UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

IMPROVING INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION THROUGH CRITICAL

FRIENDSHIP IN CAPE COAST METROPOLIS BASIC SCHOOLS

BY

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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 Signature:……………………………. Date:…………………

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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.

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ABSTRACT

Effective supervision has been identified by many as one of the most vital ingredients for promoting teaching and learning. 'Relationship' plays a critical role in the supervision process. Although the circuit supervisor's handbook stressed collegiality between the circuit supervisor and the teacher, this is practically none existing. This obviously creates tension, conflicts and breeds supervision phobia teachers. The main challenge facing supervision in the schools therefore relates to strategies for enhancing supervisor – supervisee relationship towards enhancing teaching and learning.

This study is an action research conducted at the Aboom circuit of the Cape Coast Metropolis. It was aimed at exploring the idea of critical friendship between supervisor and supervisee to find out whether it can be useful in the Ghanaian context. One out of the six circuits in the Cape Coast Metropolis was selected and four schools from the circuit were randomly sampled for the study. The circuit supervisor and headteachers were interviewed while questionnaires were administered to the teachers. I also observed relationships and instructional practices in the school. The data were analysed using the SPSS to find percentages.

The main findings of the study were that critical friendship in instructional supervision increased the trust between the circuit supervisor and teachers, increased supervisor's support for teachers and teachers' commitment to their work. It was recommended that the Metropolitan Education Office educate circuit supervisors on the idea of critical friendship in supervision.

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DEDICATION

To my husband, Stephen Abangbil Atigah.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

In recent times, there has been increasing public worry about the challenge of addressing the problem of poor student performance in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (B.E.C.E.) in the Central Region of Ghana. The summary of the analysis of the results of the B.E.C.E. in the Central Region over a period of two years depicts that the percentage of students who failed to qualify for Senior High School increased from 38.0%, in 2007 to 44.7% in 2008, (G.E.S, Metro office Cape Coast). A letter circulated by the Central Regional Directorate of the Ghana Education Service dated 5th November, 2008 and captioned 'Crisis meeting on BECE results in the central region' suggests that the situation continues to worsen. In this light the circular invited all Metro, Municipal and District Directors, Circuit Supervisors and Heads of basic schools in the region to a meeting to examine the causes and coping strategies. Increasingly, issues related to supervision appeared to emerge as a stronger contributory factor.

Some writers are confident that since student learning is the primary function of a school, effective supervision of instruction is one of the important functions of the school administrator.

Research findings also suggest that student learning improves when school administrators pay close attention to instructional supervision (Gensante, 1994). Moreover, according to Mankoe, (2007), supervision seeks to improve methods of teaching and learning, creates physical, social and psychological climate that is favorable to learning and to coordinate and integrate all educational efforts and materials in order to ensure continuity.

Historically, the notion of supervision of instruction became prominent in the late 1800's when inspectors were tasked to make sure that teachers accounted for the instructional time they spent with students and the salary paid them. The nature of supervision at the time emphasized adherence to rules and regulations (Oduro, 2007). This created vertical and unfriendly relationship between supervisors and supervisees. Consequently, teachers saw the visits of inspectors intimidating. Currently, the nature of supervision has changed from making teachers account for education inputs to helping teachers to develop professionally (Gensante, 1994). This change, according to Gensante is to create and nurture teacher leadership. According to Asiedu-Akrofi, (1978) former inspectors of schools who exercised control over teachers cannot fit into today's changing schools where teachers and learners' characteristics are changing. The Ghana Education Service circuit supervisors' handbook encourages clinical supervision. Thus, the circuit supervisor's supervision process today includes pre–observation conference, observation and post–observation conferences (these are discussed in detail in chapter two).

In spite of the new paradigm of supervision of instruction, most districts in Ghana are far from achieving effective instructional supervision. There is a problem of ineffective teaching and learning especially in public basic schools which is assumed to be the major cause of poor performance of student in the BECE. This has in many times caused regional and district education offices to intensify supervision of instruction in these low performing schools. The current Cape Coast Metro Director of Education, a few months after assuming office, paid visits to some Cape Coast schools in November 2008 to clamp-down on headteachers and teachers who were not performing their instructional duties. There is also an instance where as a subject teacher at Ajumako -Ochiso Catholic basic school in the Central Region, Ghana in 2000, one morning, the Assistant Director in charge of inspectorate in the district walked straight into a class I had just finished teaching to evaluate my work in my absence. I was already filled with frustration and rage when he finally called me to demand why the few students he had tested could not read the instruction of the exercises I had assigned them. Thus, relationship between supervisors and supervisees in schools is often characterized by tension. One challenge facing educational authorities is how best the relationship between supervisors and supervisees can be improved.

In the Western countries, one strategy that has emerged as a viable tool for creating meaningful relationship between the supervisor and staff of the school is critical friendship. Critical friendship emphasizes a supportive yet

challenging relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee. According to Swaffield, (2004), a critical friend is an outsider who helps schools through questioning, reflecting back and providing another view point. Costa and Kallick as cited by Swaffield (2004) also offered the following definition for a critical friend as :

> A trusted friend who asks provocative questions, provides data to be examined through another lens, and offers a critique of a person's work as a friend. A critical friend takes the time to fully understand the context of the work presented and the outcomes the person or group is working towards. The friend is an advocate for the success of that work (p. 50)

Swaffield, (2004) argues that although education officers consider teachers as colleagues, however, they possess some degree of formal power over teachers and always bring to the school specific external agenda. These imposed agenda, power differentials and accountability to others for reporting on specific targets, are all against the essence of critical friendship. Swaffield likened Counselors to critical friends, but explained that while their interest focuses on an individual's feelings and personal issues, a critical friend is concerned with organizational matters, and with outcomes, effects and implications for many different people, as well as the personal well-being of individuals, and this is the crux of the study.

Statement of the Problem

The role effective supervision plays in the academic success of students cannot be over emphasized. However, the kind of relationship that exists between supervisors (district directorate, circuit supervisor, and heads of schools) and supervisees (headteachers, teachers, and pupils) makes the effectiveness of supervision of instruction far-fetched.

Prejudices, misunderstanding of the role of supervision, lack of good communication and mistrust between educational officers and the schools appear to be responsible for the situation. Most supervisors have a pre-conceived idea that headteachers and teachers are not doing their jobs thus; they are not able to get close to the school emotionally and psychologically to learn about the instructional needs of teachers and students and the kind of verbal and physical support that will meet individuals as well as the school's needs. Besides, the lack of trust between supervisors and supervisees creates lack of co operation and misunderstanding. It is therefore not surprising that today, there are significant number of supervisors who pay unannounced visits to schools to judge headteachers and teachers. This is what Gensate (1994) calls "snoopervising". Although today's supervision stresses collegiality, the circuit supervisors and headteachers possess some degree of formal powers over teachers which tend to compromise collegiality. Besides; supervisors often come to schools with their own objectives. This obviously creates tension, conflicts and breads supervision phobia teachers. In some countries, the idea of critical friendship has been found to help develop trusting

relationship between supervisors and teachers and thus; make supervisors understand their role as providing total and unconditional support for the teacher's professional development. However, this idea is quite foreign to Ghana in that, there is no local literature on critical friendship so one wonders if it can make any difference in reducing the tension associated with supervision. It is this context that necessitated an action research using critical friendship as an intervention to see if it can improve upon the relationship between supervisors and supervisees.

Purpose of the Study

The main objective of the study was to explore the extent to which the relationship between supervisors and teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis can be enhanced through critical friendship.

Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Examine supervision practices in the participating schools.

2. Determine the relationship that exists between the circuit supervisor and teachers.

3. Find out how the relationship affect teaching and learning in the schools.

4. Explore how the activities of a 'critical friend' can improve the effectiveness of instructional supervision in the participating schools.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions**:**

1. What are the instructional supervision practices in the participating schools?

2. What kind of relationship exists between circuit supervisors and teachers?

3. How, in the opinion of research participants, does the relationship between the circuit supervisor and supervisees affect teaching and learning?

4. In what ways will a critical friend improve the effectiveness of instructional supervision?

Significance of the Study

It is anticipated that the study will inform the management of basic education within the Cape Coast Metropolis about the vital role played by critical friendship in the process of improving instructional supervision. The circuit supervisors and headteachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis may adopt the idea to improve the relationship that exists between them and the teachers in the Metropolis. This may also cause teachers within the Cape Coast Metropolis to be more active in setting their own instructional goals and evaluating their own teaching. The study will also form the basis for further research on how critical friendship can be contextualized in other sectors of education in Ghana.

Delimitation

The study is delimited to using the critical friend's role to improve instructional supervision in basic schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis of the Central Region. The friendship is between the Circuit Supervisor (critical friend) and teachers (school colleagues) and is solely professional. The study will not cover other forms of supervision.

Limitation of the Study

The main limitation of the study was the time within which the study was carried out. Since the objective of the study was to build a relationship (critical friendship) between supervisors and supervisees and assess its impact on instructional supervision, more time was needed to build and nurture this relationship to grow stronger. Another limitation was the apathy on the part of some of the teachers on the study who displayed very little interest in the study. As a consequence, they rushed through responding to the various items in the questionnaire.

Organization of the Rest of the Study

The study is organized and presented in five chapters including this chapter. Chapter two contains the review of related literature on instructional supervision, supervisor – supervisee relationships and critical friendship.

Chapter three provides a discussion of the methodology and dada collection procedures for the study. Chapter four presents and describes the data analysis used for the study. Chapter five is a summary of the study, summary of the findings, conclusions, recommendations for practice and recommendations for further research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews literature on supervision practice and critical friendship. The review of related literature is centered on: definition of supervision, history of supervision, the concept of instructional supervision, the purpose of instructional supervision, the tasks of supervision, supervisor-supervisee relationship, the challenges of supervision, personnel involved in supervision of schools, the roles and responsibilities of the instructional supervisor, the qualities of an effective instructional supervisor, the supervisory role of circuit supervisors in Ghana, the supervisory role of headteachers in Ghana, the nature of critical friendship, history of critical friendship in education and who a critical friend is.

Definition of Supervision

The term supervision has been defined by many writers. What runs through all the definitions is the fact that supervision entails all the actions that are directed towards improving teaching and learning in schools.

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 group that will help in improving instruction. Krey and Burken in Oliva (1993)

also offered a detailed definition that compares supervision to instructional leadership. To them, it relates views to behavior, clarifies purpose, contributes to and supports organizational activities, coordinates interactions, provides for maintenance and improvement of the instructional program and assesses goal achievement. 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 improve 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 pre suppose 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 common glue that keeps individual teachers needs and school needs together.

History of Supervision

Supervision in schools begun 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

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their lessons. In the early decades of the twentieth century, the scientific movement in both industrial and public administration and the child-centered and experienced-based curriculum theories of European education influenced schools. Thus; school supervisors were caught between the demands to evaluated 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

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ensure that headteachers and teachers complied with rules and regulations, were accountable for education inputs and also to assessed and upgraded teachers. (Oduro, 2007). But as the focus of supervision changed from accountability to instructional improvement, the Ghana Education Service also adopted clinical supervision.

The Concept of Instructional Supervision

Instructional supervision as explained by Tantform, (2005) is the art of overseeing the teaching and learning process in an academic institution, and, therefore, making sure the institution is administered, managed, and led in an effective manner, so as to come up with an effective learning institution with a sane and consistent school culture. Also, according to Figueroa, (2004) supervision of instruction involves "motivating the teacher to explore new instructional strategies." Figueroa, (2004) is of the view that the teacher must be made aware of the educational objectives and standards to be implemented. Supervisors must be objective and also provide positive feedback and appropriate resources for the teacher to utilize. Harris, (1986) defined supervision of instruction as what school personnel do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching process employed to promote pupils' learning.

In a nutshell, instructional supervision means supervising the teaching and learning process. All the definitions seem to agree that instructional supervision is solely concerned with actions taken to make sure that the

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outcomes of teaching and learning in schools are consistent with stated instructional objectives.

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 favorable setting for student learning. (p 346).

It also aims at the promotion of pupil growth by supplying leadership in

adapting the educational program to needs and values of society (Wiles &

Lovell, in Ukeje, Akabogu & Alice, 1992). 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, motivate teachers to be more committed to their work. Instructional supervision also ensures teachers' professional development.

The Tasks of Instructional Supervision

Having discussed the concept of instructional supervision and its purpose, it is worthwhile to look at the various tasks that are carried out under instructional supervision. Many writers have explained the processes and activities under which supervisors carry out their duties.

Neagley and Evans (1970), asserted that the basic aim of having supervisors is to provide leadership for the improvement of instruction. These supervisory activities are: individual teacher conferences, regular class visitation, and action research in the classroom, coordination of special subjects in the academic curricular, giving demonstration lessons and planning and presentation of in-service education and training programs. Also, William Burton in Acheson and Gall, (1977) tried to explain what supervisors actually do by listing the supervision tasks he saw as pertinent to the supervision process. These tasks includes the improvement of the

teaching act, the improvement of teachers in service, the selection and organization of subject matter, testing and measuring and the rating of teachers. According to Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, (2007) instructional improvement is achieved only when the school supervisor takes responsibility for the task of supervision. They stated five tasks of supervision: direct assistance to teachers, professional development, group development, and curriculum development and action research. These tasks are discussed further in the paragraphs that follow.

Direct Assistance to Teachers

Offering direct assistance to teachers in their classroom is very important in improving school instruction. According to Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, (2004) this one-on-one interaction with teachers is critical to maintaining a healthy climate that can facilitate academic growth. Research also has it that teachers who receive the most classroom feedback are also the most satisfied with their work (Dornbush & Scott in Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004). Direct assistance is a process that includes observing teachers in their classrooms, offering professional consultation and providing them with school resources that is tailored to their individual needs. (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2007). In other words, a supervisor is to observe teachers, conduct observations, and stay in contact with teachers about how to improve instruction in the classroom. This supervision task will help teachers confide, improve, and move with each

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other toward collective action (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004). Supervisors provide expert direct assistance to teachers using clinical supervision, peer coaching and others. However, clinical supervision and peer coaching are as of now the most popular forms of direct assistance to teachers (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2004).

The Nature of Clinical Supervision

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; Aderson & Snyder, 1993). Morris Cogan as cited in Acheson and Gall (1977) 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 programs, procedures and strategies aimed at improving the teacher's classroom behavior, specifically instruction techniques.

Clinical supervision is used in organizations in different fields. According to Shanly, (1992), clinical supervision is a collaborative relationship between one experienced practitioner and less experience practitioners. This relationship involves regular systematic and detailed exploration of a

supervisor's work with clients. A Department of Health (1993) also defines Clinical supervision as a formal process of professional support and learning that helps individual practitioners to develop knowledge and competence, assume responsibility for their own actions and enhance consumer protection and safety of care in complex clinical situations. Faugier and Butterworth (1994) define it as a process that promotes personal and professional development within a supportive relationship that is formed between equals. A working definition of clinical supervision has been given by Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski in Smith, (1996, 2005).

> Clinical supervision is that aspect of instructional supervision which draws upon data from direct firsthand observation of actual teaching, or other professional events, and involves face-to-face and other associated interactions between the observer(s) and the person(s) observed in the course of analyzing the observed professional behaviors and activities and seeking to define and/or develop next steps toward improved performance. (p. 4)

Smith believes that it is helpful to think of clinical supervision as a subset of educational supervision rather than confusing the two. And that some approaches to supervision benefit directly from the fact that the supervisor has not observed practice.

To sum up, some important features of clinical supervision can be deduced from the above definitions. First, it is a process which has lay down

steps, thrives on data collected, it is not judgmental and operates on adult-adult relationship.

The Five Steps of Clinical Supervision

Pre-observation conference: This is a meeting between a teacher and a supervisor who intends to sit in a teacher's class and observe him/her teach. The objectives of the pre-observation conference are to: establish or re-establish rapport, get a briefing on the group of pupils to be observed, receive information on the lesson to be taught and suggest minor changes that might improve the lesson, set targets (or develop a contract) and end with some closing understanding of the rest of the clinical supervision cycle.

