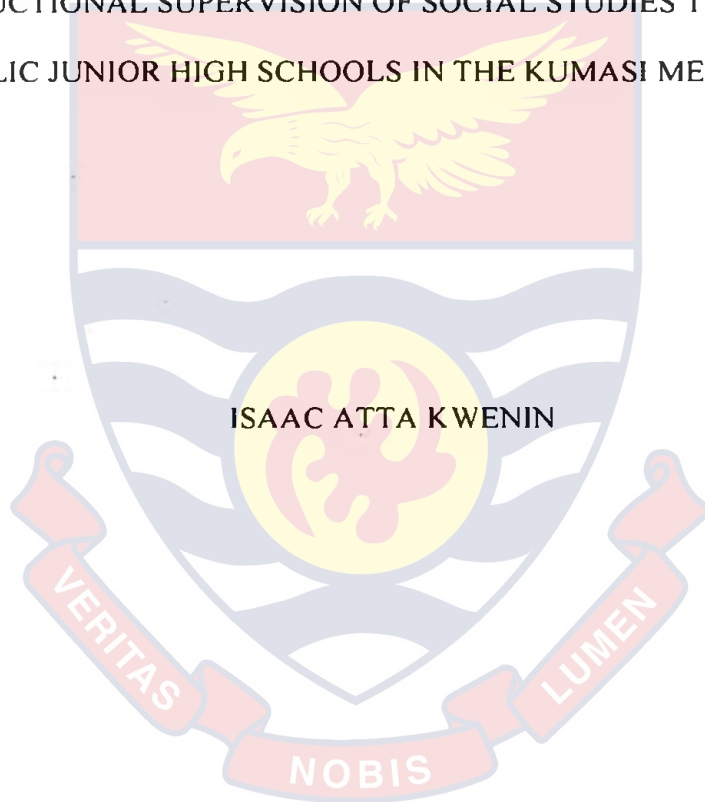UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION OF SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS IN

PUBLIC JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS

ISAAC ATTA KWENIN

2017

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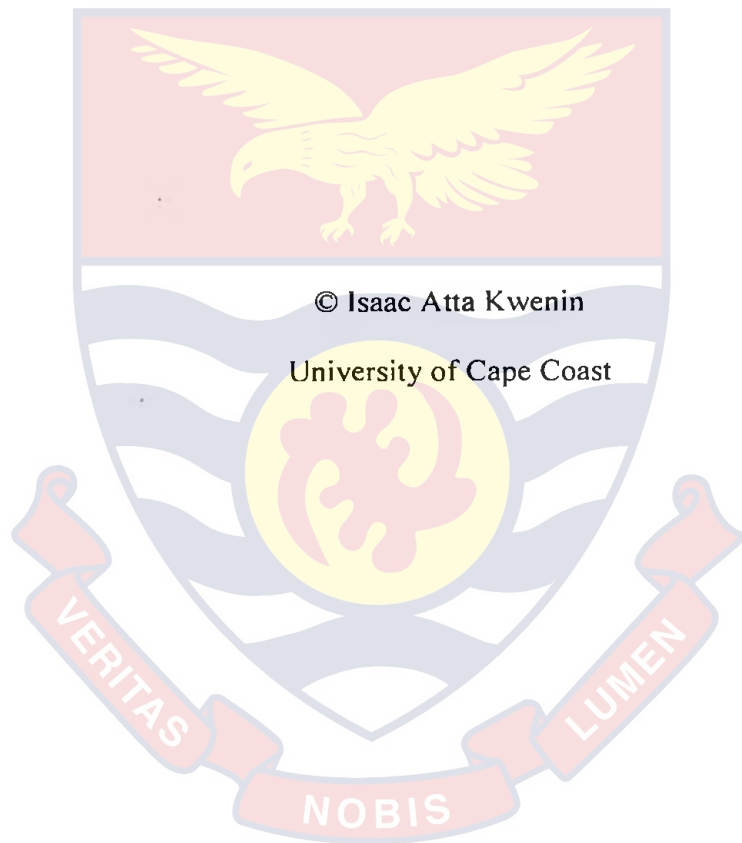
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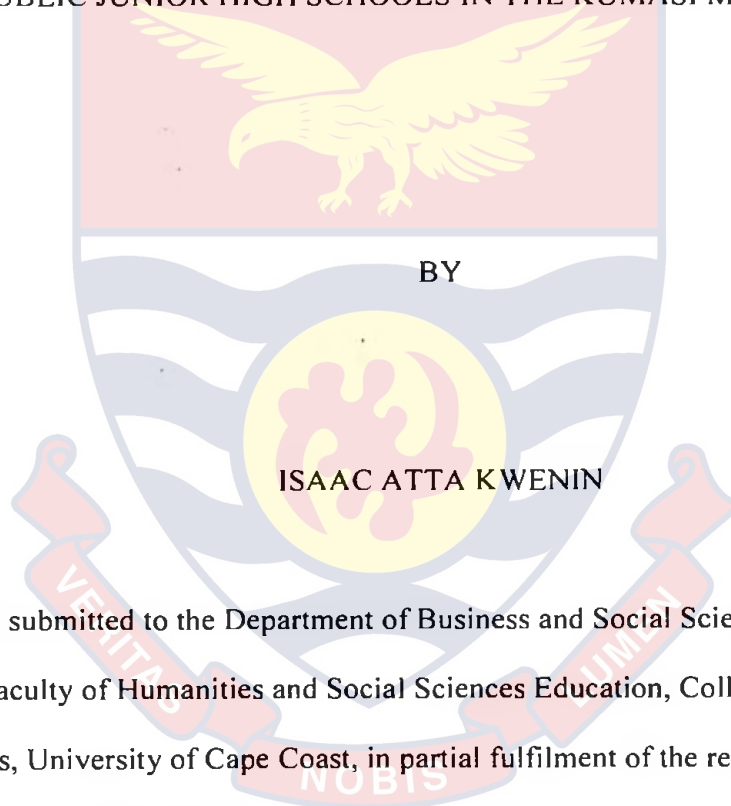PUBLIC JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS

