	**141**	**100**

n=141, source field data (2013)

As shown in Table 4, majority of the respondents, 46.1 percent were Bachelors Degree holders, while 2.8 percent of the respondents' had level a Master Degree. While 36.2 percent of the respondents held Diploma Certificate, 7.1 percent were holding Teacher Certificate 'A' and 7.1 percent held other certificates.

Table 5: Respondents' Rank in Ghana Education Service

Rank	Frequency	Percentage
Principal Supt.	57	40.4
Senior Supt.	74	52.5
Others	10	7.1
Total	**141**	**100**

n=141, source field data (2013)

In Table 5, 52.5 percent of the respondents were Senior Superintendent, while 7.1 percent of the respondents had other ranking positions and 40. 4 percent were Principal Superintendent.

Research Question 1

What are the Instructional Supervisory Practices in Basic Schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?

Research question one sought to find an answer to one main question: 'What are the instructional supervisory practices in basic schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?' Its purpose was to understand how instructional supervision was practiced in the schools in the district.

In answering this question, views were sought from respondents in relation to supervisors' suggestions on organization and structure of lessons, head teachers' organization and arrangement of materials for instruction, supervisors' schedule and plan of classroom visit, supervisor's vetting of teacher's lesson notes and whether supervisors led formal discussions on strategies to improve instructional performance. Table 6 presents the responses from the respondents.

Table 6: Instructional Supervisory Practices in Basic Schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District

Role of the supervisors in the schools:	SA f (%)	A f (%)	N f(%)	D f (%)	SD f (%)	Mean	Std
Assist teachers in lesson planning	14(9.9)	72(51.1)	20(14.2)	20(14.2)	15(10.6)	3.35	1.17
Assist teachers in developing instructional goals and objectives.	13(9.2)	71(50.4)	33(23.4)	15(10.6)	9(6.4)	3.45	1.02
Assist teachers in developing/selecting instructional materials.	7(5.0)	56(39.7)	30(21.3)	28(19.9)	20(14.2)	3.01	1.17
Help teachers evaluate curricular and suggest changes to meet the students' needs.	10(7.1)	73(51.8)	27(19.1)	16(11.3)	15(10.6)	3.33	1.11
Encourage teachers to use appropriate methods in teaching.	15(10.6)	98(69.9)	14(9.9)	12(8.5)	2(1.4)	3.79	.797
Assist teachers in evaluating students' performance.	20(14.2)	75(53.2)	22(15.6)	18(12.8)	6(4.3)	3.60	1.02
Advice teachers about new developments in teaching.	19(13.5)	76(53.9)	22(15.6)	13(9.2)	11(7.8)	3.56	1.09
Conduct meetings with teachers to review progress.	20(14.2)	72(51.1)	35(24.8)	10(7.1)	4(2.8)	3.67	.908
Conduct in-service programmes to improve the performance of teachers.	26(18.4)	74(52.5)	19(13.5)	11(7.8)	11(7.8)	3.67	1.10
Conduct orientation for new teachers.	21(14.9)	58(41.1)	27(19.1)	13(9.2)	22(15.6)	3.30	1.28
Help to facilitate teachers' assess to professional resources.	6(4.3)	72(51.1)	28(19.9)	18(12.8)	17(12.1)	3.23	1.12
Promote the exchange of ideas and materials among teachers.	14(9.9)	71(50.4)	23(16.3)	17(12.1)	16(11.3)	3.35	1.17

Table 6 continued

Include teachers in planning and developing curricula and instructions.	13(9.2)	58(41.1)	22(15.6)	27(17)	27(17)	3.09	1.28
Evaluate the performance of teachers.	16(11.3)	87(61.7)	27(19.1)	3(2.1)	8(5.7)	3.71	.907
Provide feedback and offer suggestions for instructional improvement.	19(13.5)	72(51.1)	28(19.9)	18(12.8)	9(6.4)	3.52	1.08
Visit teachers without notifying them in advance.	22(15.6)	56(39.7)	24(17)	17(12.1)	22(15.6)	3.28	1.30
Discuss the data collected during the visit with the teachers.	9(6.4)	63(44.7)	42(29.8)	13(9.2)	14(9.9)	3.28	1.06
Listen to teachers' justification or interpretation of the classroom behaviour.	18(12.8)	65(46.1)	30(21.3)	17(12.1)	11(7.8)	3.44	1.10
Only look for teachers' mistake.	16(11.3)	25(17.1)	13(9.2)	27(19.1)	60(42.6)	2.36	1.46
Motivate teachers to set and achieve their professional goals.	28(19.9)	50(35.5)	23(16.3)	19(13.5)	21(14.9)	3.32	1.34
Weighted/overall mean						**3.37**	**1.12**

n= 141 Scale: 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3= Neutral (N) 2=Disagree (D), 1=Strongly Disagree (SD)

Respondents were asked several questions to find out the instructional supervisory practices in the Twifo-Ati Mokwa. Majority (51.1%) of the respondents agreed that supervisors assist them in lesson planning. Additionally 14.2% of the respondents disagreed to this fact whereas 14.2%) were neutral to this statement. Moreso, almost half 50.4% of the respondents agreed that supervisors assist them to develop instructional goals and objectives. Twenty-three point four percent 23.4% of the respondents were neutral to this assertion whilst approximately 10.6% of the respondents disagreed to supervisors assisting them to develop instructional goals and objectives. On the issue of whether supervisors assist teachers to develop or select instructional materials for teaching, 39.7% of the respondents agreed to this statement. However, 19.9% and 14.2% of the respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively to this statement whilst 21.3% were neutral.