Observation: This is the time to execute what was planned at the pre-conference stage. The observer enters the room as unobtrusively as possible. One observation or combinations of observations can be used. The methods of observation include categorical frequencies, performance indicators, visual diagramming, space utilization, verbatim, detached open-ended narratives, participants' observation, focused questionnaire, and tailored observation systems, (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2007). The primary purpose of the observation is to record in writing all that goes on in the lesson. Writing is preferable to recording on audiotape because it is more accessible for lesson analysis. (GES Circuit Supervisors' handbook, 2001)

Analysis and strategy: The supervisor reviews his or her notes with respect to the targets agreed upon. His job at this stage might be counting up

frequencies, looking for recurring patterns, isolating a major occurrence, finding out which performance indicators were present and which were not, (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2007). That is he or she looks for specific incidents in the notes that relate to the target items. Once he or she analyses the items in the contract and is certain that the notes adequately record what took place during the observation, the supervisor then reviews his or her notes for significant teacher behaviour and critical incidents, (GES Circuit Supervisors' handbook, 2001)

Post-observation conference: During the post-observation conference the teacher gets feedback on those aspects of teaching that are of concern to him or her. The supervisor begins with positive comments and then offer suggestions for improvement. The purpose of this stage is to review the contract items, make specific references form notes, give chance to the teachers to comment on their own performance and what they think the supervisor has observed, discuss his or her monitoring instrument, if any and plan cooperatively with teachers a lesson that incorporates his or her suggestions, (GES Circuit Supervisors' handbook, 2001).

Post-conference analysis: Final step in clinical supervision represents self-evaluation for the supervisor he or she reviews the conference just completed and evaluate its strengths and weaknesses. Questions the supervisor considered included:

1. Did I respect the teacher's professional integrity?

2. Did I repeat comments and use professional jargon which gave the appearance of agreement between us where no agreement   actually existed?

3. Was the discussion time balanced between the teacher and me?

4. Was feedback on contract items specific and supported with reference to the classroom observation notes?

5. Was the analysis of the lesson adequate in light of the teacher's interpretation?

6. Was the contract satisfactory? Was it specific? Was I successful in getting the teacher to place items in the contract that were of concern to him?

Advantages and Disadvantages of Clinical Supervision

Clinical Supervision has a lot of benefits. Glickman, Gordon & Ross Gordon, (2007), summarized the benefits as 'helping teachers to confide, improve and move with each other towards collective action' (p 314). Also, according to advantage and understanding between the individuals involved; personal needs can be met, there is no blame culture and focus is on personal experiences and reflections. Others such as Skinner, Roche, O'Conner, Pollard and Todd, (2005), listed the advantages of clinical supervision as follows:

1. Supportive for supervision and a forum to discuss issues

2. Maintenance of skills and quality practices

3. Promotion of standardized performance of core skills across the organization

4. Improvement and or attainment of complex skills

5. Increase job satisfaction and self confidence

6. Improve communication among workers.

7. Reduce professional development and administration cost

8. Improve worker relationship

Although appealing, clinical supervision in its various forms is time-consuming and labor-intensive, rendering it impossible to use on any regular basis given the large number of teachers that supervisors are expected to supervise (Starrat, 1997). Thus; there is the potential that quality standards may be compromised since the benefits to the overall practice are difficult to identify.

Peer Coaching

Since teachers usually contact their fellow teachers for help more often than supervisors, peer coaching has been formalized as a way for teachers to get support when it is impossible for the supervisor to get to everyone. (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2007). This program which works effectively with teacher volunteers has it sequence to follow. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, (2007) believes that for peer coaching to be successful, it should have purpose and there should be preparation, scheduling and troubleshooting. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004) also stated the component of a peer coaching program as follow:

1. Necessary to establish clear purpose and goals

2. Training must occur on (a) understanding the purpose and procedures, (b) conducting a pre-conference, (c) conducting and analyzing an observation, and (d) conducting two post conferences (nondirective and collaborative)

3. Arrange teams of teachers

4. Troubleshooting-arranging close monitoring of peer progress

Other forms of direct assistance to teachers include demonstration-teaching, co-teaching, assistance with resources and materials, assistance with student assessment, problem solving and mentoring.

Professional Development

Successful instruction and good schools is achieved through the thought and actions of the professionals in the school. Any experience that enhances a teacher's knowledge, appreciation, skills, and understanding of his or her work is a form of professional development. Mankoe (2007) defined staff development as a systematic process by which an individual's knowledge, skill and personal qualities are broadened, deepened and enlarged for the benefit of the individual, the department in which he operates and the organization that employs him. Goodlad (1983) says staff development in the school situation includes: teachers engaging in workshops, attending lectures and seminars and taking classes designed to improve their skills and understanding of teaching and related matters. This task provides teachers the opportunity for professional growth through professional development

classes or staff development training. So teachers should and are supposed to be provided with different learning opportunities to support them in their quest for personal and career goals. Also, teachers as part of the school organization should be able to be together, learn and implement skills and knowledge in order to achieve the goals of the organization. Successful professional development programs emphasis involvement, long term planning, problem solving meetings, released time , experimentation and risk taking administrative support, small-group activities, peer feedback, demonstration and trails, coaching and leader participation in (Farmer, Hauk & Neummann in Glickman Gordon and Ross-Gordon, (2007)

The stages of professional development include orientation, integration and refinement.

Types of Staff Development Programmes

Many studies concerning the ever-changing roles of school administrators and teachers have been conducted over the last fifteen years (Rebore, 2001). These studies have identified the following major areas as appropriate for development programs:

1. Instructional skills. To effectively evaluate and supervise the instructional process, which includes curriculum leadership and securing instructional resources.

2. Management skills. To establish job objectives and be able to assess the needs of the staff. To be able to identify problem areas and to plan towards

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an effective solution. To be capable of unit budgeting and reviewing priorities in efficient use of scarce resources.

3. Human relations abilities. To establish an open, two-way system of communication between students, parents and other members of the community. To develop a method of involving parents and students in the school-based decision making process. To create an atmosphere of trust in the school, this encourages students to perform to the best of their abilities.

4. Political and cultural awareness. To have the ability to identify the leaders within the community and to involve them in school-level decision making. To address with positive techniques the solution of conflicts between the school and community. To work towards meeting the needs of all clients of the school through school programs.

5. Leadership skills. Through a plan of self- development, to keep current with the advances in the field of education. To share leadership skills with other professionals and with parent and other publics.

6. Self-understanding. To develop a plan of self- development through evaluation by school-based publics.

Methods of Staff Development

The actual method for staff development depends on the objectives of an activity. However, three approaches to adopt in mounting staff development programs are coaching, mentoring and evaluation.

Coaching: Coaching involves the essential steps taken to help teachers acquire teaching skills. Coaching is preoccupied with the process of transferring what is learned through staff development programs to the classroom situation. It is important to emphasize that coaching-based staff development programs require understanding, commitment, and ingenuity.

The steps involved in coaching are: presentation of the theory and concepts underpinning a specific skill, demonstration of the skill, repeated opportunities to practice the skill under both simulated and actual classroom conditions, repeated feedback on the practice efforts.

It is necessary to attach equal importance to all four steps and not play down on any of them. Thus the coach serves first as a teacher, and then as an observer well versed in the skill learned and acts as both coach and cheerleader, giving the learner feedback regarding both accuracy and progress being made.

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.

Evaluation: Evaluation is a process of establishing the effectiveness of a staff development activity in achieving its objectives. Such evaluation is best done by program planners/designers and participants as to whether specific goals and objectives are being met. Staff development evaluation may be tied to individual performance review or school wide performance review.

Evaluation must be carefully done to avoid conflicts between planners and participants

Group Development

According to Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, (2005), recognizing and utilizing group potential means freedom in stakeholder-institution interactions. The instructional supervisor is supposed to learn the skills of working with groups to solve instructional problems. The task of the supervisor therefore is to provide the group with a kind of leadership that fosters unity, common purpose and involvement in order that the group becomes productive and efficient. (Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, 2007).

Supervisors need to appreciate the key role of communication in group functioning because tapping group potential is core to deployment of constructivist pedagogy and associated knowledge discovery. Besides; classroom teaching utilizing group potential can result in a need for assistance in the form of professional development activities. (Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, (2005)

Curriculum Development

According to Remillard, (1996), curriculum development is usually used to describe the writing of curriculum materials. The supervisor can effect changes in the content of teaching and instructional materials to improve the teaching and learning process. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-

Gordon, (2007) are of the view that supervisors and teachers should work together to select curriculum purpose, content, organization and format that are most appropriate for learners and increase teachers commitment to curriculum implementation. It is also believed by Remillard, (1996) that with the involvement of teachers in curriculum development they will be able to translate the curriculum into classroom experiences for students. In other words, it is the process of designing or redesigning that which is to be taught, by whom, when, where, and in what pattern. Developing curriculum guides, establishing standards, planning instructional units, and instituting new courses are examples of this area. It is the supervisor's duty to plan or assist in planning the school curriculum or to follow state courses of study, making necessary adaptations to fit situations and special group needs.

Ben-Parezts in Remillard, (1996) gave two levels of curriculum development. Ben-Parezts explained that the first level of development is the conceptualization, planning and writing of materials by curriculum writers and the second level is teachers' translation of these materials or textbooks into meaningful experiences for students.

The Challenges of Instructional Supervision

A study conducted by De Grauwe, (2001), in four African countries on school supervision, classified school supervision problems into three main categories: lack of resources; inefficient management and an organizational structure that does not adapt to present realities.

De Grauwe explained that the lack of resources has multiple implications. The school/ supervisor and teacher/supervisor ratios are high. This becomes more difficult to manage when there is lack of financial and material resources to travel with. Management problems are experienced according to De Grauwe in the area of selection and recruitment, training career development and incentives, and support and evaluation. He noted that although this problem could be partly blamed on scarcity of qualified personnel, they seem more of the result of inappropriate decisions and gross neglect. De Grauwe gave four points in relation to organizational problems. He noted that in some countries the service is young or have undergone change recently and thus their present structure lacks clarity and logic. Secondly, there is difficulty in co ordination between the supervision service and other services which work towards pedagogical improvement such as teacher training, curriculum development and examinations.

In Ghana, the general perception of many stakeholders in education according to Mankoe, (2007) is that supervision at all levels of education management is ineffective and that this often results in poor instructional outcomes. This situation could be blamed on the numerous problems that exist in instructional supervision in the country.

The act of supervision requires that there is frequent movement of the supervisor between the district or metro office and the various schools at various locations; however, there is inadequate means of transport for the

supervisor to do so. Mankoe noted that although a few education officers in Ghana have been supplied with motto bicycles in addition to the two pickups per district which is usually reserved for the district director they are not enough to solve the transportation problem, since not more that two persons can travel on the motto bicycles at a time.

Besides, the district is not able to regularly fuel these motto bicycles due to inadequate operational funds. Supervisors who go on public transport often have to use their own money and expect reimbursement after. Such reimbursements usually delay and are inadequate; consequently, many schools especially in the remote areas may not be visited for months.

The kind of relationship that is built between some supervisors and teachers is so unprofessional that according to Mankoe some supervisors seek monetary favors from the schools they supervise. The situation cripples the effectiveness of supervision. The supervisors tend to cover-up or are silent on the unprofessional behavior and practices of teachers in such schools.

A supervisor is supposed to be more competent, confident and an expert in his job area. Where the academic qualification of the supervisor is lower than that of the classroom teacher, which is the case where the supervisor is a certificate 'A' assistant director, and the teacher is a graduate principal superintendent, effective supervision may be impaired. Mankoe explained that the supervisor may feel insufficient and perhaps the teacher

may feel superior which can adversely affect the supervision exercise. This problem is often experienced in the supervision of Senior High Schools where the majority of the teachers are graduates.

Another problem of supervision of instruction in Ghana is that the frequency at which supervisors organize in-service training for teachers is rather low. Besides, supervisors most of the time discuss, instead of showing how, by demonstrating teaching and the preparation of teaching learning materials for teachers to observe and understand. Thus; most teachers still use old methods of teaching concepts resulting in low instructional achievement.

Lastly, headteachers are supposed to perform supervisory roles at classroom level. It is the head's duty to observe lessons and offer direct assistance to teachers in the cause of the teaching. Many heads according to Mankoe find it impracticable to perform this role. They busy themselves with their office matters: mostly marking lesson notes and receiving visitors. These problems have undermined effective supervision in Ghana for a long time.

Roles and Responsibilities of a School Supervisor

The supervisor is any individual having authority in the interest of the employer, to hire, transfer, suspend, layoff, recall, promote, reward or discipline other employees. A supervisor according to Mankoe (2007) is a person who is responsible for getting the "hands-on-the-work" employees to carry out the plans and policies of management. He or she is to determine work

procedures, give oral and written instruction, assign duties to workers, examine work quality and neatness maintain harmony among workers and adjust errors and complaints.

The school supervisor is thus; a person having authority and responsibility of getting head teachers and teachers in a school to carry out the plans and policies of education in order to achieve improvement and effectiveness in teaching and learning.

Since supervising is a management function, the management of education supervises the whole educational program and especially the schools, Starrat, (1997), listed the roles of supervisors as follows:

1. Mentoring or providing for mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession.

2. Bringing individual teachers up to minimum standards of effective teaching (quality assurance and maintenance functions of supervision).

3. Improving individual teachers' competencies, no matter how proficient they are deemed to be.

4. Working with groups of teachers in a collaborative effort to improve students' learning.

5. Working with groups of teachers to adapt the local curriculum to the needs and abilities of diverse groups of students, while at the same time bringing the local curriculum in line with state and national standards.

6. Relating teachers' efforts to improve their teaching to the larger goals of school wide improvement in the service of quality learning for all children.

The Qualities of Effective Instructional Supervisor

The effective instructional supervisor depicts various forms of character in the course of performing his/her duty. Some of which are as follows:

Friendly and tolerant: The instructional supervisor as a critical friend is always friendly and tolerates teachers. He is accommodating; however, he insists that the right thing is done at the right time. He always corrects not with intent of causing pain or instilling fear but with the view to improving professionalism.

An advisor: An effective instructional supervisor is seen as an advisor to teachers head teachers and all groups and individuals connected with education in the community. He advices teachers and head teachers on issues concerning curriculum implementation and administration in the school. He also serves as an advisor to all the other stakeholders in education.

Humble: An effective instructional supervisor shows humility in dealing with teachers and head teachers. He does not lord his position over them but allows them to express their opinion in matters concerning teaching and learning, even when the teachers go wrong corrects with necessary love and care.

Good communicator: He asks lots of questions to help teachers reflect on their actions. He criticizes but in a friendly way to help teachers improve on their work as a result of this, people sometimes refer to an effective instructional supervisor as a critical friend.

Knowledgeable: An effective instructional supervisor has an in-depth knowledge of curriculum objectives. He studies the syllabus of every subject on the curriculum and their objectives in order to get adequate knowledge of the subjects. An instructional supervisor is knowledgeable in educational matters. He is always abreast with what is taught in the classroom and has adequate knowledge in the appropriate methodologies to be used. He is aware of the various theories practices in classroom teaching and management. He is fully aware of various theories underpinning supervisor's practices and human behavior in education. An effective instructional supervisor has an up-to-date knowledge in appropriate methodologies for organizing in-service training.

Innovative: Instructional supervisor is very innovative. He strives to look for new ways of dealing with human being and improvement of curriculum to benefit the educational goals.

Role model: An effective instructional supervisor carries himself/herself in such a way that the teachers would want to behave as he does. He serves as a good example (in terms of punctuality, dressing and love for work) for the teachers to follow and leads them in achieving the school objectives in all aspects of life.

Committed: An effective instructional supervisor is committed to supporting quality teaching and learning in schools. He shows this by organizing his teachers to do more to improve on what they do when it is not possible, the supervisor strives hard to carry out his work as expected.

Familiar: Another characteristic of instructional supervisor is that, he is conversant with the use and importance of school records and other documents used in schools. He is also familiar with the general environment of the school.