BY

ISAAC ATTA KWENIN

Thesis submitted to the Department of Business and Social Sciences Education of

the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Education, College of Education

Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

award of Doctor of Philosophy (Curriculum and Teaching)

JULY 2017

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that

no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature............................   Date: 24-01-2018

Name: Isaac Atta Kwenin

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were

supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down

by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature............................   Date:24-01-2018

Name: Prof. Kankam Boadu

Co-supervisor's Signature............................   Date.24-01-2018

Name: Prof. Yaw Afari Ankomah

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the supervision of Social Studies teachers in public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis. The mixed methods approach was used with both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. The population consisted of all Junior High School Social Studies teachers (346), 10 headteachers, and 10 circuit supervisors in all the Junior High Schools (JHSs) in the Kumasi Metropolis during the 2014/2015 academic year. All the teachers were included (census) in the study but the headteachers and the circuit supervisors were purposively selected. Questionnaire and a standardized open-ended (semi-structured) interview protocol were used to collect data. Percentages, frequencies, means and standard deviations were calculated and used. Factorial one-way analysis of variance was also employed to test the differences between respondents' socio-demographic characteristics and how they experience instructional. A cross-case analysis procedure was used to analyse the interview data after transcription.

To the respondents, the main practice that constitutes instructional supervision of Social Studies instruction is collaborative, although self-reflection is sometimes practiced. Although, clinical supervision is experienced by teachers, supervisors do not engage teachers in every aspect of it. The socio-demographic characteristics of respondents influence the way teachers experience instructional supervision. It is recommended that circuit supervisors should lay equal emphasis on both collaborative and self-reflective supervisory practices. Circuit supervisors should also engage teachers in all the components of clinical supervision.