Furthermore, majority (51.8%) of the respondents claimed supervisors helped them evaluate curricular and suggested changes to meet the students' needs. On the contrary, 19.1% of the respondents were with the neutral opinion whereas 11.3% and 10.6% of the respondents disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively to this statement. A greater percentage 69.9% of the respondents again agreed that supervisors encouraged them to use appropriate methods in teaching. Approximately 11% of the respondents also strongly agreed whilst 18.5% of the respondents disagreed to this assertion. A majority 42.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed that supervisors only look for teachers' mistake when carrying out their duties. However, 17.1% of the respondents agreed to this

claim whereas 9.2% were with the neutral opinion on supervisors looking for teachers' mistake when carrying out their duties. On the issue of supervisors providing feedback and offering suggestions for instructional improvement, a greater percentage 51.1% of the respondents agreed that supervisors provided feedback and offered suggestions for instructional improvement however, 19.9% of the respondents were neutral whilst 12.8% of the respondents disagreed. A majority (53.9%) of the respondents agreed that, supervisors adviced teachers about new development in teaching and 13.5% strongly agreed. On the other hand, 7.8% strongly disagreed and 9.2% disagreed whilst 15.6% were neutral. Responses again revealed that 14.2% strongly agreed that, supervisors conducted meetings with teachers to review progress and 51.1% also agreed. 2.8% and 7.1% rather strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively whereas 24.8% were neutral. Again, 18.4% and 52.5% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that, supervisors conducted in-service programmes to improve the performance of teachers. However, 7.8% of the respondents strongly disagreed and 7.8% disagreed whereas 13.5% were neutral.

Again, majority (50.4%) of the respondents agreed that, supervisors promoted the exchange of ideas and materials among teachers and 9.9% strongly agreed to the statement. On the contrary, 11.3% and 12.1% strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively whilst 16.3% were neutral. In addition, 61.7% of the respondents agreed that, supervisors evaluate the performance of teachers and 11.3% of the respondents also strongly agreed to this issue. However, 5.7% of the

respondents strongly disagreed and 2.1% also disagreed, whereas 19.1% were neutral.

Additionally, 15.6% and 39.7% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed respectively to the statement; supervisors visit teachers without notifying them in advance. On the contrary, 15.6% of the respondents strongly disagreed and 12.1% also disagreed whilst 17% were neutral. On the issue of supervisors listening to teachers' justification or interpretation of the classroom behaviour, majority (46.1%) of the respondents agreed to this claim and 12.8% also strongly agreed. On the other hand, 7.8% and 12.1% of the respondents strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively whereas 21.3% of the respondents were neutral. Again, while 35.5 percent of the respondents agreed that supervisors motivated teachers to set and achieve their professional goals, 14.9 percent of them strongly disagreed and while 19.9 percent strongly agreed to this issue, 13.5 percent disagreed and 16.3 percent of the respondents stayed neutral.

Even though respondents shared different views on the twenty (20) variables used to measure the instructional supervisory practices among teachers in the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District, it can be concluded that majority of the respondents agreed to each of the variables with a higher percentage indicating that respondents appreciate or have positive perception about the kind of instructional supervisory practices carried out in the study area with a mean and standard deviation of (M=3.37, SD=1.12) respectively. The implication is that respondents see the instructional supervisory practices carried out in the study area as being positive.

Majority of the respondents agreed to each of the variables with a higher percentage indicating that respondents appreciate or have positive perception about the kind of instructional supervisory practices carried out in the study area. This indicates that the participants believe that supervision focus on improving teachers' performance in the classroom. As McQuarrie and Wood (1991) stated, "the primary purpose of supervision is to help and support teachers as they adapt, adopt, and refine the instructional practices they are trying to implement in their classrooms"(p. 93). Ukeje, Akabogu & Alice (1992), also explained that "instructional supervision aims at helping teachers to become self –directive, that is, developing in them the necessary positive attitudes, skills and information that will make them prepared to willingly contribute to the solution of educational and instructional problems and also provide a favourable setting for student learning". (p.346). Nevertheless, some respondents saw the instructional supervisory practices carried out in the study area as neither good nor bad. Supporting this, previous research and publications revealed that because of its evaluative approaches or problems in the behaviour of supervisors; less experienced teachers perceive supervision as nothing value to offer to them (Blumberg, 1980; Oliva, 1976; Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998). However, the potential benefits of instructional supervision for beginning teachers should not be underestimated (Glatthorn, 1990).

The study showed that, the supervisors assist teachers in performing their supervisory roles. As recent research stated that if the supervisory process is to be effective, teachers need to have a voice in the evaluation of their teaching

(Danielson, 1996). Allowing the supervisory process to be more follower-driven enriches and strengthens an organization (Gardner, 1990); therefore, understanding the type of leadership provided to teachers becomes imperative.

Research Question 2

What is the Perception of Beginning and Experienced Teachers Regarding the Actual (Real) and Ideal Supervisory Practices in Basic Schools in Twifo - Ati Mokwa District?

This section deals with the respondents' perceptions of actual (real) and ideal frequency of the use of selected supervisory approaches, namely clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, reflective coaching or self-directed development, portfolios, and professional growth plans. These practices have been defined in the questionnaire and use five point scaling that `have been redefined in to: 1 = Never (N), 2 = Seldom (S), 3 = Occasionally (OC), 4 = Often (O) and 5 = Always (A). Similarly, the scales for ideal approaches are recoded as: 1 = Never (N), 2 = Seldom (S), 3 = Occasionally (OC), 4 = Often (O) and 5 = Always (A). For specific information about frequency counts and percentage see Tables 7 and 8.

Beginning and Experienced Teachers on the Actual (Real) use of Supervisory Practices

As said before, beginning teachers are those who have 1-2 years experience and experienced teachers are those with three or more years of teaching experience. In order to see if there is significant difference between beginning and experienced teachers in the use of *actual (real)* selected supervisory practices, an independent sample t-test was conducted.