Objective: An effective instructional supervisor is always objective in dealing with teachers, especially in terms of criticizing. He does not exhibit any sign of biasness. He is judged by his teachers as fair and firm.

Helpful: Instructional supervisor assists teachers in the improvement of instruction, curriculum planning and improvement and personal and professional growth and development.

The Personnel involved in Instructional Supervision

Since supervision is an activity that is part of so many different roles, every manager at every level of the school management structure is a supervisor. Persons involved in supervisory roles include cluster coordinators, lead teachers, mentors, peer coaches and peer supervisors, curriculum specialists, project directors, trainers, program evaluators, and district office administrators. However unfortunately, these professionals, more often than not, carry on their supervisory work without having any professional training for it, finding by trial and error what seems to work for them, (Starrat, 1997).

In Ghana, the personnel involved in supervision of instruction includes the Director General of Education, Regional, Metropolitan and District, Directors of Education as well as Headteachers. Circuit Supervisors are appointed by the Metro or the District directorate to supervise schools from

outside whereas the headteacher operates from within the school, (Oduro, 2007).   Figure 1 depicts the school supervisory levels in Ghana.
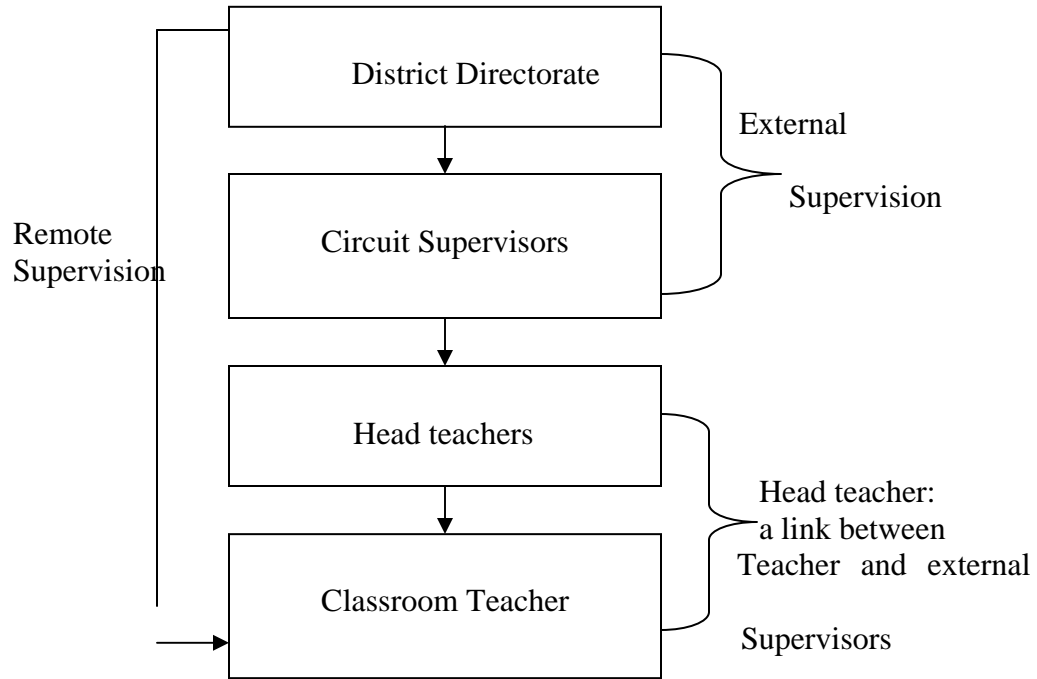
Figure 1:   **Levels of school Supervision (Oduro, 2007, p.16)**

The Supervisory Roles and Tasks of Circuit Supervisors in Ghana

    The Director-General of the Ghana Education Service acknowledges that The Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service recognize the critical leadership role that the Circuit Supervisor must play in ensuring that learning takes place in schools (Circuit Supervisors' Handbook, 2001). He elaborates that the circuit supervisor's leadership role involves providing support to the Headteacher and Teachers as curriculum advisor and in helping to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom.   Thus; the Circuit Supervisor must provide guidance and leadership in helping the

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Headteachers become more effective in managing school resources and develop strong and positive relationships with community leaders and other stakeholders who will support the school. Further, it is the responsibility of the supervisor to collect all statistical data and other relevant information on schools for the purposes of planning and budgeting. He or she collects information on pupil's enrolment, teacher's enrolment, attendance, behavior, outputs, problems and drop-out rates.

The circuit supervisors supervises cluster of schools in a particular area. He or she becomes a link between the school community and the District Directorate of Education. Policies, decisions and or plans from the district office are translated or explained to the school and he or she in turn communicates the needs, challenges and achievement of the school to the directorate for prompt action. The circuit supervisor also ensures smooth dissemination of information between the school and the community.

The circuit supervisor is task includes supervision of instruction, improving school administration, monitoring pupils and teacher performance handling gender issues, managing in- service training, managing guidance and counselling and building good school – community relationship. (Circuit Supervisor's Handbook, 2001)

The supervisor acts as instructional leader who supervises instruction to ensure that effective teaching learning takes place. One of the major duties of the circuit supervisor is to observe classroom teaching and counsel teachers so that he or she can help them improve upon their teaching skills. Soon after

observing classroom teaching, the supervisor meets the teacher and gives him or her suggestions for improving his teaching. Stated differently, he observes the teaching and learning process and intervenes where necessary, provides teaching and learning materials, demonstrates methods of teaching and use of materials.

The circuit supervisor is required to help headteachers to manage the people they work with. It is his or her duty also to help headteachers and teachers manage both instructional time and learning resources. The supervisor improves school administration by delegating duties and maintaining good interpersonal relationships in the school.

Another role of the supervisor is that he or she monitors the performance and achievement of teachers and pupils within his or her circuit. In other words, he is responsible for ensuring that teachers and headteachers work accordingly to achieve the objectives of the school and the district directorates. The supervisor is solely responsible for the organization of the community School Performance Appraisal Meetings (SPAM). He or she is also the facilitator at the community SPAM, and is supposed to record in the school Log Book the major decisions taken at that SPAM. In a nutshell, the supervisor controls and influences the performance of the headteacher and the teachers to ensure that actual instructional outcomes are consistent with planned educational outcomes. (Circuit Supervisor's Handbook, 2001)

The school supervisor mentors or provides for mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession.

(http://education.stateu). The teacher who has just finished teacher training education is given orientation on the culture of the school in which he or she has been posted to, how he or she can live peacefully in the community, the rules and regulations of the profession, educational policies and many more. This helps the newly trained teacher to be well prepared for the profession.

He or she is supposed to offer the needed assistance to the school in the form of staff development through school and cluster based in-service training. , these types of in- service training makes it possible for the participants themselves to identify their teaching –learning needs, discuss them and generally agree that they are worth a place in the in-service program of their school or cluster so that the topics discussed at an in-service training (INSET) may be useful to the participants.

The circuit supervisor builds a healthy and close relationship between the school and the community. The school, like any other facility in the community belongs to the community. The community maintains and sustains its existence and keeps it running for the direct benefit of all children in that community. The headteacher and the circuit supervisor are supposed to see the members of the community as partners in the educational development of the child. The District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC), District Education Planning Team (DEPT), School Management Committee (SMC), Unit Committee Members and Zonal Coordinators are the five important bodies that the circuit supervisor works with.

The Supervisory Roles of Headteachers in Ghana

The head teacher performs different functions .According to Musaazi (1982) the main tasks of the head includes interpreting educational policies, executing curriculum programmes, seeing to pupils welfare, physical facilities and finances ,including and retraining staff and finally fostering school-community relations. The headteachers' Addendum(2002) discusses the role of the headteacher as managing of instruction time and financial matters, assessing of pupils' and teachers' performance providing of in service training and improving relationship between school and community.

The head has the duty of making sure that instructional time is utilized properly by ensuring that teachers prepare and use good lesson notes to teach effectively. A good lesson note must follow the approved lesson plan format prepared by the Ghana Education Service. The major features of the lesson form include;

Week endings, References, Subject , Day, Topic and subtopic, Aspect, Objective(s),Relevant previous knowledge(RPK), Teaching-Learning materials (TLM), Sample Questions, Teacher-Leaner Activities, Conclusions, Evaluating exercises, and Remarks.

An effective lesson note is prepared with the following: Basic curriculum materials, which are the syllabus pupils textbook and the teachers' handbook. Appropriate teaching learning materials that will help explain difficult parts of the lesson objectives and finally, generic skills in the teacher-leaner activities. Headteachers vet lesson notes by checking to see if the

references are based on the basic curriculum materials, whether stated objectives are specific and achievable, whether the teaching learning materials are relevant to the activities described, whether the generic skills in the teacher-leaner activities are related to stated objectives, whether the core points are relevant and previous knowledge linked with the new topic and finally whether the evaluation exercises reflect the stated lesson objectives.

The headteacher observes class sessions to identify teachers' needs so as to give the needed support. Thus; the headteachers of the various schools are involved in instructional supervision. This is chiefly seen in the area of marking teachers' lesson notes. Where they look at how teachers teach the learners through the methodology that is employed in their lesson notes. They discuss matters that concern quality teaching with the teachers and also provide the necessary materials that are needed for effective teaching. The conducive environments for quality teaching are also provided by the headteachers. All these aim at helping the teaching and learning in to have a firm footing on the ground. They also give in service training to the newly recruited teachers.

Supervisor/ Supervisee Relationships

Supervision takes place within the context of supervisor–supervisee relationships (Holloway; Watkins in Bradley and Ladany, 2001). Supervisor –supervisee relationship has been defined by Borchin in Bradley and Ladany, (2001) as the supervisor working alliance. Many researchers have expressed the importance of this relationship to the

supervision process.   According to Bradley and Ladany, (2001)
interpersonal relationship between supervisor and supervisee is basically
the means by which the supervisee becomes involved in the supervision
process and the goals of supervision are achieved. Besides, this
relationship is a key element to the formation and completion of the
process of supervision and determines what happens in the supervision
process. (Watkins, in Bradley and Ladany, (2001) whatever method or
approach is used in supervision it is the quality of the supervisor and
supervisee relationship that determines whether supervision is effective or
not.

Phases of Supervisor/Supervisee Relationship

Holloway in Bradley and Ladany, (2001) explained three phases
of supervisor supervisee relationship. These are beginning phase, the
mature phase, and the termination phase.

In the beginning phase the supervisor and supervisee clarify their
individual roles and obligations in the relationship. Since they are not yet
familiar with each other, they rely on interpersonal aspect like social
cultural and formal cues to negotiate the relationship. The contract is then
established between the supervisor and supervisee. This contract includes
talking about the evaluative structure of the relationship, criteria for
evaluation, the expectancies and goals of supervision and the units of
confidentially of the relationship. Here the supervisor provides support in the

form of teaching interventions and also focuses on developing competencies and treatment plans.

At the mature phase, the nature of the relationship becomes more individualized and less role- bound. At this phase there is increase bond between supervisor and supervisee and a greater possibility for the supervisor to influence the supervisee and vice versa. This more advanced interpersonal relationship begins to operate according to certain relational rules that were created for that specific individual relationship. Emotional bond is also established through the feelings of trust and sensitivity that was triggered by some of the discussions between the supervisor and supervisee. The focus of the supervisor's work at this phase includes expanding case conceptualization skills, improving self confidence and self efficacy.

The terminating phase is characterized by the supervisee's exhibition of decreasing need for direction and support from the supervisor. There is also an evaluation of both the supervisor and the supervisee at the end of the relationship.

Building Strong Supervisory Relationship

It is accepted globally that the establishment of rapport, a cooperative attitude, a feeling of involvement, a sense of togetherness, spirit of mutual concern and respect should be the features of the relationship between supervisors and teachers. (Abrell & Hanna, 1978)

A strong supervision relationship is built on trust, respect and a strong emotional bond with supervisor that makes supervisees judge their own behavior in supervision more positively, feel more comfortable and perceive their supervisor's personal qualities and performance more positively (Ladany, Ellis & Fried Lauder in Bradley and Ladany, 2001). As a result, the task of the supervisor is to create an interpersonal environment in which the supervisee feels encouraged to engage in professional self-reflection and to progress through the phases of capable professional functioning (Neufeldt, in Bradley and Ladany, 2001).

Conditions needed for building a strong supervisor/supervisee relationship include empathic understanding, genuiness, respect and concreteness. Two types of conditions necessary for the building of strong supervisor/ supervisee relationship were described by Hutt, Scott and King in Bradley and Ladany, (2001). They are facilitative conditions such as emphatic understanding of the supervisee difficulties that help put the relationship in mutual respect and trust; and action oriented conditions which encourages the supervisee to take risk and try out interventions.

Perry and McDermott, (2003) suggested ways in which school supervisors can influence supervision relationships. According to them, school supervisors influence relationships by:

1. Clarifying expectations – Action begins with the superintendent and the board articulating a clear vision of expectations for schools. However, expectations that seem to be clear are often not,

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2. Setting priorities – School supervisors are the messengers of the vision, and their actions and interactions are consistent with the vision. Equally important, they stop doing, and requiring schools to do, those things that are not consistent with the vision.

3. Being consistent – School supervisors insist all schools, across grade levels, be part of the vision – not just some schools.

4. Creating opportunities for communication – In order to meet expectations, supervisors and school administrators need to learn together, and honest communication about "the good, the bad and the ugly" needs to be two-way.

5. Having authentic conversations – The work of improving instruction takes place within schools and within classrooms. School supervisors and central office staff are in schools and in classrooms to observe and to be part of the work.

6. Collecting data – Central office requests of schools are carefully considered and limited to minimal data that are essential to implementing the vision.

7. Modeling – School supervisors model a "professional culture" of openness and seeking knowledge. Not jumping to answers and solutions and being able to deal with ambiguity are essential to learning.

8. Planning – Setting clear direction is essential to improvement, but because districts and schools are complex places with their own history and nuances, not many steps on the road to improvement can be predetermined. Supervisors know schools and encourage flexible planning that evolves, within guiding parameters, over time.

9. Influencing culture – To counter the natural competition that exists between schools, supervisors foster structures that provide for collaboration among school leaders and staff.

10. Building accountability – School supervisors develop explicit accountability systems targeting short-term indicators that contribute to long-term improvements.

11. Supervising – Administrator evaluation systems emphasize school improvement and individual professional growth, and provide opportunities for honest conversations.

The major features in the ways in the points discussed above include effective communication, setting clear objectives through appropriate planning, encouraging self-evaluation and peer supervision. These have the potential of satisfying the facilitative and action oriented conditions described by Hutt, Scott and King in Bradley and Ladany, (2001).

The Concept of Critical Friendship

External support for schools has been identified by many researchers as one of the most important ingredients for school improvement. Fullan (2001) in Swaffield, (2004) sees the involvement of outsiders as key to school improvement

Critical friendship according to Swaffield is one of the ways in which schools receive such support. In the diverse literatures of organizational change, school leadership, action research and reflective practice, critical friendship has been adopted by educators as a form of support for colleagues who wish or need to make improvements in what they do. The term is used in different contexts, although not consistently and most of the time misunderstood. Critical Friendship is at times considered as an oxymoron - two words of opposite meaning placed together for effect, (Hill, as cited in Koo, 2002); and, commented as a dilemma posed by merging norms of friendship with those of critique (Achinstein & Meyer, as cited in Koo, 2002).

However, Towndrow, (2007) argued that critical friendship is not an oxymoron. He believes that it is entirely possible for friendship to include a productive critical edge so long as the relationship is participative, mutually-informing and collaborative. Critical friendship is a relationship in which someone (a critical friend) provides both support and challenge for the partner or other people in the group if more than one, (Swaffield, 2008). The key elements of critical friendship include trust, provocative questioning, an

alternative perspective, constructive critique and advocacy (Costa and Kallick 1993 in Swaffield, (2008).