KEY WORDS

Assistant Director of Education

Clinical Supervision

District Director of Education

District Education Oversight Committee

Provisional National Defense Council Law
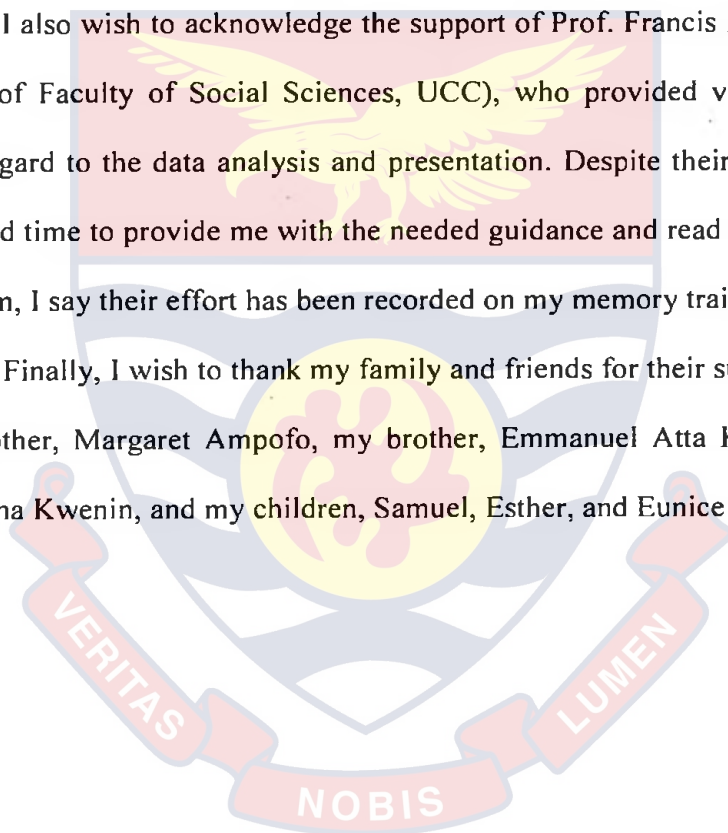
School Management Committees

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Finally, I wish to thank my family and friends for their support, especially, my mother, Margaret Ampofo, my brother, Emmanuel Atta Kwenin, my wife, Angelina Kwenin, and my children, Samuel, Esther, and Eunice Kwenin.

DEDICATION

To my family.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Supervision is critical in the development of any educational programme in both developed and developing countries including Ghana. In education, the role of educators has undergone dramatic shifts in the recent past. Many teachers, especially student-teachers and newly posted teachers may not have mastered or developed sufficient skills for effective teaching; hence, there is a need for instruction in the classroom to be supervised. Instructional supervision is an inspection that provides teachers with the quality to improve instructions for students. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) describe instructional supervision as opportunities provided for teachers in developing their capacities towards contributing to students' academic success, while Hoy and Miskel (1991) consider instructional supervision as an opportunity for competent teachers to explore the ways for professional developments. In the schools setting, instructional supervisors are known to be experts who pass judgments and advise teachers towards professional development. According to Lovell and Wiles (1998), instructional supervision is a behaviour system in school operation with distinct purpose, competences and activities which are employed to directly influence teachers' behaviour in such a way as to facilitate students' learning. Furthermore, Mohanty (2005) defines instructional supervision as all efforts by designated school officials, toward providing leadership to teachers and other education workers in the improvement of instruction. It can be deduced from the

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above definition of instructional supervision that, it involves monitoring teachers for the purpose of helping them to develop professionally and improve instruction.

In a school set up, instructional supervision draws its foundation from the events that take place inside and outside the classroom. The analysis of events in the school and the relationship between the teacher and the head teacher form the basis of the programmes, procedures and strategies designed to improve the teaching and learning process (Robert & Peter, 2000). Eshiwani (2003) writes that the head teacher is responsible for the overall running and control of the school and for the maintenance of the tone and all-round standards. In particular, he or she must check the teaching standards with reference to schemes of work, lesson notes, records of work done and pupils' exercise books. It is through instructional supervision that the head teacher gets a clear framework of activities and responsibilities of each member of staff in the school. This management practice enables headteachers to evaluate the extent to which policies, objectives, activities and events laid down in the short and long term plans are successfully carried out. As an aspect of administration, instructional supervision assists in checking of punctuality, discipline, as well as facilitating change from old ways to modern ways of doing things at the work place (school) (Ayim, 2013). Headteachers, as immediate instructional supervisors in schools, are also responsible for ensuring punctuality, discipline and academic standards in schools. While stressing the importance of quality and standards in education, the Ministry of Education (2008) writes that with increased demand for education, some institutions might

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be tempted to compromise on standards, which would affect the quality of education, hence the need for supervisors to be dispatched to supervise instruction.