Table 7: Independent Sample t-test Showing Perception of Beginning and Experienced Teachers' Actual (Real) Supervisory Practice in Basic Schools

Supervisory practices	Teaching experience	n	Mean	Std. deviation	mean dif.	t	Sig.
Clinical	Beginner	41	2.56	1.23	.241	1.130	.263
Supervision	Experienced	100	2.32	.94			
Peer	Beginner	41	2.46	1.19	-.017	-.072	.943
Coaching	Experienced	100	2.48	1.26			
Cognitive	Beginner	41	2.51	1.25	.222	.982	.328
Coaching	Experienced	100	2.29	1.21			
Mentoring	Beginner	41	2.71	1.33	.177	.720	.473
	Experienced	100	2.53	1.33			
Self-Directed	Beginner	41	3.78	.99	.760	3.462	**.001***
Development	Experienced	100	3.02	1.26			
Portfolios	Beginner	41	2.66	1.30	.249	1.160	.248
	Experienced	100	2.41	1.09			
Professional	Beginner	41	2.98	1.19	.256	1.118	.265
Growth Plan	Experienced	100	2.72	1.25			

Source: field data (2013) ***** p< 0.05 (2-tailed), *** .001**

Independent sample t-test was conducted to find out if significant differences existed between the mean scores of beginning and experienced teachers' perception on real supervisory practice in basic schools. As shown in Table 7 there was highly significant difference in the mean score of beginning

teachers (*M*=3.78, *SD*=.99) and experienced teachers (*M*=3.02, *SD*=1.26) on the supervisory practice "Self-Directed Development" at p< 0.05 alpha level. This implies that beginning teachers on the average perceived that "Self-Directed Development" supervisory practice occurred more frequently in their teaching experience than the experienced teachers. However, there was no significant difference in the mean scores of beginning teachers and experienced teachers perception at p< 0.05 alpha level on the rest of the supervisory practices: Clinical Supervision, Peer Coaching, Cognitive Coaching, Mentoring, Portfolios and Professional Growth Plan.

The second research question asked for the difference in perception of beginning and experienced teachers regarding the actual (real) and ideal supervisory practices in Basic Schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. It was revealed that there was a high significant difference between beginning teachers and experienced teachers on the actual (real) use of the supervisory practice "Self-Directed Development". The beginning teachers on the average perceived that "Self-Directed Development" supervisory practice occurred more frequently in their teaching experience than the experienced teachers. However, there was no significant difference between the beginning teachers and experienced teachers perception on the rest of the following supervisory practices: Clinical Supervision, Peer Coaching, Cognitive Coaching, Mentoring, Portfolios and Professional Growth Plan. This clearly indicates that novice teachers found their first few years of teaching a trying and often defeating experience (Glatthorn, 1990) since according to Sergiovanni (1991), self-directed approaches are "mostly

ideal for teachers who prefer to work alone or who, because of scheduling or other difficulties, are unable to work cooperatively with other teachers"(305). In addition, this approach is "particularly suited to competent and experienced teachers who are able to manage their time well" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007, p. 276). Teachers begin their careers facing the most difficult assignments (Huling-Austin, 1990) with a lack of time for planning, supervision, and interaction with colleagues (Odell & Ferraro, 1992).

Various authors suggested that collaborative supervisory options such as peer coaching, cognitive coaching and mentoring should particularly be available for beginning teachers to enhance their professional development and instructional efficiency (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Showers & Joyce, 1996; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) stated that contemporary schools need to provide teachers with options in supervisory approaches, which may differ for beginning and experienced teachers. Implementing different models of supervisory practices is intended to give options not only to the teachers, but also administrators and schools (Glatthorn, 1984). Thus, the proper use of various approaches to supervision can enhance teacher's professional development and improve instructional efficiency (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a).

Beginning and Experienced Teachers on the Ideal use of Supervisory Practices

Beginning and experienced teachers were also asked to express their preferences on the *ideal* use of selected supervisory approaches. Independent

sample t-test was conducted to find out if significant differences exist between the mean scores of beginning and experienced teachers' perception on ideal supervisory practice in basic schools.

Table 8: Independent sample t-test Showing Perception of Beginning and Experienced Teachers on Ideal Supervisory Practice in Basic Schools

Supervisory practices	Teaching experience	n	Mean	Std. deviation	mean dif.	t	Sig.
Clinical	Beginner	41	3.49	1.19	.118	.600	.549
Supervision	Experienced	100	3.37	1.00			
Peer	Beginner	41	3.44	1.05	-.181	-.894	.373
Coaching	Experienced	100	3.62	1.11			
Cognitive	Beginner	41	3.37	1.09	-.164	-.862	.390
Coaching	Experienced	100	3.53	1.00			
Mentoring	Beginner	41	3.66	.97	-.151	-.818	415
	Experienced	100	3.81	1.01			
Self-Directed	Beginner	41	3.88	1.19	-.022	-.105	.916
Development	Experienced	100	3.90	1.10			
Portfolios	Beginner	41	3.85	1.13	.254	1.295	.198
	Experienced	100	3.60	1.03			
Professional	Beginner	41	3.80	1.19	.185	.871	.385
Growth Plan	Experienced	100	3.62	1.13			

Source: field data (2013) ***** p< 0.05 (2-tailed)

Independent sample t-test was conducted to find out if significant differences existed between the mean scores of beginning and experienced teachers' perception on the ideal supervisory practices in basic schools. As shown in Table 8 that there was no significant difference in the mean score of beginning teachers and experienced teachers on all the supervisory practices (Clinical Supervision, Peer Coaching, Cognitive Coaching, Mentoring, Self-Directed Development, Portfolios and Professional Growth Plan) at $p < 0.05$ alpha level. However, both the beginning and experienced teachers on the average perceived that "Self-Directed Development" supervisory practice was the best in an ideal situation. The mean scores suggest almost the same opinion on the ideal supervisory practices expressed by both parties.

Furthermore, there was also no significant difference between beginning teachers and experienced teachers on the ideal supervisory practice (Clinical Supervision, Peer Coaching, Cognitive Coaching, Mentoring, Self-Directed Development, Portfolios and Professional Growth Plan). However, both the beginning and experienced teachers on the average perceived that "Self-Directed Development" supervisory practice was the best in an ideal situation.

One of the common issues, indicated by the beginning and experienced teachers, was a more frequent use of self-evaluation or reflective coaching. According to Glatthorn (1990), a self-evaluation approach enables teachers to set their own professional goals, to find the resources needed to achieve these goals, and to undertake the steps needed to accomplish those outcomes. In the self-evaluation supervisory method, teachers could reflect on their teaching

performance during a time that best fits their schedule, which may not be possible in collaborative types of supervision. The use of reflective coaching may solve the time restrictions associated with supervision, as noted by teachers in this study. This approach "is efficient in use of time, less costly, and less demanding on others than is the case with other options" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1998, p. 257). Another reason may be that because of scheduling or other difficulties, beginning teachers are unable to work cooperatively with other teachers. Wolf (1996) supported the use of portfolios, because they provide teachers with opportunities for self-reflection and collegial interactions based on documented episodes of their teaching. Sullivan and Glanz (2000b) stated that they can be used to support and enrich mentoring and coaching relationships, which are pivotal for the development of beginning teachers.