Critical Friendship in Supervision of Instruction

Today's supervision of instruction as has been explained by many writers consists of all the support given to teachers to help in the effective delivery of their work and their professional development. The idea of critical friendship in supervision is a high extensive support for school colleagues performing leadership activities (Swaffield). With this form of support, the supervisor acts as a critical friend to the headteacher or the teachers (school colleagues). The critical friend possesses three basic skills that have a powerful influence on the practice of supervision. Consulting skills helps to specify the roles of the individuals in the relationship and the boundaries within which they are working, interpersonal skills is key in gaining the trust of school colleagues, and technical skills to get in-depth knowledge of the school so that he or she will be in the position to ask provocative questions, make an informed critique and to provide alternative perspective to problems, (Swaffield, 2004) Typical contexts for critical friendship in education according to Swaffield, (2008) are school improvement projects, professional development and research. She cited examples of contexts for critical friendship from many sources. These include school self-appraisal, (Open University 1982); school self-evaluation, (MacBeath, Schratz, Meuret, & Jakobsen. 2000); school improvement, (MacBeath & Mortimore 2001) action

research, (McNiff, Lomax, & Whitehead.1996); research with external partners, (James, Black, Carmichael, Drummond, Fox, MacBeath, Marshall, McCormick, Pedder, Procter, Swaffield, Swann, &. Wiliam, 2007); self-support study groups, (Bennett, Chapman, Cliff, Garside, Hampton, Hardwick, Higgins &Linton-Beresford, 1997.); study support, (QiSS 2003); networked learning communities, (NCSL 2002); and head-teacher professional development programs, (NCSL 2003).

Historical Background of Critical Friendship

Critical friend originated from the education reform in the 1970s and came out of the self-appraisal activity which is attributed to Desmond Nuttall, (Heller, 1988). Andrew Hutchinson, a public sector consultant, introduced the term to the Local Government Consortium at the University of Warwick in 1998 and it is cited in several papers produced by Professor Jean Hartley of the Local Government Consortium. The critical friend is perceived as falling between the extremes of the 'hostile witness' and the 'uncritical lover' (Brighouse &Woods, 1999). This dichotomy appealed to Hutchinson who frequently used the term while leader of the South East Midlands Citizen's Charter Quality Network run by the Cabinet Office in Whitehall. While running the network, he came into regular contact with Peter Kilfoyle who was a fellow Lancastrian and Government Minister, responsible for the running of the networks as minister. When Kilfoyle found himself increasingly alienated from the policy agenda of Prime Minister and chose to resign from

Government, Hansard quotes him as saying that he wished to return to the back benches but remain a 'critical friend' of the Government. He was misquoted in a news paper as they claimed that he had said that he wished to be a 'candid friend' to Government. It is not unreasonable to suppose that the term critical friend has its origins in the softer sounding notion of the candid friend. Nonetheless following the resignation of Peter Kilfoyle a newspaper began to popularize the term which is increasingly entering into general usage. The phrase is still most commonly used in education circles but its wider use in the public sector can to a large part be attributed to Andrew Hutchinson and his natural enthusiasm for the concept, being described as 'a natural critical friend acting with positive intent' in 1999 by the then Chief Executive of Coventry City Council, Iain Roxburgh, who is now Director of the Warwick Research Consortium. According to Heller (1988), although a variety of useful and interesting quotations have been given by other writers, perhaps the reason for the popularity of the phrase is best summed up by professor MacBeath's words.

The Critical Friend is a powerful idea, perhaps because it contains an inherent tension. Friends bring a high degree of unconditional positive regard. Critics are, at first sight at least, conditional, negative and intolerant of failure. Perhaps the critical friend comes closest to what might be regarded as 'true friendship' - a successful marrying of unconditional support and unconditional critique.

Features of Critical Friendship

Critical friendship has essential features that distinguish it from other relationships. Trust ; Focuses on a professional endeavour, going beyond the individual; Questioning to provoke insight and reflection is key process; Provides an alternative perspective and an element of detachment have been identified by Swaffield, (2008) as the important features of critical friendship.

Involves Trust

Trust has been identified by Block, (2001)   as a paramount future of effective relationships and of critical friendship in particular (Costa and Kallick, 1993; Swaffield, 2005). O'Neill (2002), also believes that initially trust (or mistrust) within a professional relationship is likely to be on the basis of role played by the people involved in the relationship but with time, as individuals get to know each other, this changes into calculative trust (Bottery, 2003) based on weighing the evidence, and practice trust, based on the experience of co-operative working. Trust to Swaffield. (2008), is able to determine some of the conditions necessary for critical friendships to succeed, and difficulties that the relationship can face. The relationship must be one in which one feels free to engage in honest communication, where the critical friend is able and expected to ask questions that may be uncomfortable, and present critiques that may be challenging. The school colleague needs to be able to receive feedback non-defensively, to be open to alternative perspectives

and interpretations, and to feel safe in 'thinking aloud', voicing concerns and testing out ideas.

However, Swaffield noted that some people in different circumstances and with different experiences may be less open to challenge, or be defensive in discussion. To her this is particularly likely to be the case when there are power differentials or competing accountabilities. Eraut (1978) in Swaffield predicted difficulties in interaction with consultants when there are mismatches in power and authority; Somekh (1994) also explained that some teachers feel intimidated by university researchers with whom they are supposedly working in partnership because they perceive the academics as more expert and judgmental Colleagues'. Thus; factors that impede trust, such as differences in agendas or power, are common in professional relationships and are obstacles to communication.

Involves Time

Critical friendship is also a 'dynamic relationship' that particularly integrates critique and friendship, or challenge and support, which evolves over time. The relationship initially emphasizes friendship or support, and critique or pressure features later. With time, the critical friend judges and employs the appropriate combination of the two elements. With the third dimension of time (as shown in figure 2), the complexities of critical friendship are revealed further, and a model for conceptualizing critical friendship developed (Swaffield, 2004).
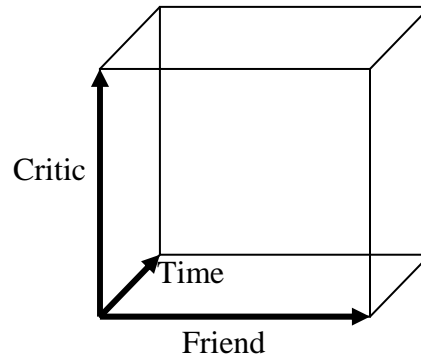
Figure 2: **Critical friendship in three dimensions (Swaffield, 2004, p.6)**

Solely Professional

Moreover, it is a solely professional relationship which aims at offering professional assistance to the individual workers in an organization and to foster their professional development and improve their performance in the organization. Swaffield, (2004) noted that critical friendship sticks to clear foci and boundaries for the task in hand. Personal or private relationships do not feature here.

Involves Individuals

Critical friendship is a relationship between at least two people. Writers find no satisfactory term for the other person involved in the relationship with the critical friend though they are termed differently in different contexts and situations. According to Swaffield, (2004) to use the term befriended will denote dependency and passivity on the part of one partner which is not true with critical friendship. School Colleague is therefore used in describing the professional relationship in school context. Some models of consultancy focus upon the nature of the transactions between the

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two people in the relationship. Critical friendship relationships most closely resemble the process consultant.

The individuals involved in the relationship have important roles to play. Whatever the particular form of the relationship, it will also be affected by the personalities and characteristics of the individuals involved. The success or otherwise of any critical friendship is dependent to a considerable degree on the attitudes and behaviors of the school colleagues, as well as the critical friend.

Critical friendship occurs in Context

Relationships do occur in a particular context. For example, a critical friendship for school improvement will have a particular focus such as extending the practice of distributed leadership, located within specific schools each of which has a unique combination of history, culture, resources, and pupil and staff profiles. Schools function within local communities and are influenced by their administrative, accountability and funding structures, as well as needing to take account of national priorities, pressures and opportunities. All these factors mean that no school is like any other, and critical friend relationships need to adapt to each situation. According to Swaffield, (2004) There is therefore no single formula for the work of critical friends, as acknowledged by Healey and De Stefano, whom Fullan (2001) cites as saying 'what works in one location won't necessarily work in another' (p191).

Connections between Role, Relationships, Individuals and Context

In any complex interactive system, constituents interact. The four elements discussed above - the critical friend role, the relationship between the critical friend and school colleagues, the characteristics of the individuals involved, and the nested contexts in which the critical friendship exits - all interrelate. Each element is to some degree flexible, and to different extents each affects, and is affected by, each of the other elements. This can be represented diagrammatically by a tetrahedron, as in figure 3.

Individuals Characteristics

Critical friend

Role

Relationship between
Critical friend and school
Colleagues

Local & National
Context
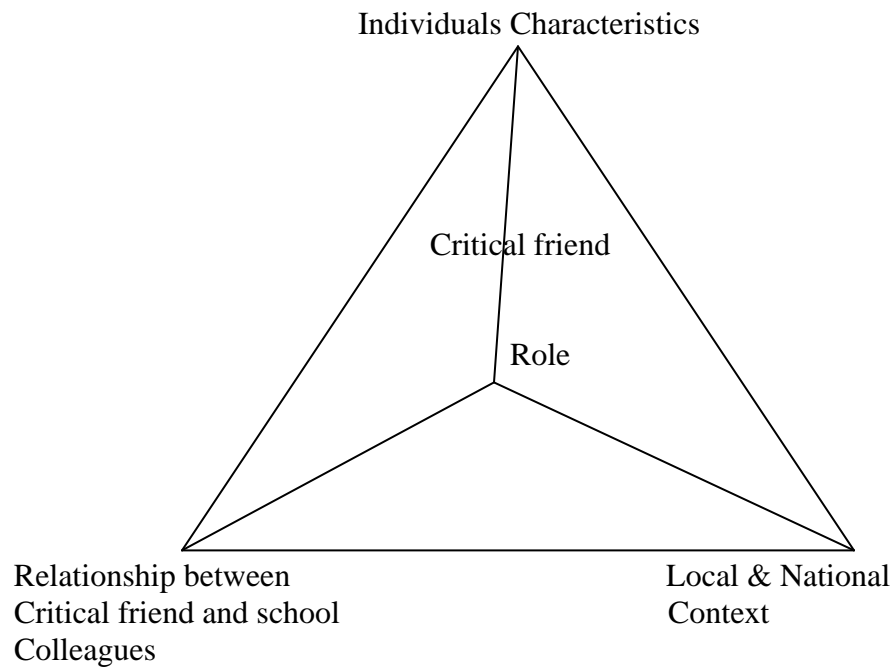
Figure 3: **Elements are interconnected (Swaffield, 2004, p.9)**

Critical Friendship Approaches

Critical friendship can arise in response to different factors and can also take different forms. Koo, (2002), divides critical friendship approaches into two broad categories: competency and problem-based. Based on Hill the competency approach is based on the assumption that knowledge, skills and attitudes are learnable through scholarly and investigative reframing provided by an expert who is an outsider (the critical friend) the other, the problem-based approach to critical friendship is situational, relational and highly specific

The Competency Approach

According to Koo, (2002), Hill developed a competency model for depicting the Critical Friend's beliefs with the necessary knowledge, skills and attitude. Several categories of competency are conceived as learnable and practice-able in critical friendship. The knowledge the Critical Friend needs is knowledge about a critical framework and how assumptions underpin people's justification for their practices. The skills the Critical Friend possesses are skills about 'reflective responding', 'scholarly reframing', 'investigative reframing', 'facilitated silence', 'encouraging documentation', 'encouraging collection of data', 'scholarly reading', 'articulating an inquiry paradigm', 'big picture facilitation' as well as 'encouraging publication'. The Critical Friend's attitude is linked to beliefs about one's provision of critical friendship in a complicated way and is also linked to the value of reflection as a professional

skill, and oneself, (Koo, 2002). However, Koo is of the view that the competency approach gives a generalist model of practice that cuts across and has the potential of ignoring cultural-specific problems and gender-based concerns.

The Problem based Approach

The problem-based approach attempts to continually address the potential problems of critical friendship. This believe, according to Hayhoe and Pan, in Koo, (2002), is more worthwhile when it is connected to a broader context which enables an emerging dialogue among civilizations within the inquiry paradigm of qualitative research, for example Action Research. Hayhoe and Pan (2001), are confident that interactions happen as a true dialogue among ready listeners rather than as a struggle among contending interests.

A Cross-Cultural Perspective

Apart from the competency model and the problem-based approach mentioned above, a cross-cultural perspective takes the challenge of crossing borders and exploring new barriers in professional practice research (Macpherson, Aspland & Brooker, in Koo, 2002) as far as critical friendship is one of the methodological concerns. Thus; all culture will eventually come together to form a global culture (Inkeles, 1997; Stiglitz, 2002). Cheng as cited by Koo (2002) realizes that "it is inevitable that the commonalities in societies have attracted more attention than the differences" (p.83). Besides engaging in cross-cultural comparisons, taking a cross-cultural perspective in

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research study about change and transformation (for example, Action Research) presumably rejects the view that there is some kind of uniformity among nations in education and development. In this way, the attention to both the distinctiveness and diversity of societies may fit well with the justification of exploring the identity of Critical Friend from a cross-cultural perspective. It is possible that this cross-cultural perspective embraces the passion and responsibility of researchers and participants from various local sites and overseas, and generates insightful ideas for critical friendship in qualitative research, (Koo, 2002).

The ideas coming out from a competency model, a problem-based approach and a cross-cultural perspective mentioned above set the conceptual framework for inquiries about the identity of Critical Friend. Conceptually, "Critical" and "Friend" appears to be a two-sided coin that one side is always at the back of the other side, (Koo, 2002).

Hindrances to Critical Friendship

Towndrow, (2007) discusses five major hindrances to critical friendships which are: falsely equating personal criticism with critique, misunderstanding the purposes of feedback, dishonesty, lack of trust and openness, lack of empathy and resistance to change.

Towndrow made some important distinctions in the first two items in this list. Firstly, a critical friendship is unlikely to flourish if there are personally critical elements involved in it. He asserted that if critical

friendships are to be lasting and not offensive and terminal, comments made must remain at the level of suggesting ways in which practices, seen as tasks and task enactments, can be improved and not attempt to address personal failures.

Secondly, when comments are made in a condemning way, the purpose, of the commentary, whether stated or not, is to destroy one thing and impose another element that is deemed correct in its place. However, giving feedback is all about helping people improve the things they already have.

Thirdly, when critical friends communicate they must be frank with each other. Usually, when critical light is shone on a particular issue, unexpected and perhaps even unwelcome aspects of the existing practice are revealed. It needs to be recognized and accepted that the dynamism in a critical friendship is sometimes attributable to the tension that exists between old and emerging practice. And that critical friendship discourse can be persuasive but it should never be manipulative or intimidating. Potentially threatening situations can be tamed using reciprocity, trust and openness. It is accepted that these attributes of professional practice are difficult but they are achievable over time.

As far as empathy is concerned, Towndrow, (2007) cited Costa and Kallick saying that a critical friend is an advocate for the success of the other's work. This to Towndrow is a crucial point. He believes that critical friendship cannot function effectively if there is any lack of understanding and unwillingness to share the feelings of the other.

Finally, the whole point of entering into a problem-based critical friendship is to seek practical solutions and bring about change. Though it is known that changing a teacher's beliefs and practices is a complex issue, a can do mindset is absolutely necessary for successful intervention work based on critical collaborative inquiry to occur. . (Towndrow, 2007).

Who a Critical friend is

The two words in the phrase, 'critical friends' are considered by many writers as opposite to each other. Or it is seen as the point between a total friend and a total critic. Thus, Wathing, Hopling and Colleagues (1998) consider the term as providing the proper balance between support and challenge. This model of a critical friend could be represented diagrammatically as shown in figure 4.
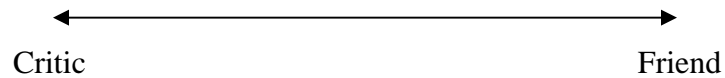
Critic   Friend

Figure 4: **Critical friendship in one dimension, (Swaffield, 2004, p.5)**

However, other writers have realized that there is more to it than balancing the role of a critic and friend. Swaffield, (2008) explains the term 'a critical friend' as someone who provides both support and challenge within a relationship that involves two persons (a critical friend and the partner) or involves a critical friend working with a group of people. Swaffield assert that a critical friend is a neutral person from outside who assists through questioning, reflecting and providing another viewpoint, prompting honest

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reflection and reappraisal, a seeing anew that may be challenging and uncomfortable, yet enhancing. To her, Critical friends are also concerned with both the learning of the person or people they engage with directly, and the success of whatever project is the focus of the work. (Swaffield, 2002) believes that a critical friend "summarizes the role as professional challenge and personal support" p.65. Macbeath and Jardine (1998) think of the term as 'marrying unconditional support and unconditional critique.