Instructional supervision, as part of school administration is not a recent development in schools in Ghana. In 1952, the Government of Ghana, after the enactment of the Accelerated Development Plan, appointed Assistant Education Officers as supervisors whose duties among others included assisting in training on the job, a large number of untrained teachers who had been employed by the government to augment human resource personnel in the education service. Again in 1963, the government appointed Principal Teachers from among the Senior Teachers, to visit Primary and Middle Schools to conduct in-service training for the teachers so that teaching and learning in elementary schools would be enhanced (Antwi, 1992). With the PNDCL 207 which decentralizes government's policies, the work of supervision of instruction in basic schools came under the District Director of Education. It also gave additional responsibility to the District Directors of Education to take instructional supervisory oversight in all the second cycle institutions within a District. In 1990, the post of circuit supervisors was created in all District Education Offices (Cole, 1997). Again, the Ghana Education Act of 1995 (Act 506) established the District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC) to oversee proper functioning of education in the district, working hand-in-hand with School Management Committees (SMCs) and Parents Teacher Associations (PTAs). This law was enacted to ensure good quality of

education thereby increasing standard of education which was continually falling (Ayim, 2013).

Instructional supervision in the modern era centres on the improvement of teaching and learning for the benefits of both teachers and learners, helps in the identification of areas of strength and weaknesses of teachers, and creates a cordial working atmosphere based on good human relations (Nakpodia, 2006). Moreover, it helps teachers in making use of modern teaching aids as a basis for improving teaching strategies (Nakpodia, 2006).

In Junior High Schools in Ghana, two types of instructional supervisions are practiced. These are internal and external supervisions. Internal supervision is conducted by the headteachers within the schools. Headteachers are expected occasionally to observe how their teachers deliver their lessons. They are required to vet their teachers' lesson plans and supply them with teaching and learning materials. Headteachers have a duty to ensure that they organise staff meetings regularly to ensure that matters affecting the school, pupils and staff are discussed thoroughly and dispassionately. This helps to obviate any misunderstanding and keeps the staff united and focused to fight for a common goal (Yakubu, 2013). Moreover, Headteachers check class attendance registers to make sure that they are duly marked and closed. Finally, it is the headteachers' responsibility to see to it that tools and implements, science kits as well as other teaching and learning materials are released for use, cleaned after use and stored well. Generally, internal supervision seeks to monitor, inspect and attempt to improve upon the quality

of academic and non-academic aspects of education delivery. Its tasks may include general appraisal of staff and students, academic and non-academic facilities, logistics, procurements and supplies to schools, among others. It is therefore aimed at improving conditions within the school climate, as well as teaching and learning in the school (Yakubu, 2013).

External supervision, on the other hand, is conducted by external supervisors, mostly, circuit supervisors and embraces those activities in the school which directly involve the implementation, monitoring, evaluation and appraisal of the school curriculum. It involves observation of teaching and learning, assisting teachers in their professional development, both in individual and group context, evaluation of teachers, research and revision of instruction (Yakubu, 2013). It is a type of instructional supervision that is carried out by personnel coming from outside the school such as the District Director of Education, Assistant Director in charge of supervision, circuit supervisors and sometimes other officers from the District, Municipal or Metropolitan Education Directorate. By Ghana Education Service standards, the circuit supervisors should be a graduate by qualification and of the rank of principal superintendent or above (Yakubu, 2013).