Along with the self-reflective practices, it can be concluded from the results of this study that the responding teachers wanted peer coaching to be conducted more often in their schools. Hosack-Curlin (1993) stated that peer coaching is really important for beginning teachers. During peer coaching, beginning teachers collaborate to develop a shared language, forums to test new ideas about teaching, and, ultimately, develop expertise (Glickman et al., 1998). Showers and Joyce (1996) regarded peer coaching as the practice that can help nearly all participants and increase their professional expertise. Peer coaching provides opportunities to refine teaching skills through immediate feedback and through experimentation with alternate strategies as a result of the informal evaluation (Bowman & McCormick, 2000).

According to the STF (2002), beginning teachers and individuals who are new to a school or teaching assignment may require a considerable amount of support from their more experienced colleagues. The results of the participants revealed that the use of mentoring should be more frequent in the respondents' schools. It was considered to be of great importance for teachers' professional growth and instructional improvement. Mentors need to support the being of their protégés, providing advocacy, counseling, protection, feedback, and information (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000b). Thus, mentoring can provide beginning teachers with the support and advice, the need for which was expressed by the participants of this study. Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1998) emphasized the enhanced use of mentoring that can serve to augment the succession planning and professional development of schools.

Research Question 3

What is beginning and Experienced Teachers' Level of Satisfaction with Supervisory Practices in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District?

The third research question focuses on testing whether there is any difference between beginning and experienced teachers in their level of satisfaction with the frequency and quality of supervision they received in their school. Independent t-test analysis was conducted for satisfaction with the total supervision scale (4 items) and the results are summarized in Table 9.

Table 9: Level of Satisfaction with Supervisory Practices of Beginning and Experienced Teachers in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District

Variable	Teaching experience	n	Mean	Std. deviation	mean dif.	t	Sig.
Level of Satisfaction	Beginner	41	1.878	.5097	-1.937	-20.533	.000**
	Experienced	100	3.815	.5083			

n= 141, Source: field data (2013) * p< 0.05 (2-tailed)

Independent sample t-test was conducted to find out if significant difference existed between the mean score of beginning and experienced teachers' level of satisfaction with the frequency and quality of supervision they received in their schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. As shown in Table 9 that there was a high significant difference in the mean score of beginning teachers (*M*=1.878, *SD*=.5097) and experienced teachers (*M*=3.815, *SD*=.5083) on the level of satisfaction on the supervisory practices at p< 0.05 alpha level. The experienced teachers were more satisfied with the frequency and quality of supervision they received in their schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District than the beginning teachers.

The attitude and satisfaction of teachers toward instructional supervision depends largely on several factors such as smooth teacher-supervisor relationship, availability of supervisory choices based on teachers' needs, as well as mutual trust, respect and collaboration among supervisees and supervisors (Kutsyuruba, 2003; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Zepeda, 2007). The study of instructional supervision and teacher satisfaction, Fraser (1980, p. 224) stated that "the

improvement of the teaching learning process was dependent upon teacher attitudes toward supervision". He further noted that unless teachers perceive instructional supervision as a process of promoting professional growth and student learning, the supervisory practice will not bring the desired effect.

Table 10: Level of Satisfaction with the Supervisory Practices

Variable	HS f (%)	S f (%)	U f(%)	LS f (%)	NAS f (%)	Mean	Std
What is your satisfaction with the amount of supervision being provided in your school?	15(10)	79(56)	13(9.2)	29(20.6)	5(3.5)	3.496	1.046
What is your satisfaction with the quality of supervision being provided in your school?	9(6.4)	79(56)	19(13.5)	28(19.3)	6(4.3)	3.404	1.014
The supervision I receive meets my individual professional needs.	11(7.8)	78(55.3)	19(13.5)	25(17.7)	8(5.7)	3.418	1.049
The school policies allow me to choose my type of supervision.	5(3.5)	40(28.4)	25(17.7)	48(34)	23(16.3)	2.688	1.153
Weighted mean/ average						**3.252**	**1.066**

n= 141 Scale: 5=Highly Satisfied (HS), 4=Satisfied (S), 3= Uncertain (U) 2=Less Satisfied (LS), 1= Not at all satisfied (NAS)

Respondents were asked to rate their level of satisfaction with the amount and the quality of supervision being provided in their schools. As shown in Table

10 that a majority (56%) of the respondents were satisfied with the amount of supervision being provided in your school whereas 20.6 % were less satisfied. Additionally, 9.2% and 3.5% of the respondents were uncertain and not at all satisfied respectively to this statement whilst 10% of the respondents were highly satisfied with the amount of supervision being provided in their schools. With the issue of the quality of supervision respondents received in their schools, a greater percentage 56% claimed they were satisfied whereas 13.5% of the respondents were uncertain. With the issue of the school policies allow them to choose their type of supervision, a greater percentage 34% of the respondents were less satisfied and 28.4% were satisfied. Again, 3.5% of the respondents were highly satisfied but 16.3% were not satisfied at all. Moreover, 17.7% of the respondents were uncertain. The mean and (M=3.252, SD=1.066) satisfaction level of the respondents indicate "uncertain" based on the scale of measurement, though a greater percentage of the respondents' were satisfied from the Table 10. The standard deviation gives an indication that majority of the respondents fell within satisfied and less satisfied.

Analyzing the respondents' level of satisfaction with the supervisory practices conducted in their schools, several conclusions were drawn. The responses indicated that the beginning teachers were more satisfied with the quality of supervision provided and suggested for more frequent clinical supervision and cognitive coaching. Clinical supervision, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), is regarded as typically more formative than summative in its evaluative approach to the practices of beginning teachers.