Swaffield, (2004) uses Hampton-Turner's work on paradoxes to illustrate this idea. In this model, an increase in one element does not necessarily means a decrease in the other. Paradoxically, as 'friendship increases, involving the establishment and deepening of trust, so does it become possible to increase criticism. Figure 5 illustrates this.
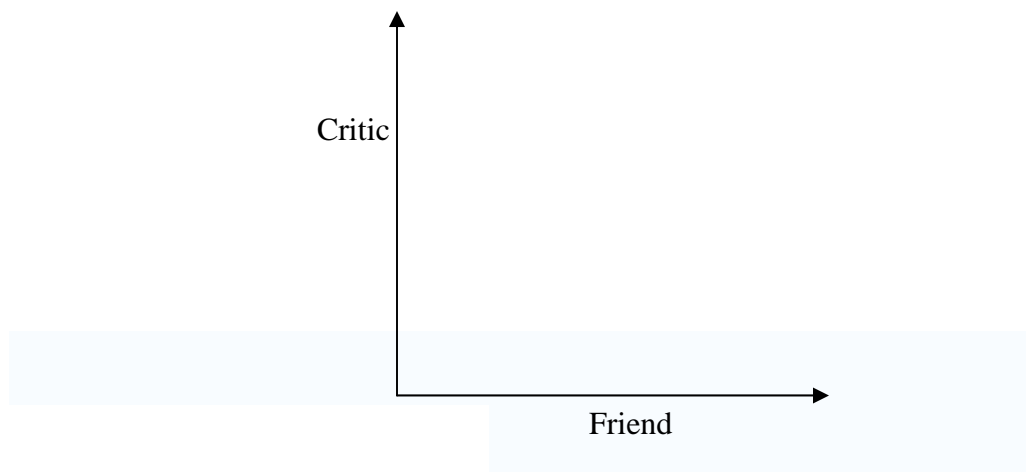
Figure 5: **Critical friendship in two dimensions, (Swaffield, 2004, p.6)**

The Characteristics of a Critical Friend

A critical friend possesses certain characteristics that distinguish his or her relationship with school colleagues from any other. Swaffield, (2004) outlined the following characteristic. A critical friend **has 'a license to help'**: this is because he or she is appointed by the education authority in the community.

External to the situation: a critical friend as an outsider who not only has a different perspective on the school from those within it, but also assists them to see the familiar in a new light.

Builds and maintains a relationship of trust: the critical friend has the capacity of building and maintaining a relationship of trust between him or herself and school colleagues through the provision of total unconditional support for school colleagues.

Possesses knowledge: brings a breadth and depth of relevant knowledge and experience, to a specific situation which he or she seeks to understand

Focuses on the achievement of objectives: the critical friend establishes, and adheres to, clear foci and boundaries for the task in hand. In other words he or she advocates for the success of the work and shows concerned for its effect on a whole range of people.

Operates with adult-adult relationship: from a transactional analysis viewpoint, seeks to operate with adult-adult relationships as against the mentor –mentee relationship. It balances friendship and critique, through personal support and professional challenge.

Motivates and reassures: the critical friend has the ability to motivate school colleagues to match their professional needs with the objectives and goals of the school.

Facilitative rather than directive: the critical friend operates particularly through asking questions and providing feedback, and also seeks to enable those he or she works with to become more self-sufficient and skilled at self improvement

Has understanding of the complexities of change: the critical friend has a well developed understanding of the complexities of change processes. He or she is aware of people's attitude towards change and the challenges associated with it.

The Roles of the Critical Friend

Reflective responding: The critical friend encourages school colleagues to talk about their work while he or she uses a form of listening that automatically informs the school colleague the direction and the limit to his own thinking. In other words, reflective responding makes the critical friend a mirror in which the school colleague sees his own reflection and evaluates him

Questioning: The critical friend asks pertinent and provocative questions at the right time that make teachers think deeper. The critical friend encourages colleagues to compare product with underlying principles and raise awareness of potential contractions**.**

 Supporting Development: The critical friend helps people in their practice by feeding them with ideas, supporting their thinking and personal growth. He

provides school colleagues references to follow up literature to read, website to explore or materials to consider and subsequently engages teachers in conversation about issues and ideas. He supports improvement through empowerment by demonstrating a positive regard for people and providing an informed critique of processes and practices. Helps schools/clients to reflect on and see things more clearly. He is an outsider who does not only have a different perspective of the school from those within it, but also assists them to see the familiar in a new light (Swaffield, 2004). His view point has credibility if it is informed by an understanding of the specific situation and of the general context.

Granting 'listening ear': The critical friend does not impose his ideas on clients, but he listens to their explanations and suggestions. He provides the platform for teachers to share their views and respect their shared views.

Helping to shape outcome: The critical friend provides guidelines for school colleagues to improve upon their performance. He engages teachers in discussions to pave ways for higher performance. He, however, does not determine the outcome of activities of the school.

Spreading and critiquing practices. The critical friend is an educational connoisseur and critic. He plays this role by spreading good practices and making links between same subject colleagues or administrative practices in different schools. Sometimes the critical friend draws attention to certain unproductive practices that perhaps had not been recognized by giving

examples of good practices in other schools and thus providing platform for teachers to emulate.

Summary

It has been reviewed that effective instructional supervision is key in promoting teaching and learning. It is noted that schools that are successful have in place effective supervision strategies that provides leadership for students learning, increase teacher's commitment towards achieving instructional goals and develop teachers professionally.

From the literature, supervision of school originated from the United States of America's strategy for total quality management of public organizations where supervisors were supposed to inspect, assess and upgrade teachers work and also ensure accountability and compliance to rules and regulations. This focus of supervision changed to instructional development. With the introduction of supervision tasks such as direct assistance to teachers and professional development among others, supervision now stresses collegial relationship between the supervisor and supervisee as in the case of clinical supervision and promotes teachers' professional development.

It is also noted that the relationship between a supervisor and a supervisee is the means by which the supervisee gets involved in the process of

supervision and also determines what happens in the supervision process. It is noted that in Ghana, clinical supervision is what is emphasized in the circuit supervisors' handbook, thus, the relationship between the circuit supervisors and teachers should be collegial. And that the task of supervision is performed by people at every level of the school management structure; while the Ministry of Education, the Metropolitan Education Offices and District Education Offices supervise schools externally; headteachers and teachers perform supervisory roles internally. It is noted that the personnel performing instructional supervision roles should possess qualities such as friendliness, tolerance, humility and should be good communicators innovative, role models, advisors and above all knowledgeable.

It is reviewed that critical friendship is a 'horizontal' or adult-adult relationship between at least two people. This relationship evolves over time and is heavily based on trust. It emphasizes total unconditional friendship or support first then critiques later. It is noted that with critical friendship in supervision, the critical friend (supervisor) provides total unconditional support for his or her school colleague (supervised) before making informed critiquing of the supervisees' work. The granting of listening ears and reflective responding to teachers, supporting development of teachers, helping to shape

instructional outcomes and spreading and critiquing practices. The critical

friend is characterized among many other things as having license to help,

being politically neutral, external to the situation and building and maintaining

a relationship of trust. It is also stressed that the success of the idea in

supervision depends largely on four factors: the role of a critical friend,

participants, how the relationship itself is perceived and the context of the

relationship.

From the literature, it is seen that when the focus of instructional

supervision changed from making teachers accountable for education input to

improving schools through teacher development collegial relationship was

stressed as a tool for improving the interaction between supervisors and

teachers, thus; the Ghana Educational Service has adopted the three stages of

clinical supervision process for instructional supervision. However, this

collegial relationship seems to exist only on paper. In practice, circuit

supervisors possess some degree of power by virtue of their position which

militates against collegiality. Besides, imposed agenda, coupled with the fact

that the circuit supervisor has to report back to the education office, leaves

collegiality very little room to operate. It is therefore not surprising that there is

tension and at times open confrontations between circuit supervisors and some

teachers in Ghana.

Efforts therefore need to be made to make this power differential and

other factors such as supervisor having his or her own agenda for visiting the

school and excessive monitoring, less harmful to the relationship between teachers and supervisors. Critical friendship has the potential of building a trusting relationship between circuit supervisors and their schools so that together they will set out and work to achieve instructional objectives.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

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 technique, the research instrument and instrument administration.

The Area of Study

The Cape Coast Metropolis was used for the study. Cape Coast is the capital of the Central Region of Ghana. It is situated 165 km west of Accra on the Gulf of Guinea. It has a population of 82,291 (2000 census). The city grew around Cape Coast Castle, which is now a World Heritage Site. It was converted to a castle by the Dutch in 1637, then expanded by the Swedes in 1652 and captured by the British in 1664. The British based their Gold Coast operations in the town until Accra became the capital in 1877(Tetty, 1985; Ephson, 1970; Baku, 1991 as cited by Cape Coast - Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia.mht). The traditional occupation of the people of Cape Coast is fishing. The city boasts of some of Ghana's finest secondary and technical schools, a polytechnic and Ghana's leading university in teaching and research, University of Cape Coast (UCC).

Although the Metropolis is the citadel of formal education in Ghana and so is endowed with prominent educational institutions at all levels, the performance of the basic schools in the Metropolis is relatively low. The Metropolis was chosen because recently, there has been teacher outcry on the manner in which supervisors relate with teachers in the Metropolis.

The Research Design and its Nature

The design that was used in this study is action research. I found action research a more appropriate design in finding out whether the idea of critical friendship could be used as an intervention to reduce the tension that characterised supervisor- supervisee relationships in schools since action research involves identifying a problem in a specific context and attempting to solve it in that context.

Action research is all about changing an environment, system, or practice, and learning about this context through changing it. In short, it is basically research through action. It is a small – scale intervention in the function of the real world and a close examination of the effect of such intervention. It involves identifying a problem in a specific context and attempting to solve it in that context (Cohen & Manion, 1989). Glickman, Gordon & Ross – Gordon, (2007), explain that action research in education is "a study conducted by school colleagues in a school setting of the results of their activities to improve instruction" (p.406)   From a participatory perspective, Dick (2002); Reason & Bradbury (2001); Hult & Lennung (1980);

McNiff (2002) in Cooke & Kothari (2001) describe action research, as a recognized form of experimental research that focuses on the effects of the researcher's direct actions of practice within a participatory community with the goal of improving the performance quality of the community or an area of concern . It also involves utilizing a systematic cyclical method of planning, taking action, observing, evaluating (including self-evaluation) and critical reflecting prior to planning the next cycle (O'Brien, 2001; McNiff, 2002). Another definition by McCutcheon and Jung in Masters (2000), states that action research is a "systemic inquiry that is collective, collaborative, self-reflective, critical and undertaken by participants in the inquiry". (p. 148)

Within all these definitions there exist four basic themes: empowerment of participants; collaboration through participation; acquisition of knowledge; and social change. The researcher goes through a spiral of action research cycles to achieve these themes (Zuber-Skerrit, in Masters, 2000).

Types of Action Research

Most writers on action research propose three types of action research. Masters (2000) gave the types of action research from four different authors. (a) action research is technical, practical, and emancipatory (Grundy 1988, p. 353); (b) action research is that of a technical collaborative approach a mutual collaborative approach and an enhancement approach, (Holter & Schwartz-Barcott, 1993, p. 301); (c) positivist perspective, an interpretivist perspective and a critical science perspective, (McCutcheon & Jurg, 1990, p.

145-147); and (d) the scientific-technical view of problem solving, practical-deliberative action research, and critical-emancipatory action research, (McKernan 1991,

 p. 16 -27)   Masters finally merged all these form of action research into three types which is discussed below.

TYPE1

Technical/Technical Collaborative/Scientific Technical/Positivist

The main aim of the researcher in this approach is to test a particular intervention based on a pre-specified theoretical framework, the nature of the collaboration between the researcher and the practitioner is technical and facilitatory. The researcher identifies the problem and a specific intervention, and then agrees with the practitioner involved to facilitate the implementation of the intervention. (Holter & Schwartz-Barcott in Masters, 2000).

The communication flow within this type of research according to Grundy (1982, p. 360) is primarily between the facilitator on one side, and the group of practitioners on another side. So that the ideas may be communicated to the group as indicated in Figure 6:
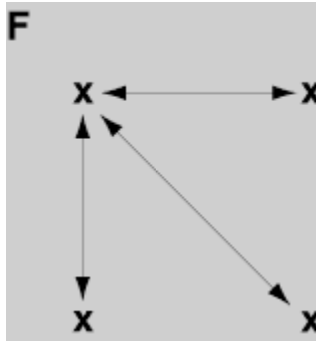
Figure 6**:** **Technical communication (Grundy, 1982, p. 360)**

As ideas which reside with the facilitator (**FX**) flow to the group (**X, X** and **X**) through the intervention, feedbacks flow to the facilitator (as indicated in figure 6) through data collection.

A study guided by technical action research would be instigated by a particular person or group of people who because of their greater experience or qualifications would be regarded as experts or authority figures. This type of action research promotes more efficient and effective practice. It is product directed but promotes personal participation by practitioners in the process of improvement.

TYPE2

Mutual-Collaborative/Practical/Deliberative/Interpretivis/Perspective

In this type of action research the researcher and the practitioners come together to identify potential problems, their underlying causes and possible interventions, (Holter, & Schwartz- Barcott, 1993, p. 301). The problem is defined after dialogue with the researcher and the practitioner and a mutual understanding is reached.

The researchers involved in the mutual collaborative approach to action research gain a new understanding of their practice and the changes implemented tend to have a more lasting nature. However the changes tend to be connected to the individuals directly involved in the change process but not the system and therefore, the interventions tend to be short lived when these individuals leave the system or new people join it. (Holter, & Schwartz - Barcott, 1993).

Grundy (1982, p. 360) insisted that the communication flow in this type of action research must be unimpaired between each member of the group and the facilitator. Figure 7 illustrates the communication flow in Practical action research.
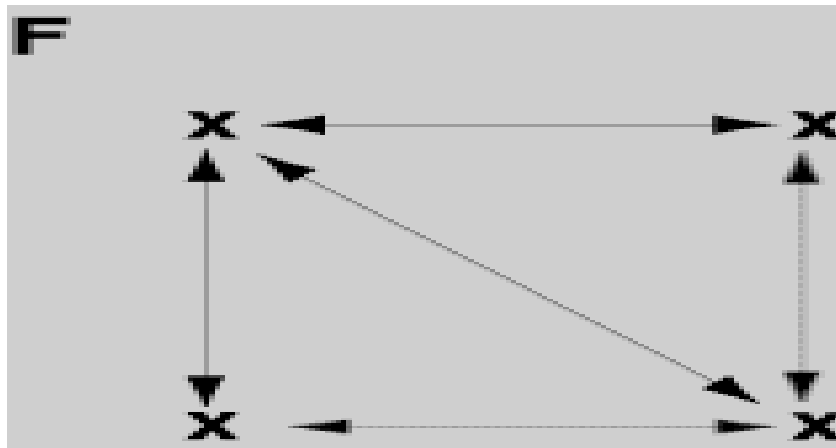
Figure7:   **Practical and Emancipatory Communication (Grundy 1982, p. 360)**

From figure 7 it is seen that since power is shared in this type of action research and emphasis is placed on individual power for action, there is free

communication among participants (**FX, X, X** and **X**) in order to define the problem and reach mutual understanding. Communication flows to and from all participants as well as the facilitator as indicated by the direction of the arrows in figure 7. Thus; information goes round in the group.