The circuit supervisors conduct regular visits to their circuit schools. They are supposed to visit each school at least once and at most three times in a term. The circuit supervisors also give professional guidance, supports and interprets educational policies to teachers. They present reports to the District Director of Education (DDE) through the Assistant Director of Education

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(ADE) in charge of supervision. The Assistant Director of Education in charge of supervision monitors and supervises the activities of the circuit supervisors. He moves occasionally to familiarise himself or herself with the actual situation on the ground and to find out whether the circuit supervisors' reports are genuine. He holds periodic meetings with circuit supervisors to address their professional needs and give them moral support (Ghana Education Service, 2008). While some teachers appear to respond more positively towards internal supervision, others prefer to respond to the instructions and directions of external supervisors.

Depending on the type of instructional supervision one wishes to emphasise, the responsibilities of an instructional supervisor are varied and multi-faceted. An instructional supervisor works on human relations, curriculum decisions, instructional strategies, staff development and orientations, budget concerns, assessment and evaluation. Wiles and Bondi (2000) affirm that, "We see supervision in schools as a general leadership function that coordinates and manages those activities concerned with learning" (p. 3). Hence, instructional supervisors must have vision and willingness to help changes to take place in the schools entrusted under their professional watchful care.

If instructions are therefore effectively supervised and managed, the intended goals of the nation could become a reality. By effectiveness, Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1995) say that it is the act of "choosing the right goals and doing the right things" (p. 45). This definition suggests that for a formal organisation like the school to be considered as effective, it must be able to set up

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appropriate goals and put some machanisms in place so that the intended result can be achieved. Also, in the light of poor academic performance, teachers and headteachers attribute this to the ineffectiveness of instructional supervision. On the other hand, parents and external supervisors shift the blame to the teachers and the headteachers for negligence of duties (Eye & Netzer, 2001). Also, various issues relating to instructional supervision have proved quite controversial. The controversy stems from different conceptions about the nature, how it is experienced by teachers, the practices that constitute instructional supervision, as well as measures to improve instructional supervision. Public opinion and research further question the effectiveness of the supervisory process in Ghanaian public JHSs (Baffour-Awuah, 2011) especially, supervision of the Social Studies instruction.

Statement of the Problem

Although instructional supervision has gone through various transformations and a number of Educational Acts which were enacted to strengthen and improve supervision of instruction in public Junior High Schools (JHSs), there is still a perceived notion that quality of instructional supervisions in the public JHSs leaves much to be desired. There is public perception that seems to suggest that teachers' attitude towards instruction in public JHSs is nothing to write home about and this is often attributed to lack of proper instructional supervision practices (Glanz & Behar-Hornstein, 2000).

In Junior High Schools (JHSs) in the Kumasi Metropolis, supervision of instruction in general and in Social Studies education in particular, has become

even more urgent due to large classes, increase in the number of schools, and teacher absenteeism (Kumasi Metropolitan Education Directorate [KMED], 2014). Also, many teachers, especially, newly posted Social Studies teachers may not have mastered or developed sufficient skills for effective teaching, hence, the need for Social Studies instruction to be supervised.

In recognition of these issues, the Ghana Education Service (GES) which is responsible for providing external supervision of instruction in JHSs in Ghana has arranged visitations to schools by various categories of supervisors to carry out instructional supervision. During instructional supervision, circuit supervisors check the availability and status of educational facilities, monitor, review, and assess how well educational standards are being maintained and implemented by teachers and school administrators, and observe classroom teaching by individual teachers to assess their professional competence for professional guidance (GES, 2008). Additionally, through instructional supervision, in-service training needs of teachers are expected to be identified. The main purpose of such provision for instructional supervision is to enable the GES to satisfy itself that educational standards are being maintained and that the schools are achieving their objectives in accordance with national aims and policies (GES, 2008). In order to supplement the work done by external instructional supervisors, school-based supervision is also encouraged in the JHSs by GES. School-based supervision is done by the head teacher of the institution in which instructional supervision takes place. Mofareh (2011) believes that headteachers are in a good position to assist their colleague teachers with instructional improvements in their schools. The

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head teacher assists particularly beginning teachers who have just received training and those who have no training at all.

The GES has also taken other steps to improve instructional supervision and the quality of teaching and learning in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. Motor bikes and other means of transportation have been provided to circuit supervisors to make them mobile, effective and efficient. Training programmes have also been organised for supervisors to update their knowledge and techniques of supervision. Workshops and seminars are also organised on regular basis (Kumasi Metropolis Directorate of Education, 2011).