Cognitive coaching, as outlined by Costa and Garmston (1994), is built on a foundation of trust and professional growth. However, some respondents were moderately satisfied with the quality and amount of supervision, as they perceived their individual needs were not fully met. Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (1998) emphasized that educational leaders must support successful teacher induction in the ways they respond to the beginning teachers' needs. As Glatthorn (1990) indicated, novice teachers found their first few years a trying and ultimately defeating experience. Among the main concerns, researchers (Glatthorn, 1990; Huling-Austin, 1990; Odell & Ferraro, 1992) mentioned lack of time for planning, supervision, and interaction with colleagues. The analysis continues to raise more concern on the school policies as more of the teachers are not allowed to choose their type of supervision. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998) stated that contemporary schools need to provide teachers with options in supervisory approaches, which may differ for beginning and experienced teachers. Implementing different models of supervisory practices is intended to give options not only to the teachers, but also administrators and schools (Glatthorn, 1984). Thus, the proper use of various approaches to supervision can enhance teacher's professional development and improve instructional efficiency (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000a).

Research Question 4

What is beginning Teachers' Perception of the Impact Instructional Supervisory Practices on Teachers' Professional Development?

In order to get an answer for the last research question, the mean scores and standard deviations were calculated for 16 items under instructional supervision

and professional development section of the questionnaire considering its importance to look at respondents' perception about instructional supervision and professional development. Beginning teachers were asked to give their level of agreement using a 5 point scale intended to elicit their perceptions about instructional supervisory practices on teachers' professional development. Table 11 gives specific information about frequency counts and percentage on each statement.

Table 11: Beginning Teachers' Perception of the impact Instructional Supervisory Practices on Teachers' Professional Development

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD	Mean	Std
	f (%)	f (%)	f(%)	f (%)	f (%)		
I am convinced of the need for instructional supervision.	7(17.1)	18(43.9)	9(22)	3(7.3)	4(9.8)	3.51	1.17
Every teacher can benefit from instructional supervision.	12(29.3)	22(53.7)	2(4.9)	5(12.2)	0(0)	4.00	.92
Supervision should be a collaborative effort between teacher and supervisor.	14(34.1)	20(48.8)	2(4.9)	2(4.9)	3(7.3)	3.98	1.13
Supervision should promote professional growth among the teachers.	25(61)	10(24.4)	1(2.4)	5(12.2)	0(0)	4.34	1.02
Supervision should promote trust among the teachers.	12(29.3)	14(34.1)	7(17.1)	5(12.2)	3(7.3)	3.66	1.24
Supervisory choices should be available to beginning teachers.	12(29.3)	19(46.3)	7(17.1)	1(2.4)	2(4.9)	3.93	1.01
Beginning teachers should receive adequate supervision.	16(39)	18(43.9)	7(17.1)	0(0)	0(0)	4.22	.73
Time should be given to the implementation of any instructional supervision method.	7(17.1)	26(63.4)	6(14.6)	2(4.9)	0(0)	3.93	.72

Table 11 continued

Teachers should be involved in the planning of the supervisory process prior to supervision.	8(19.5)	15(36.6)	11(26.8)	3(7.3)	4(9.8)	3.49	1.19
Supervisory practices should be considered in the developmental stages of individual teachers.	6(14.6)	23(56.1)	4(9.8)	8(19.5)	0(0)	3.62	.95
Supervision should focus on the needs of the teacher.	3(7.3)	22(53.7)	7(17.1)	4(9.8)	5(12.2)	3.34	1.15
Supervision has clear connection with professional development.	8(19.5)	27(65.7)	3(7.3)	3(7.30)	0(0)	3.98	.76
Supervisors have the knowledge and ability to select professional activities for teachers.	6(14.6)	16(39)	11(26.8)	5(12.2)	3(7.3)	3.41	1.12
Beginning teachers participate in professional development activities as a result of supervision.	3(7.3)	23(56.1)	12(29.3)	3(7.3)	0(0)	3.63	.73
Professional development opportunities should be chosen by the teacher.	4(9.8)	13(31.7)	14(34.1)	8(19.5)	2(4.9)	3.22	1.04
My classroom instruction has improved as a result of supervision.	9(22)	18(43.9)	9(22)	4(9.8)	1(2.4)	3.73	1.00
Weighted/overall mean						**3.75**	**.99**

n= 41 Scale: 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3= Neutral (N) 2=Disagree (D), 1=Strongly Disagree (SD)

In order to find out how beginning teachers perceive the instructional supervisory practices on their professional development, a number questions were asked to ascertain their perception. As shown in Table 11, 43.9% of the respondents agreed that there is the need for instructional supervision and 17.1% also strongly agreed to it. Twenty-four percent of the respondents were neutral in their opinion as to whether there was the need for instructional supervision whereas 9.8% strongly disagreed to this statement. With the issue concerning every teacher can benefits from instructional supervision, a greater percentage (53.7%) of the respondents' agreed that every teacher can benefit from instructional supervision. On the contrary, 12.2% of the respondents disagreed whilst 4.9% of the respondents were neutral. Furthermore, majority (48.8%) of the respondents agreed that supervision should be a collaborative effort between the teacher and the supervisor. Additionally, 34.1% of the respondents also strongly agreed to this claim however, 7.3% of the respondents strongly disagreed to this assertion whilst 4.9% of the respondents were neutral. Sixty-one percent of the respondents again strongly agreed to the statement "supervision should promote professional growth among the teachers". In addition 24.4% of the respondents agreed whilst 12.5% disagreed to the statement. Moreso, a greater proportion of the respondents 63.4% agreed that time should be given to the implementation of any instructional supervision method whereas 14.6% of the respondents were neutral with 4.9% disagreeing to this claim.