McKernan (1991, p. 20) is of the view that the practical model of action research loses some measurement and control for 'human interpretation', 'interactive communication', 'deliberation', 'negotiation and detailed description' and that the goal of practical action researchers is understanding practice and solving immediate problems. It also promotes the development of professionalism by stressing "the part played by personal judgment in decisions to act for the good of the client" and besides these "promotes autonomous, deliberative action - Praxis". (Grundy. 1987, p. 154).

TYPE3

Enhancement approach/Critical-Emancipatory Action research/Critical Science perspective

Emancipatory action research helps develop a critical consciousness which exhibits itself in political and practical action to effect change. (Grundy 1987, p.154) This approach has two goals, one is to bring the actual problems encountered by practitioners in a specific setting close to the theory used to explain and resolve the problem. The second goal, which goes beyond the other two approaches, is to help practitioners in identifying and making explicit fundamental problems by raising their awareness. (Holter, & Schwartz - Barcott, 1993, p.302).

Grundy, as cited by Masters, (2000) explained that although it is not in the methodologies that the three modes of action research differ, the underlying assumptions and world views of the participants cause variations in the application of the methodology. Grundy, (1982, p. 363) assert that "the differences in the relationship between the participants and the source and scope of the guiding 'idea' can be traced to a question of power."

In technical action research, it is the 'idea' which is the source of power for action and since the 'idea' often resides with the facilitator; it is the facilitator who controls power in the project. In practical action research power is shared between groups of equal participants, but the emphasis is upon individual power for action. Power in emancipatory action research resides wholly within the group, not with the facilitator and not with the individuals within the group. (Grundy, 1982).

Strengths and Weakness of the Design

Action research can be used to solve problems that are diagnosed in specific situations in the school setting and provide new approaches to effective teaching and learning. It improves communication between the education researcher and the classroom teacher. Cohen & Manion, (1989) are of the view that action research provides in-service training, thereby equipping teachers with new skills and methods, sharpening analytical power and heightening self awareness. It is also believed that action research helps to

renew educators' commitment to teaching and develop active professionals (Sagor, 1993, Glickman, Gordon & Ross – Gordon (2007).

However, action research is time consuming. That is, it demands space and time. It is therefore difficult to maintain rigor in data gathering and critique. Also, personal over-involvement of the researcher may bias research results. It is likely to distort the way people perceive events and situations especially when situations involve conflict, stress, or any events that may lead to an intense emotional response. Moreover, action research produces results which are not generalisable. This is true, but someone else's ideas or conclusions can always be tried out by other persons in their own practice, to see if they work for them (Hamilton, 1981).

 In sum, in action research, data is collected on a perceived problem analyzed and based on this, intervention is administered and finally post intervention data is gathered to evaluate the intervention. This   helps in deciding whether the intervention is worth adopting or not.

Conditions that Call for an Action Research

The requirements of an action research project incorporate the goals of improvement of a situation or problem and involvement of the researcher. The conditions which are individually necessary and jointly sufficient for action research to exist according to Grundy & Kemmis as cited in Grundy 1988, are:

1. The project takes as its subject-matter a social practice, regarding it as a strategic action susceptible to improvement.

2. The project proceeds through a spiral of cycles of planning, acting, observing and reflecting, with each of these activities being systematically and self-critically implemented and interrelated; and

3. The project involves those responsible for the practice in each of the moments of the activity, widening participation in the project gradually to include others affected by the practice and maintaining collaborative control of the process (Grundy and Kemmis 1981 as cited in Grundy 1988, p. 353).

This design which is used as a tool to solve problems identified at a particular place is chosen because it is more appropriate for finding answers to my research questions. In other words, it is used to test whether the idea of 'supervisor as a critical friend' will work in our Ghanaian context to improve the achievement of objectives of instructional supervision.

Phases of Action Research

According to Glickman, Gordon & Ross – Gordon (2007) action research is conducted in five phases. The first phase involves the selection of a focus area in school instruction that needs improvement. The second phase is the gathering of data on the selected focus area to help appreciate the problems and to collect a baseline data that will help with the evaluation of the intervention. Phase three comprises designing the improvement plan or the intervention. The fourth focuses on the implementation of the improvement

plan and the fifth phase is the evaluation of the plan. Calhoun, (1994), also explained these five phases as follows.

Phase I - Problem Identification

One identifies a problem that   is an important and practical problem, something worth the time and effort and that could be beneficial to the participants and the school or organization. The problem must be stated clearly and in the form of a question. It should be broad enough to allow for a range of insights and findings. And it should be narrow enough to be manageable within the timeframe of the study.

Phase II - Plan of Action

One plans on a strategy or approach to address the question, focus the study, the appropriate timeline for what is to be accomplished and stated, targeted outcomes.

Phase III - Data Collection

At this stage the researcher collects data in order to answer the question. The data should   have multiple perspectives.   And also consider resources that exist and what information from others might be useful in helping you to frame your question, decide on types of data to collect, or to help you interpret your findings?

Phase IV - Analysis of Data

One analyzes data to find out patterns, insights, and new understandings. And also note the implication these patterns, insights, and new understandings have for practice or the school.

Phase V - Plan for Future Action

This is the last phase where recommendations are made for these insights and new understandings to be instituted in practice or in the school.

One also writes about what have been learnt so that the findings will be useful to participants and to others.

Whitehead, (1985) is of the view that the action research 'cycle' involves a spiral or cycle of planning, action, monitoring and reflection: This sequence according to Whitehead forms the basic structure of the process of the inquiry but one must be prepared to find fuzzy edges between the stages as the inquiry proceeds. For a start, one will probably not start with planning; there may be much monitoring and observation of existing practice before one is ready to plan and implement a change. As one becomes more involved with his or her research, he or she may find it hard to detach one element of the process from another and may find him or herself reflecting as he or she is acting – something that Schön (1983) calls 'knowing-in-action' – and monitoring also will take place as action proceeds. However, once that first change is implemented the action research cycle proceeds generally in the above manner. Even though Glickman, Gordon and Ross – Gordon (2007) and other writers outlined five steps and also four steps of action research, others gave three phases: pre intervention phase, intervention phase and post intervention phase.

Action research is a process of change in three phases, (Johnson, 1976). Here, Lewin's spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of

planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of action are used. These

steps are illustrated in figure 8.
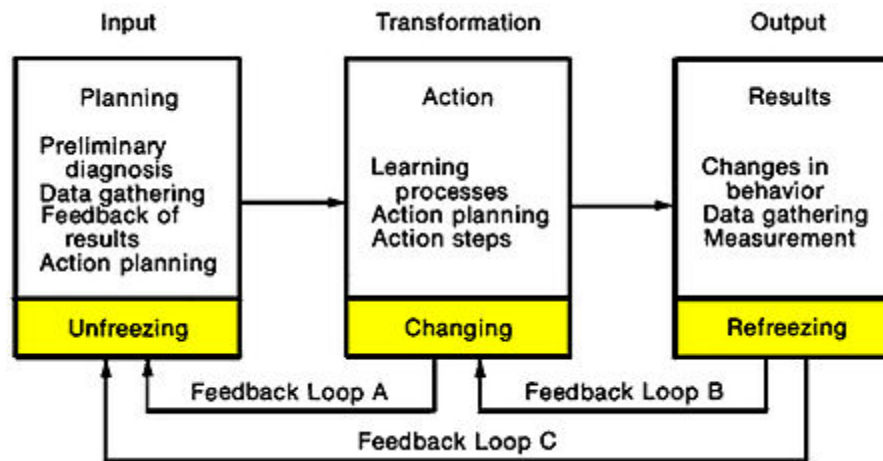
Figure 8: **Systems Model of Action-Research Process (Johnson, 1976, p. 222)**

The steps begin with a series of planning actions initiated by the client

and the change agent working together. The principal elements of this stage

include a preliminary diagnosis, data gathering, feedback of results, and joint

action planning. In the language of systems theory, this is the input phase, in

which the client system becomes aware of problems as yet unidentified,

realizes it may need outside help to effect changes, and shares with the

consultant the process of problem diagnosis, (see input phase).

The second stage of action research according to Johnson, (1976) is the

action or transformation phase. This stage deals with planning and executing

behavioral changes in the client organization. As shown by the Feedback Loop

A arrow in Figure 8, feedback at this stage would move through Feedback

Loop A and would have the effect of altering previous planning to bring the

learning activities of the client system into better alignment with change objectives. Included in this stage is action-planning activity carried out jointly by the researcher and members of the client system. Following the workshop or learning sessions, these action steps are carried out on the job as part of the transformation stage.

The third stage of action research is the output or results phase. This stage includes actual changes in behavior resulting from corrective action steps taken following the second stage. Data is again gathered from the client system so that progress can be determined and necessary adjustments in learning activities can be made. Minor adjustments of this nature can be made in learning activities via Feedback Loop B (see Figure 8). Major adjustments and reevaluations would return the organizational development project to the first or planning stage for basic changes in the program as shown by the arrows.

Population

The population of the study includes all teachers, headteachers and circuit supervisors within the Cape Coast Metropolis. There are seventy (70) basic schools in six (6) circuits with six circuit supervisors in the Metropolis. However, the accessible population was one circuit supervisor, the headteachers and all the teachers within the Aboom Circuit of Cape Coast Metropolis.

Sample and Sampling Technique

The sample consisted of 31 participants comprising 1 circuit supervisor, 26 teachers and 4 headteachers. Four schools were randomly sampled from the Aboom circuit. The circuit supervisor and the entire headteachers and teachers in the four schools were studied because the population was small. This is in line with the assertion by Nwana, (1993) that every member of the population will be studied when the population size is small. The Aboom circuit was purposively selected for the study because it met the criteria I had set for participating circuits. The criteria are that I work as a classroom teacher in the circuit and have observed incidents of conflicts between teachers and their circuit supervisors.

Research Instruments

The researcher used questionnaire, interviews, and observation to collect data from headteachers and teachers of the four selected schools in the Aboom circuit of the Cape Coast Metropolis. The data were collected in two folds. The questionnaire was used for teachers because it saves time, besides, all of them are literate, and although there was the temptation of teachers discussing questions before completing the questionnaire and the need to do frequent follow ups, its anonymity reduced respondents fear and discomfort in coming out with their opinions. The headteachers were interviewed since there were only four of them and more importantly because I needed in-depth information from them. I also got the opportunity of observing practices such

as how pupils and teachers communicate, what goes on in the schools during instructional hours and relationships between supervisors and supervisees.

Pre Testing of Instrument

The instrument was presented to my supervisor to vet. He read through and concluded that the instruments were valid. Pre testing of the instrument was done at Aboom A. M.E. Zion primary and Junior High Schools in Cape Coast using the headteacher and teachers with similar background and experience in teaching. I explained the essence of the pilot testing to the respondents and asked for their support. I then assembled all twelve teachers in one classroom and distributed the questionnaire among them. They responded by ticking their responds to close ended questions. Respondents drew my attention to the questions they do 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 reliability of the questionnaire for teachers. The Cronbach alpha of the questionnaire was 0.7124, hence is deemed 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. The interview guide was tested using the headteacher of the school. The response of the headteacher to some questions and her demand for clarification with others prompted the reframing of some of the questions in the interview guide.

The Research Procedure

After presenting an introductory letter (Appendix A) from the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (IEPA) of the University of Cape Coast (UCC) to the Metropolitan Education Office and the participating schools, soliciting teachers' cooperation was not that easy. Although I was able to meet with the heads and teachers in two of the schools and aroused their interest and explained their roles in the study, I had to visit the other two schools more than twice only to get about one third of the teacher population to listen to me. While some teachers were indifferent others were suspicious of the real purpose of the study and so asked questions such as, "Why did you choose this school?" I was able to chalk some success after I had explained to them the significance of the study to the image of the teaching profession. The research which was carried out in six weeks was done in three phases. The phases are discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

The Pre intervention Phase

The first phase which was done in a week focused on pre intervention activities. Data were collected on the existing supervision practices and supervisor-supervisee relationships in the schools and how the relationship affects teaching and learning. The questionnaires were distributed among respondents on the first day and were given three days to return the completed questionnaire. The interviewing of the circuit supervisor and the headteachers was done in the same week alongside the administration of the questionnaire.

The data was analyzed using percentages (see chapter four) and based on the analyses the focus of the intervention was decided on.

The Intervention Process

According to Towndrow, (2005), one method of bringing together teachers and researchers is to deliberately introduce a critical element into a teacher-researcher relationship that is intended to raise awareness, promote noticing and so change understandings and practices on both sides for the better. Grounded in the diverse literatures of organizational change, school leadership, action research and reflective practice, critical friendship has been adopted by educators as a form of support for colleagues who wish or need to make improvements in what they do. The intervention of this study, which involved the researcher acting as a critical friend to the sample selected, (School colleagues) was applied over a period of five weeks. The intervention was designed to expose teachers to the kind of instructional supervision where the supervisor is a total unconditional professional friend and at the same time a critic to the supervisee. The foundation of this relationship is trust. I acted as a critical friend to the head teachers and teachers of the selected schools over period of five weeks.

Winning the Trust of Teachers

Through support, the second and third weeks of the intervention period were used to win teachers trust and create the opportunity for teachers to know the real purpose of instructional supervision. I visited the schools and spent some time with teachers and pupils in order to get to know their daily activities and also listen to and appreciate the challenges they face in teaching and learning. This made lot of teachers open up to me and gave me their attention when I needed it. When I tried to find out teachers perception about the purpose of instructional supervision, most of the teachers perceived the idea as a tool which is used to check or monitor teachers' performance and behavior. They frequently lamented that the Circuit Supervisor always visited to find fault with and never commended teachers' work. Another issue that seemed to worry teachers a lot was the absence of collegial relationship between the circuit supervisor and teachers. One teacher spelt out: "the circuit supervisor demands obedience and respect from teachers and at times displays this in the presence of the pupils; this makes it difficult to have any meaningful interaction on the achievement of instructional goals."

There were also doubts on whether the circuit supervisor had the required knowledge to help teachers achieve their professional developmental goals. Teachers said the circuit supervisor hardly offered any suggestion, demonstrations or in-service training for them.

Lastly, the method of measuring teachers output of work was a great source of worry to teachers. Teachers complained that the focus on the number of

written exercises as a measure of teacher output of work was not the best since most pupils needed to be engaged more in activity oriented instruction for some time before giving written exercises, besides, written exercises could not fully prove that teaching and learning had taken place.

It was subsequently revealed that teachers expected a kind of supervision where they are praised for a good work done before any criticisms follow, as one teacher explained. 'I expect the circuit supervisor to praise good work done before criticizing the wrong doings of teachers."; "The circuit supervisor should commend not command"

Also teachers expected the supervisor to be knowledgeable enough to help them to overcome their difficulty in teaching through offering suggestions on strategies or in-service training. They expected to be given the opportunity to discuss their work. In other words, teachers expected the circuit supervisor to listen and appreciate what they had to say about their teaching. One teacher complained; "I have to use my initiative to solve instructional problems at times, but the circuit supervisor is not even prepared to listen, I am expected to follow lay down procedure in every situation."

Making Informed Critiquing and Spreading Useful Practices

The fourth and fifth weeks of the intervention period was used to criticize and spread useful practices in the schools. My interaction with teachers and observation of instructional practices in the schools helped me to

identify certain unproductive practices in the schools and consequently; asked pertinent questions that made teachers think deep about their effects.

Through questioning I gathered that the majority of the teachers in the selected schools were pretty worried because the learners had low reading and writing skills especially in the English Language. At the lower primary level where the Ghanaian language is the medium of instruction, teachers complained that the pupils were not able to read pictures in the English Language nor did they do well in the 'look and say' method of reading.

I had earlier on observed from the schools that the use of the English Language even at the upper primary and the Junior High School level was very minimal. Apart from reading sections and a few instructions during lessons the pupils had very little opportunity to listen to the language and subsequently speak before reading and writing could follow.

I therefore took the opportunity to discuss the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing and how these skills are related with teachers. Some of the teachers blamed the school language policy which stresses the use of the children's local language as a medium of instruction and the treatment of the English Language as a subject at the lower primary and the use of the English Language as a medium of instruction and the local language as a subject from the upper primary onwards. They assert that the language policy does not permit them to use the English language, however, according to one headteacher the use of the local language is restricted to the explanation

of concepts during lessons in the lower primary and not necessary to give general instructions to the pupils on the school compound.

We concluded the discussions by agreeing that teachers will provide a language learning environment for pupils where pupils will get the opportunity to listen to the English Language as often as possible so that the transition of the medium of instruction from local language to English Language from primary three to primary four would be smooth and the Junior High School pupils will be able to produce their own Language in essays.

Another practice I discovered which had no or little positive impact on pupils academic development is the heavy emphasis placed on written exercises and the inadequate use of practical activities in lessons. Confirming my observation, some teachers lamented that the pupils lack the motivation to learn. "Some of the children are not serious at all". (Said one teacher) "As for this school, even the education office is aware that the children here have behavior problems. Most of them refuse to write exercise and do assignments". (Another remarked).

When I tried to inspire teachers to think about what they could do to entice pupils or arouse and sustain their interest in the classroom, one teacher rightfully mentioned the use of teaching learning materials (TLMs) and the activity method of teaching but added that TLMs are not always available and are costly. Another teacher also regrets that they are not given funds and technical support for the preparation of these TLMs. A teacher who had a problem with the activity method explained: "The activity method is time

consuming. Since the officers are more interested in written exercises, I have to find time for the children to write the exercises, so we don't do it often".

At the end of the discussion teachers decided to increase the use of improvised TLMs and the activity method of teaching and rather get pupils to record their activities in their exercise books for evaluation. We also agreed that teachers will seek technical support from the circuit supervisor on the preparation of appropriate TLMs.

My last encounter was with the circuit supervisor. I noticed that because he came to the schools with his own agenda, any school or teacher who failed to provide him with the needed data became a threat to the success of his visit. . Consequently; it became difficult for him to listen to 'excuses'.

"Most of the teachers find excuses to be lazy." (Remarked the supervisor). I tried to find out from the supervisor what he normally did to curb the situation. He then revealed that he asks defaulting teachers to organize the data and bring them to him at the office since he has limited time to go round all the schools and this often resulted in misunderstandings between him and the teachers.

Consequently I suggested motivating teachers and bringing their professional needs and needs of the pupils together through total unconditional professional support for teachers before criticizing to the circuit supervisor and he decided to give it a try.

The Post Intervention Stage

The post intervention data was collected in the sixth week to ascertain the effect of the introduction of the intervention. The same instrument was re administered to find out whether there was any change in response from the sample selected. (See chapter four)

Data Analysis Procedure

The data that were collected were edited, coded and analyzed. Frequencies and percentages were the statistical tools used in analyzing the quantitative data. In the case of the qualitative data which were obtained through the interviewing of respondents, emergent themes were identified and the patterns and trends that emerged became the basis for drawing conclusions.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSIONS OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of data and discussions of findings of the pre intervention and post intervention information collected. The intervention data was meant to find out the relationship that existed between the circuit supervisor and teachers in the selected schools and how the relationship affects teaching and learning. The post intervention data were meant to find out whether the intervention was able to bring about any improvement in this relationship and its effects on teaching and learning. These are to answer the research question four- In what ways would critical friendship improve instructional supervision.

Analysis of the Pre intervention Data

The following paragraphs present analysis of the data collected at the pre-intervention phase of the research. They also present and discuss the main themes emerging from the data. The pre-intervention data focused on the real situation about instructional supervision practices in schools and the kinds of relationships that existed between supervisors (headteachers and circuit supervisor) and teachers in the participating schools. The analysis was done

within the framework of the main themes of research questions one, two and three as follows:

Instructional Supervision Practices in Schools

Research question one sought to find an answer to one main question: 'What is the nature of instructional supervision practices in schools within the Cape Coast Metropolis?' Its purpose was to understand how instructional supervision is practiced in the participating schools.

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 lead formal discussions on strategies to improve instructional performance. Table 1 presents the responses from the respondents.

Table 1

Instructional supervision practices in the schools

Statements	Very often (%)	Not so often (%)	Not at all (%)
The circuit supervisor offers suggestion on organization and structure of lessons	34.8	60.9	4.3
Headteacher organizes and arranges materials for instruction	26.1	56.5	17.4
Supervisor schedules and plans classroom visitation and observation with teachers	26.1	43.5	30.4
Supervisor vets teachers lesson notes	47.8	43.5	8.7
Supervisor leads formal discussion on strategies to improve instructional results	21.1	52.2	26.1
Supervisor appreciates instructional problems teachers face and shows concern	13.0	52.2	34.8

On organization and structure of lessons, Table 1 shows that the majority of the respondents, 60.9 percent, were of the view that their circuit supervisor did not often make suggestions on organization of lessons while 4.3 percent thought this did not happen at all. While 26.1 percent of the respondents believed that headteacher often organizes and arranges materials for instruction, 56.5 percent of them were of the view that this did not happen frequently and 17.4 percent said it did not happen at all. The table also shows that the frequency at which the supervisor planned with teachers on classroom

observation was rather low. As 43.5 percent of respondents said it did not happen often, 30.4 said planning of classroom observation with teachers did not happen at all. With the discussion on strategies to improve instruction, the table depicts that the Circuit Supervisor did not often lead discussions to improve instruction. While 52.2 percent of respondents said the Circuit Supervisor did not do this often, 26.1 percent said he does not do it at all.

As regards the role played by headteachers in the supervision process, two out of the four headteachers interviewed explained their role in instructional supervision as supervising the activities of teachers and pupils. One of them said that she vetted teachers lesson notes while another explained that she supervised the use of instructional time. The circuit supervisor on the other hand explained his role in instructional supervision as supervising teachers using clinical supervision. He explained:

> I organize pre observation conference to establish rapport with teachers in order for them to feel comfortable and for me to identify problems in the school, observation stage where I observe teachers and pupils during lessons and analyze what I see and also a post observation conference with teachers to discuss ways of improving teaching and learning and later do a follow up on my visit.

It is evident from the data above that the views of the teachers are not consistent with what the circuit supervisor described as his role in instructional supervision. While the circuit supervisor said he established rapport and listens

to teachers, the majority of the teachers were of the view that the supervisor did not plan classroom observation with teachers nor did he appreciate instructional problems they face.

To further understand the instructional supervision practices, relationships between the supervisor and the supervisee was deemed important. A question was therefore posed to explore this relationship as presented below:

Relationship between Supervisor and Teachers

In order to understand the kind of relationship that existed between supervisors and teachers in the participating schools, views were solicited from respondents on how friendly, trusting, supportive their supervisors were. The research question also sought information on the extent to which circuit supervisors were prepared to listen to what teachers had to say about their teaching. The data is analyzed using descriptive statistics as shown in Table 2.

Table 2

The relationship between supervisor and teachers

Statement	Very much%	Not so much %	Not at all %
The circuit supervisor is friendly	34.8	65.2	8.7
The circuit supervisor demonstrates trust for teachers	21.7	60.9	17.4
Supervisor is prepared to listen to his or her teachers	34.8	47.8	17.4
Supervisor motivates and supports teachers	13.0	43.5	43.5

From Table 2, responses on how friendly the circuit supervisor was, suggests that a greater percentage (65.2) of the respondents was of the opinion that their circuit supervisor was not friendly. About 78.3 percent of the respondents were of the view that the supervisor did not exhibit trust in teachers. And also it is seen from the table that 65.2 percent of the respondents said the supervisors did not listen to what teachers had to say about their teaching. With regards to motivation, a greater percentage (87.0) of teachers felt they were not motivated nor supported to work.

From the interviews I conducted however, all the four headteachers and the circuit supervisor viewed the relationship between themselves and the teachers in their schools as very cordial. The circuit supervisor, for example, explained as follows: "The relationship between me and the teachers is very, very cordial, I respect their views, I listen to them to find out their problems and see how best I can help them. The teachers are also very comfortable with

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me." Further probing however revealed that the cordiality was linked to personal relations. In matters of functional relations relating to the supervision processes however the common response was that confrontations between supervisors and supervisees were prevalent. One headteacher disclosed: "Some teachers don't make it easy for me at all. Some even have open confrontations with me. They think I'm imposing my ideas on them". Another headteacher said, 'some of the teachers get angry with me, they say I am too strict, at times some even think I am wicked'.

From the perspective of teachers, the conflict associated with supervision was not different. Teachers' responses from the questionnaire indicated that supervisors were a threat to their professional freedom and that the supervisor's visits always triggered fear among teachers. When asked about the kind of professional support they give to their teachers, three out of the four headteachers said they give in-service training on lesson notes preparation. One headteacher explained that he gives advice, words of encouragement and motivation. Thus, from the perspective of the supervisors (headteachers and circuit supervisors), they offer support to teachers. Responses to probing questions I posed to the circuit supervisor however suggested some limitations. The circuit supervisor said even though he offered support to teachers, some of them (teachers) appeared not to be very comfortable with his presence: "Some teachers see me as coming to find fault and so are ready to challenge me. Others lack self confidence so will quickly summarize their lessons as soon as I show up, to prevent me from observing

them." (Remarked the Circuit Supervisor).   The circuit supervisor identified the teachers' uncomfortable attitude as a major challenge with which he had to grapple in the process of carrying out instructional supervision.

From the data above it is evident that the kind of relationship that existed between the teachers and their circuit supervisor was more of personal than professional, consequently; possessing significant amount of mistrust, unfriendliness and none supportive when it comes to improving instruction. Obviously, unhealthy relations between supervisors and teachers have adverse implications for teaching and learning. In this light, a question was posed to explore how the existing relationship in the schools affected teaching and learning. The responses are presented below:

The Effect of Relationship on Teaching and Learning

Research question 3 focused on how the relationship between the supervisor and teachers in the participating schools could affect teaching and learning. In answering this question, views were sought from respondents in relation to the effects of the supervisor- teacher relationship on teachers' lesson preparation, teacher's moral, student behavior, and lesson delivery. The responses 'agree and strongly agree' have been put together and treated as 'agree' and 'disagree and strongly disagree' regarded as 'disagree'. This was to simplify the analyses for easy comparison: The responses are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

The effects of relationship on teaching and learning

Statement	Agree%	Disagree%
Relationship improves teachers lesson preparation	91.3	8.7
Supervisors' presence boost teacher's moral	60.8	39.2
Students behave differently at the sight of the supervisor	78.3	21.7
Teachers teach effectively under close supervision	60.9	39.1

From Table 3 it is clear that a greater percentage (91.3) of the respondents was of the view that the relationship between teachers and the supervisor improved lesson preparation. Sixty-eight point eight percent of the respondents also agreed that supervisor's presence boosted teachers' moral. With regards to students' behavior, 78.3 percent of the respondents agreed that student behavior changed at the sight of the supervisor and finally 60.9% were of the view that teachers teach effectively under close supervision while the remaining 39.1% did not agree.

Main Challenge Associated with Supervision in the Schools

A critical analysis of the data presented above, suggests that 'relationship' plays a vital role in the supervision process. The main challenge facing supervision in the participating schools therefore relates to strategies for enhancing supervisor – supervisee relationship towards enhancing teaching

and learning. One strategy that appears very helpful in creating a friendly atmosphere for supervision in schools is 'critical friendship'. It has succeeded in most western cultural contexts, especially in the United Kingdom. One wonders though, whether the application of critical friendship in school supervision could make a difference in terms of reducing the tension associated with supervision and promoting healthy relationship in the supervision process. In this light, critical friendship was used as an intervention for enhancing relationship between supervisors and supervisees in the participating schools. The intervention therefore sought to answer Research question 4:   In what ways will critical friends improve instructional supervision?

Could Critical Friendship make a Difference?

Although critical friendship is being used to improve supervisor - supervisee relationship in other countries, my interaction with teachers and their circuit supervisor during the pre intervention data collection stage convinced me that the idea is not known in Ghana, especially in our education sector. Thus; the relationship between teachers and their circuit supervisor lacked collegiality and trust. Any friendship that existed was more of personal than professional as against what is suggested by critical friendship. The main challenge identified therefore was how to create professional friendliness between supervisor and teachers in order to enhance teaching and learning.

The intervention which took place over a period of five weeks therefore sought to explore ways in which critical friendship could improve instructional

supervision. Post intervention data collection was done using the same instrument after two weeks to find out whether there had been any change in response.

Comparing Pre-intervention and Post-intervention Data

The following paragraphs compare the analyses of the data collected at the pre intervention stage with the data collected at the post intervention stage of the study to find out if there is any change in response within the framework of the main themes of research questions one, two and three.

Table 4

Instructional supervision practices in the schools

Statement	Pre intervention (%)			Post intervention (%)		
	very often	Not so often	Not at all	Very Often	Not so often	Not at all
The supervisor offers suggestion on organization and structure of lesson	34.8	60.9	4.3	47.6	42.9	9.5
The supervisor schedules and plans classroom visitation and observation with teachers	26.1	43.5	30.4	33.3	38.1	28.6
Supervisor vets teachers lesson notes	47.8	43.5	8.7	76.2	14.3	9.5
Supervisor leads formal discussion on strategies to improve instructional results	21.7	52.2	26.1	42.9	42.2	14.9
Supervisor appreciates instructional problems teachers face and shows concern.	13.0	52.2	34.8	23.8	57.2	19.0

The responses on organization and structure of lessons, from the Table 4 shows that while the pre intervention data depicted that the majority of the respondents (60.9 percent) were of the view that their supervisor did not often make suggestions, this percentage reduced in the post intervention data to 42.9 percent. Thus; the percentage of respondents who thought the supervisor often offer such suggestions increased from 34.8 percent in the pre intervention data to 47.6 percent in the post intervention data. With regards to the supervisor scheduling and planning classroom visitation with teachers the pre intervention data shows that it was rather low because 43.5 percent said this did not happen often and 30.4 said it did not happen at all. However, after the intervention, these percentages reduced marginally to 38.1 percent and 28.6 percent respectively. Consequently; the percentage of respondents who thought the supervisor often schedules and plans classroom visitation with teacher increased from 26.1 percent to 33.3 percent.

Moreover, the pre intervention data results depicted that 52 percent of the respondents were of the view that the supervisor did not do this often while 26.1 percent said he did not do this at all. These percentages however reduced to 42.9 and 14.3 respectively in the post intervention data whereas the percentage of respondents who believed the supervisor often led discussions on strategies to improve instruction increased from 21.7 percent in the pre intervention to 42.9 percent in the post intervention. On finding out the frequency at which the supervisor appreciated instructional problems teachers face and showed concern, the pre intervention data showed that 52.2 percent of

respondents thought this happened often while 34.8 percent said the supervisor did not appreciated problem at all, at the post intervention stage the percent of respondents who were of the view that the supervisor often appreciate instructional problems raised to 23.8 percent while the percentage who thought he did not do it all fell to 19.0 percent

The above comparisons depict that there has been an appreciable amount of improvement in the supervision practices in the schools. The post intervention interview with the headteachers and the circuit supervisor confirmed this. When asked about the role they play in instructional supervision, the headteachers said apart from vetting lesson notes they observe lessons, praise and support both teachers and pupils to motivate them. One of them explained: "I go to classrooms to observe lessons and teachers feel ok with me. I praise good work done to encourage teachers." Another headteacher remarked, "I think the teachers realize that supervision brings about effective teaching and learning and so think deeply about what the supervisor   says and realizes that it's the fact."

The circuit supervisor also explained that he offers support and suggestions and corrections if necessary.

> I am more comfortable dealing with teachers now
> because most of them welcome me warmly. They take
> my suggestion in good faith. Some even call me later to
> thank me. We sit down together and discuss problem
> and how they can be solved. Although there are still a

few who find it difficult to accept correction the

majority are ok when I criticize their work and are

willing to do the right thing.

It can be deduced that the intervention has helped improved teachers and the circuit supervisors understanding of the real purpose of instructional supervision. This finding is important because knowing the real purpose of instructional supervision can improve teachers' commitment to work and give supervisors and teachers a common goal in the achievement of professional and educational goals. This agrees with what Ukeje, Akabogu and Alice (1992) explained that instructional supervision aims at helping teachers to become self – directive and also provide a favorable setting for student learning.