Again, majority (46.3%) of the respondents agreed that supervisory choices should be available to beginning teachers and 29.3% strongly agreed to the

statement. On the contrary, 4.9% and 2.4% strongly disagreed and agreed respectively whilst 17.1% were neutral. In addition, 43.9% of the respondents agreed that, beginning teachers should receive adequate supervision and 39% strongly agreed to this issue. However, no one strongly disagreed and disagreed whereas 17.1% of the respondents were neutral. Moreover, 19.5% and 36.6% strongly agreed and agreed respectively to the statement that teachers should be involved in the planning of the supervisory process prior to supervision. On the contrary, 9.8% of the respondents strongly disagreed and 7.3% of them also disagreed whilst 26.8% were neutral to the statement. On the issue that supervisory practices should be considered at the developmental stages of individual teachers, majority (56.1%) of the respondents agreed to this claim and 14.6% also strongly agreed. On the other hand, zero percent and 19.5% strongly disagreed and disagreed respectively whereas 9.8% of the respondents were neutral. Again, while 65.7% of the respondents agreed that, supervision had clear connection with professional development, no one strongly disagreed and while 19.5% strongly agreed to this statement, 7.30% rather disagreed and 7.3% stayed neutral. Also, while 39% of the respondents agreed that supervisors had knowledge and ability to select professional activities for teachers, 7.3% strongly disagreed and while 14.6% of the respondents strongly agreed to the statement, 12.2 disagreed but 26.8% of the respondents were neutral. Moreover, 56.1% of the respondents agreed that beginning teachers participate in professional development activities as a result of supervision and 7.3% also strongly agreed to

this statement. Nevertheless, 7.3% of the respondents rather disagreed and no one strongly disagreed but 29.3% were neutral.

One can confidently say that, a greater number of the respondents agreed to all the sixteen (16) variables that were used to ascertain their perception of the instructional supervisory practices on teachers' professional development even though respondents shared diverse views on the variables. On the average, respondents had a positive perception on the instructional supervisory practices on teachers professional development with a mean and standard deviation of (M=3.75, SD=.99) respectively. The implication is that respondents see the instructional supervisory practices as a tool that if properly used will enhance the professional development of teachers especially beginning teachers to be abreast with the teaching profession. Majority of the beginning teachers in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District were convinced of the need for instructional supervision as several studies indicated that teachers want supervision that is supportive, helpful, and nonjudgmental (Alfonso & Firth, 1990). Lovell and Wiles (1983) emphatically asserted that there is a growing need for instructional supervision in schools. They added that teachers recognize the need for supervision, feel they are not getting the needed supervision, and desire an increase in the supervisory practices. The responses of the teachers again indicated that supervision should promote trust, support, help, advice, and professional growth among the staff. Supportive and trusted relationships are paramount to successfully assist novice teachers in adjusting to teaching requirements (Smith, 2002). The beginning teachers in the Twifo Ati-Mokwa also confirmed that supervision focuses on the

need of the teacher as Beach and Reinhartz (2000) regarded instructional supervision as a process that focuses on instruction and provides teachers with information about their teaching so as to develop instructional skills to improve performance. The focus of this improvement, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1998), may be on a teacher's knowledge, skills, and ability to make more informal professional decisions or to solve problems better or it may be to inquire into his or her teaching. Such a focus on teachers' instructional improvement permits them to achieve higher quality of learning.

According to Nolan and Hoover (2008), instructional supervision is "an organizational function concerned with teacher growth, leading to improvement in teaching performance and greater student learning" (p. 6). Similarly, Sullivan (1997) stated that as fields of educational development, instructional supervision and professional development are interlinked. Both focus on teacher effectiveness in classroom and promote in their participants a sense of ownership, commitment, and trust toward instructional improvement (McQuarrie & Wood, 1991). In this regard, results show that the beginning teachers agree on the connection between instructional supervision and professional development. With regard to the responses to the questionnaire one can conclude that the beginning teachers need more purposeful professional development, aimed at the individual needs of teachers. According to Glickman et al. (1998), teachers as individuals should have a variety of learning opportunities to support the pursuit of their own personal and professional career goals.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Overview of the Study

This chapter presents a brief overview of the study and the key findings. It concludes with conclusions and recommendations.

The main purpose of the study was to examine beginning teachers' perceptions of the impact of instructional supervision on their professional development. More specifically, it was to examine supervisory practices such as clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, reflective coaching, teaching portfolios, and professional growth plans and their perceived connection to professional development in the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District basic schools. The study was to investigate if there were differences between beginning and experienced teachers perceptions in terms of their of supervisory practices and their relationships with professional development.

Twifo-Ati Mokwa District has two hundred and thirty-five (235) basic schools in ten (10) circuits in the district comprising one hundred and forty-one (141) primary schools and ninety-four (94) Junior High Schools (J.H.S.).

The sample size used for the study consisted of 141 participants of which100 experienced teachers were sampled from 10 strata where 10 participants were

sampled from each stratum through simple random sampling and 41 beginning teachers were purposively selected.

A descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. The researcher used questionnaire to collect data used for the study. The research questions were analysed using frequencies and percentages as well as the independent sample t-test.

Key Findings

The following findings were made after analyzing the data collected.

The first research question sought to find out the instructional supervisory practices among teachers in basic schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. The study showed that Majority of the teachers agreed to each of the variables with a higher percentage indicating that teachers appreciate or have positive perception about the kind of instructional supervisory practices carried out in the study area. However, on the average, teachers were with the neutral opinion on the instructional supervisory practices with a mean and standard deviation of (M=3.37, SD=1.12) respectively implying that teachers see the instructional supervisory practices carried out in the study area being positive.

The second research question sought to find out the perception of beginning and experienced teachers regarding the actual and ideal supervisory practices in Basic Schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District The study revealed that there was highly significant difference between beginning teachers and experienced teachers on the actual (real) use of the supervisory practice “Self-Directed Development”. The beginning teachers on the average perceived that “Self-Directed

Development" supervisory practice occurred more frequently in their teaching experience than the experienced teachers. Again, there was also no significant difference between beginning teachers and experienced teachers on the ideal supervisory practice (Clinical Supervision, Peer Coaching, Cognitive Coaching, Mentoring, Self-Directed Development, Portfolios and Professional Growth Plan). However, both the beginning and experienced teachers on the average perceived that "Self-Directed Development" supervisory practice is the best in an ideal situation.

The third research question also sought to find out the level of satisfaction with supervisory practices of beginning and experienced teachers in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. As showed in Table 9, there was a high significant difference in the mean score of beginning teachers (*M*=1.878, *SD*=.5097) and experienced teachers (*M*=3.815, *SD*=.5083) on the level of satisfaction on the supervisory practices at $p < 0.05$ alpha level. The experienced teachers were more satisfied with the frequency and quality of supervision they received in their schools in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District than the beginner teachers.

The last research question sought to find out the beginning teachers' perception of the impact of instructional supervisory practices on teachers' professional development. The study showed on the average that, beginning teachers have positive perception on the instructional supervisory practices on teachers professional development with a mean and standard deviation of (M=3.75, SD=.99) respectively. The implication is that respondents see the instructional supervisory practices as a tool if properly used will enhance the

professional development of teachers especially beginning teachers to be abreast with the teaching profession.

Some useful suggestions were put forward by respondents to help improve supervision in the district. Some were general whilst others sought to address specific problems. The following are some suggestions given:

1. Increase the number of qualified supervisors. That is more people must be trained and equipped for the task. This implies that the schools would be better catered for.
2. Improve the condition of both teachers and supervisors so that everyone is well motivated to do their jobs.
3. Provide adequate logistic support for supervisors. The main headache of supervisors appears to be transport.
4. Organize in-service training for teachers, heads and supervisors to increase their skills.

Conclusions

From the data collected and analysed and the findings made, the following conclusions were reached. Most teachers (beginning and experienced) were convinced of the need for instructional supervision, and believe that every teacher can benefit from instructional supervision. They perceived that supervision should be collaborative, promote professional growth and trust among teachers, and supervisory choices should be available to beginning teachers. Supervision is designed to provide opportunities for teachers to continuously expand their capacity to learn and to teach more effectively and teachers who learn and grow

become more adept in a broad range of instructional strategies, foster relationships, and improve their decision-making capacity.

Again no significant differences were found between beginning and experienced teachers in terms of their perception of the actual (real) use of selected supervisory practices, namely clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, and professional growth plans. However, there was a high significant difference between beginning teachers and experienced teachers on the actual (real) use of the supervisory practice "Self-Directed Development".

Furthermore, the respondents' level of satisfaction with the quality of supervisory practices in their schools was high when there was more frequent use of clinical supervision. This suggests the intensification of clinical supervision.

The beginning teachers in Twifo-Ati Mokwa District considered supervision and professional development to be linked processes and felt that supervision was closely and directly connected to professional development activities. They perceived supervision to be a practice that promotes professional growth and effectiveness of the beginning teachers. However, some did not fully agree to the fact that a clear connection existed between these practices. This might be attributed to their perception that beginning teachers do not participate in professional development activities as a result of poor supervision. Therefore, more effort should be put into the supervision and professional development of new teachers to achieve instructional improvement. An increased number of

supervisory visits and greater emphasis on partnership and professional improvement might strengthen this relationship.

Recommendations

In the light of the findings and conclusions outlined above, the following recommendations are made.

1. Supervision needs to be a priority in schools so that improvement in instruction can occur. Supervisory practices should be outlined in school division policies, providing supervisors and beginning teachers with the options in supervisory practices. Supervisors and teachers should collaboratively select a method that meets the individual needs of the teacher.
2. Supervisory approaches, such as self-evaluation, professional growth plans, peer coaching and mentoring should be practiced more often in the schools. These practices help beginning teachers to improve teaching and grow professionally.
3. It is essential that a much greater effort be made to establish a clear connection between supervision and professional development. Supervisory practices were seen as means to guide beginning teachers toward professional development activities that enhance instructional strategies. School and division administration can provide the necessary financial assistance to allow participation in activities aimed at professional development of beginning teachers.

4. The developmental approach should be the focal point for the implementation of any supervisory practice. The use of clinical supervision and cognitive coaching increases teachers' satisfaction with the quality of supervision. A more frequent use of self-evaluation, and portfolios could help beginning teachers to reflect on their teaching. Collaborative approaches, such as mentoring and peer coaching should be practiced more often in schools.
5. Supervision should promote professional growth and effectiveness of the beginning teachers. Professional development activities need to reflect the needs and concerns of individuals. Time and financial support for purposeful professional development activities should be allocated by school administrations. Professional development was seen to be a desired outcome of the supervisory process.
6. Education officials and schools should give attention to building the capacity of those involved in instructional supervision by arranging frequent supervisory trainings.

Beginning teachers are the future of the schools; and their concerns, worries, opinions, when taken into consideration, can only enhance the quality of teaching and learning for the students. In order for teachers to be successful in instruction, supervision needs to provide the support, knowledge, and skills that will enable teachers to succeed.

Suggestions for Further Research

1. This study was conducted during a relatively short period of time. Further qualitative study could be conducted to incorporate a more longitudinal process of data collection.
2. This study contained a relatively small population. It would be beneficial to use a larger population of beginning and experienced teachers.
3. This study suggested the use of several approaches to instructional supervision. Additional study could investigate the effectiveness of each of the suggested practices and its influence on the improvement of instruction.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Teachers Perceptions of Supervision and its

Relation to Professional Development

Teachers' Survey Form

Dear respondent,

The purpose of this study is to collect and collate information on the state of supervision in the basic schools in the Twifo-Ati Mokwa District. This questionnaire is solely for academic purpose and the response you provide will be limited to that purpose. Your anonymity is assured as you are not required to identify yourself. It will be appreciated if you would give frank answers to the questions below.

SECTION A: BIO DATA

Indicate by ticking (√) the appropriate response where applicable or supplying briefly the information required.

1) Gender:

(a) Male [ ] (b) Female [ ]

2) Years of teaching experience

(a) 1-2 years (Beginning) [ ]

(b) 3-6 years [ ]

(c) 7-9 years [ ]

(d) More than 9 years [ ]

3) Which of the following positions is applicable to you?

(a) Form master [ ] (b) Class teacher only [ ]

4) Level of Education

(a) Master's Degree [ ]

(b) Bachelor's Degree [ ]

(c) Diploma in Basic Education [ ]

(d) Teachers' Cert 'A' [ ]

(e) Others (specify)……

5) What is your rank?