The Relationship between the Circuit Supervisor and Teachers

In order to find out the effect of the intervention on the responses given by respondents at the pre-intervention stage on the kind of relationship that existed between the teachers and their circuit supervisor, the pre intervention data is compared with the post interaction data in Table 5.

Table 5

The relationship between the circuit supervisor and teachers

	Pre intervention			Post intervention		
statement	Very much	Not so much	Not at all	Very much	Not so much	Not at all
Supervisor is friendly towards teachers	34.8	56.5	8.7	28.6	71.4	0.0
Supervisor exhibits that he trusts teachers	21.7	60.9	17.4	38.1	52.4	9.5
Supervisor shows preparedness to listen to what teachers have to say about their own teaching	34.8	47.8	17.4	38.1	42.9	19.0
Supervisor motivates and supports teachers	13.0	43.5	43.5	23.8	38.1	38.1

The Table 5 shows that the percentage of respondents who believed the circuit supervisor was very much friendly reduced from 34.8 to 28.6 while the percentage who thought he was friendly but not so much increased from 56.5 to 71.4 percent. However; whereas 8.7 percent thought the supervisor was not friendly at all, none of the respondents believed that he was not friendly at all after the intervention. On the circuit supervisor's exhibition of trust in the teachers, the pre interaction data revealed that 60.9 percent of the respondents were of the view that the circuit supervisor did not trust teachers so much,

whereas, 17.4 percent thought he did not trust teachers at all. However, after the intervention these percentages reduced to 52.4 and 9.5 respectively. Besides, the percentage that believed that the supervisor trusted teachers very much rose from 21.7 to 38.1.

With regards to how much the circuit supervisor was prepared to listen to teachers, the pre intervention data depicts that the percentage of respondents who thought that the supervisor listened very much increased from 34.8 percent to 38.1 percent while the percentage that were of the view that the supervisor did not listen to teachers so much reduced from 47.8 percent to 42.9 percent. The responses on how much the circuit supervisor motivated and supported teachers from the table shows that the percentage of respondents who were of the view that the supervisor motivates and supports teachers raised from 13.0 percent to 23.8 percent. Whereas the percentage who thought they did not do these very much and at all decreased from 43.5 to38.1 in each case.

From the comparisons discussed above, it is evident that the vital ingredients needed to build professional friendliness between the supervisor and teachers such as preparedness of the supervisor to listen to what teachers have to say about their own teaching, exhibition of trust in teachers and   the motivation and support given to teachers has seen some improvement after the intervention. The headteachers I interviewed after the intervention still maintained that the relationship between themselves and their teachers was

'cordial' and also relate very well with the circuit supervisor. One headteacher explained:

> The relationship between us is cordial. I feel more comfortable dealing with teachers now and most of my teachers are also more comfortable with me especially when I observe their lessons and offer suggestions I believe teachers now understand that supervision brings about effective teaching and learning.

An interview with the circuit supervisor on the relationship between himself and his teachers after the intervention confirmed this;

> We have a cordial relationship. Teachers respond to me well. I offer my support and criticisms when necessary and most teachers now take my criticisms in good faith and even some confessed I have helped them. The relationship between the teachers I had confrontations with before and I have improved and I believe that if this continues, we are going to enjoy our work.

This finding is significant because it plays a very important role in building a healthy relationship. Although the post intervention data suggest a decrease in the percentage of respondents who believed that the supervisor was very friendly, there was improvement in supervisors listening practices, support and exhibition of trust which could with time, effect change in response for the better since according to Costa and Kallick (1993) and Swaffield (2004) trust is a paramount feature of critical friendship. Swaffield also explained that critical friendship is dynamic relationship that integrates

critique and friendship which evolves over time. Moreover, there is a possibility that the decrease of percentage of respondents who believed that the supervisor was very friendly may be due to the cultural definition of a friendship between a superior and a subordinate and what teachers expected from such friendship. This presupposes that critical friendship in supervision was not fully understood by the teachers in the selected schools because comparing what the circuit supervisor said with teachers' views on the relationship between them, one realizes that due to the gap between the supervisor and the teachers, the teachers are practically passive in the building of this relationship. They expected the supervisor to initiate everything. In other words, the teachers wanted to be befriended. Swaffield (2004) explained that dependency and passivity on the part of one partner is not a feature of critical friendship.

Effects of the Relationship between Circuit Supervisors and Teachers on Teaching and Learning

The following paragraphs present the comparison of the pre intervention and post intervention responses on the effects of the relationship between the supervisor and teachers on teaching and learning. The responses 'agreed and strongly agreed' are put together and treated as 'agreed' and the responses 'disagree and strongly disagree' also treated as 'disagreed' as indicated in table 6.

Table 6

Effects of the relationship between supervisor and teachers on teaching and learning

	Pre intervention (%)		Post intervention (%)	
Statement	Agree Disagree		Agree	Disagree
Relationship improves teachers lesson preparation	91.3	8.7	100.0	0.0
Supervisors presence boost teachers morale	60.8	39.2	71.5	28.5
Students behave differently at the sight of the supervisor	78.3	21.7	47.6	52.4
Teachers teach effectively under close supervision	60.9	39.1	42.8	57.2

Table 6 shows that 100 percent of the respondents agreed that the relationship between supervisors and teachers improved teachers' lesson preparation after the intervention as against the 91.3 who did at the pre intervention stage. The 60.8 percent of the respondents who agreed that the supervisor's presence in the school boosted the teachers' morale increased to 71.5 percent while the percentage that disagrees reduced from 39.2 percent to 28.5 percent. With regards to students' behavior, the pre intervention data revealed that 78.3 percent agreed that students behave differently when they

saw the circuit supervisor, and this percent reduced to 47 percent while the percentage that disagree increased from 21.7 percent to 52.4 percent. Finally, with regards to the effect of close supervision on teachers effectiveness, the percentage of respondents who agreed that teachers taught effectively under close supervision reduced after the intervention from 60.9 percent to 42.8 percent while the percentage that disagree rose from39.1 percent to 57.2.

The data above shows that most of the respondents are of the view that the relationship between the circuit supervisor and the teachers improved teachers' lesson preparation and boosted their morale. However, the majority of them did not believe that close supervision could improve teacher effectiveness.

The headteachers I interviewed were of the view that the relationship between themselves and the circuit supervisor and also teachers had improved instruction in many ways such as better implementation of instructional decisions, improvement in pupils' conduct and participation in lessons and had boosted teachers morale.

> Oh the relationship has had positive effect on teaching and learning. Now when I observe lessons, teachers don't have any problem with my sitting in their classrooms and the pupils show off by answering questions in class.

The circuit supervisor in an interview explained that the improved relationship had had positive effect on teaching and learning.

Most teachers have their lessons notes fully prepared by Monday morning and display their teaching learning materials proudly, some even call me to come around to look at their materials. The headteachers are also very happy and they believe their work has been made easier. Implementing decisions is easier now because we have a united front. My teachers are motivated to do their best to achieve the desired results and also pupils' conduct is affected.

The data gave indications that the trusting relationship between the teachers and their circuit supervisor boosted teachers' moral and increased their commitment towards their work even though the responses suggest that there was little professional friendliness. This finding is contradictory to Swaffield's belief that establishment and deepening of trust increases friendship.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Critical friendship in supervision which has been used in different contexts to mean school self evaluation, school self appraisal, local authority support and school improvement among others has in recent times been considered by researchers especially in Great Britain, to be a powerful tool for creating a relationship that promote learning (Heller, 1988; MacBeath et al 2000; and MacBeath & Mortimor 2001 in Swaffield 2008).

The relationship between circuit supervisors and their teachers lack trust, collegiality and professional friendship therefore there are high evidence of misunderstanding and tension between the supervisor and teachers. This research investigated the use of critical friendship in school supervision at Aboom circuit in the Cape Coast Metropolis as a way of helping to improve the relationship between teachers and their circuit supervisors.

The study used four (4) headteachers, twenty-six (26) teachers of four (4) basic schools and one (1) circuit supervisor of Aboom circuit in Cape Coast. Data were collected at the pre intervention stage to ascertain the kind of relationship that existed between the circuit supervisor and the teachers of the school.

The findings of the pre intervention data informed the intervention stage as to what exactly is harming the relationship. The same instruments were used to collect data at the post- intervention stage. This was done to compare with the pre intervention findings to find out whether the intervention made any impact or not. Percentages were used in analyzing the data which is on four research questions.

Summary of Findings

A number of findings emerged from the study. These findings answer the research question four: In what ways could critical friendship help improve instructional supervision?

The instructional supervision practices at the pre intervention stage involved basically the circuit supervisor vetting teachers' lesson notes. Planning and leading formal discussions on strategies to improve instruction was done less often. However, after the intervention, the frequency of these practices increased and even broadened to cover areas such as appreciating teachers' instructional problems and offering suggestions on how they could be solved.

The relationship that existed between the circuit supervisor and teachers at the pre intervention stage was more of personal than professional. Their professional interaction was devoid of collegiality and trust. Trust improved after the intervention although most teachers were still of the view that the supervisor was not friendly.

It can also be deduced from the data that close supervision does not really have much influence on the performance or effectiveness of the teacher. Rather, helping teachers to be self directive could motivate teachers and improve teaching and learning. Moreover, it was established that teachers really trust and respect supervisors who are knowledgeable and have the ability to help teachers solve their instructional problems. Teachers expect supervisors to give practical demonstrations as a means of support rather than verbal explanations.

Interaction with teachers during the intervention period revealed that the circuit supervisor visits schools on fault finding missions. Teachers complained that the circuit supervisor criticized them all the time and hardly praised any teacher.

Finally, the results of the study revealed that the idea of critical friendship helped the supervisor to listen more to what teachers had to about their work and exhibited trust in teachers, an act which boosted teachers' morale. This made teachers appreciate the supervisor's visits to their schools.

Conclusions

This study has shown that critical friendship in instructional supervision has contributed in building a trusting relationship between the circuit supervisor and the select headteachers and teachers of the Aboom circuit of the Cape Coast Metropolis. The study revealed that, the supervisor was perceived by teachers as someone who does not listen to what teachers had

to say about their work nor trusted nor supported them. However, at the post intervention stage, many more teachers were of the view that, the supervisor exhibited some trust in teachers. The trusting relationship between the teachers and the supervisor helped increase teachers confidence and commitment towards their work.

The intervention was also an eye opener for both teachers and supervisor the real purpose of instructional supervision. For instance my school visits and interaction with teachers informed me that, teachers perceived supervisors to be fault finders who are quick to criticize teachers and reluctant in praising good work done. The supervisor on the other hand had a pre conceived idea that teachers found excuses to be lazy.

However, after the intervention, the supervisor was willing to listen more and praise before criticizing teachers. . Besides; teachers response to instructional supervision improved since most teachers I interacted with admitted they feel more relaxed during supervision process.

Although it helped increase trust between the circuit supervisor and the teachers, the idea of critical friendship is not fully understood in the Ghanaian context. Its barrier may be our cultural understanding of friendship especially between a worker and his or her superior, that is, 'to befriend'.

Recommendations

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

1. The results of the study established that the supervision practices were centered on vetting of teachers' lesson notes. It is therefore recommended that circuit supervisors lead formal discussions on strategies to improve teaching and learning in their schools.

2. It was also established from the study that the relationship between the circuit supervisor and teachers was devoid of collegiality and trust. It is recommended therefore that the management of basic education in Cape Coast Metropolis make collegial relationship real between teachers and their circuit supervisors through appropriate training.

3. Also, the result of the study showed that close supervision does not really improve teachers' performance. It is recommended that supervisors encourage teachers to be self directive and also give them appropriate support.

4. Further, it was established from the result of the study that teachers respect and trust supervisors who are knowledgeable and are able to demonstrate how to solve instructional problems. It is therefore recommended that the management of basic education in Cape Coast Metropolis trained supervisors well enough to be able to display competence on their job.

5. The result of the study also revealed that the supervisor visits schools on a fault finding mission, thus; teachers complained that their circuit supervisor was fond of criticizing them all the time. It is therefore recommended that supervisors should criticize teachers constructively and commend them when need be.

6. Finally, the results of the study revealed that the idea of critical friendship helped the supervisor to listen more to what teachers have to say about their work and exhibited trust in teachers, an act which boosted teachers' morale. It is recommended therefore that the management of basic education in Cape Coast Metropolis use the idea of critical friendship to train their circuit supervisors.

Suggestions for Further Research

I suggest that the time allocated for the intervention of similar studies that will be conducted in future should be extended to find out if there will be improvements in the result. Also, there should be further research to find out if critical friendship can work in other departments in the educational sector. Research can also be carried out to find out about the Ghanaian perception of friendship.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND
ADMINISTRATION

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                                                September 4, 2009
Our Ref. EP/ EP/90/Vol.3/295

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LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this letter, **Ms Begonia Baaba Essiam** is a graduate student of
the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the University of
Cape Coast. She requires some information from your outfit for the purpose of
writing a Term Paper as a requirement of M.Phil degree programme.

We should be grateful if you would kindly allow her to collect the information
from your outfit. Kindly give the necessary assistance that Ms Begonia Baaba
Essiam requires to collect the information.

While anticipating your cooperation, we thank you for any help that you may
be able to give.

Mr. Y. M. Anhwere
Assistant Registrar
For: Director

APPENDIX B

Questionnaire for teachers

This questionnaire is solely for academic purpose and the responses 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 to the questions below.

Instructional supervision practices in the school

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 [√] the frequency of the statement in your school situation.

Statement	very often	not so often	not at all
1. The circuit supervisor offers suggestions on organization and structure of lessons			
2. Headteacher organizes and arrange materials for instruction			

3. Circuit supervisor schedules and plans classroom visitation and observation with teachers.			
4. Circuit supervisor vets teachers' lesson notes.			
5. Circuit supervisor leads formal discussion on strategies to improve instructional results.			
6. Supervisor appreciates instructional problems teachers face and shows concern.			

Relationship between supervisor and teacher

In what ways do the following statements apply to your circuit supervisor?

	Very much	Not so much	Not at all
7. The circuit supervisor is friendly towards teachers.			
8. The circuit supervisor exhibits that he has trust in teachers.			
9. Supervisor shows preparedness to listen to what teachers have to say about their own teaching.			
10. Supervisor motivates and support teachers in the school.			

Effect of the relationship between supervisors and teachers on teaching and learning

	Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
11. Relationship helps improve teachers' lesson preparation.				
12. Supervisors' presence in the school boosts teachers' morale.				
13. Teachers feel they are being judged and are				

aggressive at the sight of supervisors.				
14. Students behave differently in class when the supervisor is present.				
15. Teachers teach effectively under close supervision.				

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULED FOR CIRCUIT SUPERVISOR

1. What is your role in supervision of instruction in your school?

2. What is the purpose of instructional supervision?

3. How do teachers respond to instructional supervision?

4. What challenges do you face in instructional supervision?

5. What do you think can be done to deal with these challenges?

6. How would you describe the relationship between you and your teachers?

7. How would you describe the relationship between you and your headteachers?

8. How do these relationships affect teaching and learning?

9. In what ways do you offer professional support to your teachers?

10. When and how do you criticize your teachers?

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HEADTEACHERS

1. What is your role in instructional supervision?

2. What is the purpose of instructional supervision in basic schools?

3. How do teachers respond to instructional supervision?

4. What challenges do you face in carrying out instructional supervision?

5. What do you think can be done to deal with these challenges?

6. How would you describe the relationship between you and your teachers?

7. How would you describe the relationship between you and your circuit supervisor?

8. How do these relationships affect teaching and learning?

9. In what ways do you offer professional support to your teachers?

10. When and how do you criticize your teachers?

APPENDIX E

OBSERVATION GUIDE

The following issues were observed in the course of the study.

1. The attitude of teachers towards instructional supervision.

2. The instructional supervision practices in the participating schools.

3. Circuit supervisor – teacher relationships.

4. Headteacher – teacher relationships

5. Teacher – pupil relationships