(a) Director [ ]

(b) Assistant Director [ ]

(c) Principal supt. [ ]

(d) Senior Supt. [ ]

(e) Others (specify)……

SECTION B: INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION PRACTICES IN THE SCHOOLS

In the table below, you will find a number of statements that seeks to examine the nature of instructional supervision practices in the school. Please indicate by ticking [√] the frequency of the statement in your school situation.

Strongly Disagree (SD) =1 Disagree (D) =2 Neutral (N)=3 Agree(A) =4 Strongly Agree (SA) =5

Statement	1	2	3	4	5

The supervisors in the schools:					
1) Assist teachers in lesson planning.					
2) Assist teachers in developing instructional goals and objectives.					
3) Assist teachers in developing/selecting instructional materials.					
4) Help teachers evaluate curricular and suggest changes to meet the students' needs.					
5) Encourage teachers to use appropriate methods in teaching					
6) Assist teachers in evaluating students performance.					
7) Advice teachers about new development in teaching.					
8) Conduct meetings with teachers to review progress.					
9) Conduct in-service programmes to improve the performance of teachers.					
10) Conduct orientation for new teachers.					
11) Help to facilitate teachers' assess to professional resources.					
12) Promote the exchange of ideas and materials among teachers.					
13) Include teachers in planning and developing curriculum and instructions.					
14) Evaluate the performance of teachers.					
15) Provide feedback and offer suggestions for instructional					

improvement.					
16) Visit teachers without notifying them in advance.					
17) Discuss the data collected during the visit with the teacher.					
18) Listen to teachers' justification or interpretation of the classroom behaviour.					
19) Only look for teachers' mistake.					
20) Motivate teachers to set and achieve their professional goals.					

SECTION C: PERCEPTIONS OF SUPERVISORY APPROACHES

The questions in this section are intended to elicit information regarding your past experiences with supervision and what the ideal supervision should be. A definition for each type of supervision is included in each item. Please keep in mind that you are asked to respond to these questions according to how you feel at this time in your career. For each of the following statements about types of supervision, please tick (√) the number that indicates the frequency of supervisory approaches for both real and ideal.

Never (N) = 1 Seldom (S) = 2 Occasionally (OC) = 3 Often (O) = 4

Always (A) =5

Real (actual) indicates the frequency with which these approaches actually occurred in your teaching experience.

Ideal indicates the frequency with which you think these approaches should occur.

Type of Supervision	**Real**	**Ideal**

	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
1) Clinical Supervision: Is a process for the improvement of professional growth, which usually consists of several phases, such as pre-conference, observation by a supervisor and post-conference.										
2) Peer Coaching: Is a process of supervision in which teachers work collaboratively in pairs and small teams to observe each others' teaching and to improve instruction										
3) Cognitive Coaching: Is a nonjudgemental process built around a planning conference, observation and a reflecting conference, in which supervisor attempts to facilitate teacher learning through a problem solving approach by using questions to stimulate the teacher's thinking.										
4) Mentoring: Is a process that facilitates instructional improvement wherein an experienced educator (mentor) works with a novice or less experienced teacher										

collaboratively and nonjudgemental to study and deliberate on ways instruction in the classroom may be improved.										
5) Self-directed development (reflective coaching): Is a process by which a teacher systematically plans for his or her own professional growth in teaching.										
6) Portfolios: Is a process for supervision with teacher-compiled collection of artifacts, reproductions, testimonials and student work that represents the teachers' professional growth and abilities.										
7) Professional growth plans: Refers to individual goal setting activities, long-term projects teachers develop and carry out relating to the teaching.										

SECTION D: LEVEL OF SATISFACTION WITH THE SUPERVISORY PRACTICES

The questions in this section intended to provide information regarding your past experiences with the level of satisfaction of the use of the supervisory practices in instruction. Indicate by ticking (√) the appropriate response to your level of satisfaction.

1) Please rate your satisfaction with the amount of supervision being provided in your school:

(a) Not at all satisfied [ ]

(b) Less satisfied [ ]

(c) Uncertain [ ]

(d) Satisfied [ ]

(e) Highly satisfied [ ]

2) Please rate your satisfaction with the quality of supervision being provided in your school:

(a) Not at all satisfied [ ]

(b) Less satisfied [ ]

(c) Uncertain [ ]

(d) Satisfied [ ]

(e) Highly satisfied [ ]

3) The supervision I receive meets my individual professional needs:

(a) Not at all satisfied [ ]

(b) Less satisfied [ ]

(c) Uncertain [ ]

(d) Satisfied [ ]

(e) Highly satisfied [ ]

4) The school policies allow me to choose my type of supervision:

(a) Not at all satisfied [ ]

(b) Less satisfied [ ]

(c) Uncertain [ ]

(d) Satisfied [ ]

(e) Highly satisfied [ ]

SECTION E: INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION AND PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Instructional supervision is a process in education, which focuses on guidance, support, and continuous assessment provided to teachers for their professional development and improvement in the teaching-learning process. It is a planned developmental process that is intended to support the career-long success and continuing professional growth of each teacher. For each of the following statements about professional development, please tick (√) the number that indicates your level of agreement.

Strongly Disagree (SD) = Disagree (D) = 2 Neutral (N) = 3 Agree (A) = 4 Strongly Agree (SA) = 5

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am convinced of the need for instructional supervision.					
2. Every teacher can benefit from instructional supervision.					
3. Supervision should be a collaborative effort between teacher and supervisor.					
4. Supervision should promote professional growth among the teachers.					
5. Supervision should promote trust among the teachers.					
6. Supervisory choices should be available to beginning					

teachers.					
7. Beginning teachers should receive adequate supervision.					
8. Time should be given to the implementation of any instructional supervision method.					
9. Teachers should be involved in the planning of the supervisory process prior to supervision.					
10. Supervisory practices should be considered the developmental stages of individual teachers.					
11. Supervision should focus on the needs of the teacher.					
12.Supervision has clear connection with professional development.					
13. Supervisors have the knowledge and ability to select professional activities for teachers.					
14. Beginning teachers participate in professional development activities as a result of supervision.					
15. Professional development opportunities should be chosen by the teacher.					
16. My classroom instruction has improved as a result of supervision.					

Suggest two ways in which instructional supervision could be improved

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