Despite these measures, the existing instructional supervisory practices (such as pre-instruction discussion, classroom observation, post-instruction discussion, supervision of teachers' lesson plan, and supervision of the number of exercises done by pupils) in Social Studies in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis seem not to be adequate (The researchers own experience). Analysis of empirical evidence from supervisors' form "A" in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis revealed that instructional supervisors (external supervisors) who supervise instruction particularly in Social Studies do not supervise every aspect of teachers' instruction and for that matter they are unable to give adequate and comprehensive feedback that reflect the true performance of the teachers they supervised. Thus, instructional supervision in the Metropolis is limited only to the classroom observation to the disadvantage of other stages (pre-observation conference and post-observation conference) of instructional supervision. Also, from the empirical evidence, it is not known the actual practices that constitute

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instructional supervision in various public Junior High Schools in the Metropolis. This could affect how teachers experience instructional supervision.

An informal discussion I had with some Social Studies teachers across different public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis (between October and December 2014) confirmed the empirical evidence that a vital step (the pre-observation conference) is often ignored in the instructional supervision of Social Studies teachers by instructional supervisors. With the large number of teachers and schools to cover at every school, circuit supervisors in the Metropolis hardly find time to hold pre-observation and post-conference analysis. During the pre-observation conferences, the instructional supervisor discusses with the teacher the preparations he (the teacher) has made towards the teaching, discusses anticipated challenges during teaching, prepares the teacher physically, mentally, and psychologically while at the post-conference analysis, the supervisor discusses the outcome of the instructional supervision with the teacher and makes suggestions for improvement of instruction. The informal discussion further revealed that the tight schedules of instructional supervisors often cause them to hop from one class to another, arriving in each class while the lesson is in progress, and without prior notice to teachers. As a result, instructional supervisors make sudden, unannounced appearance to supervise teachers in the various schools. In effect, only a portion of a teacher's professional duties (portions of lesson delivery) are supervised during instructional supervision. The informal discussion finally revealed that for many Social Studies teachers, instructional supervision is a meaningless exercise that has little value other than

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completion of the required evaluation form for decision of their promotion and transfer. The teachers' arguments were that they must be taught, assessed and supervised by teachers, assessors and instructional supervisors who have acquired adequate knowledge and training in instructional supervision. To some teachers, the instructional supervision process is a means of controlling or instructing staff, instead of a means of developing staff. There is therefore the need to conduct this study and suggest possible measures to address the above problems.

Furthermore, several researches have been conducted concerning instructional supervision in Ghana, no research has been conducted in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis, particularly on practices that constitute instructional supervision, the effects of the practices on how teachers experience instructional supervision, as well as the differences in socio-demographic characteristics of Social Studies teachers (such as gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, rank, and level of training) in relation to how teachers experience supervision of Social Studies instruction are also not known. It is based on these grounds that it has become necessary to conduct an in-depth study to fill these gaps.

Purpose of the Study

The study was purposed to explore: the practices that constitute supervision of instruction in Social Studies, how Social Studies teachers experience instructional supervision. It also identified challenges that confront supervision of Social Studies teachers' instruction in Social Studies. It was also purposed to make suggestions to improve instructional supervision in Social Studies. Finally,

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the study was purposed to find out if the socio-demographic characteristics of Social Studies teachers (gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank) have any effect on how they experience instructional supervision in Social Studies.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What practices do Social Studies teachers perceive to constitute instructional supervision in Social Studies in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?

2. How do Social Studies teachers experience instructional supervision in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?

3. What challenges confront the supervision of Social Studies teachers' instruction in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?

4. What measures could be put in place to improve instructional supervision in Social Studies in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?

5. What differences exist in Social Studies teachers' experience of instructional supervision in Social Studies based on their socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank)?

Significance of the Study

The findings of the study would provide information on the current practices and experiences that constitute instructional supervision in Social Studies in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis. Furthermore, an analysis of practices

of instructional supervision could generate information regarding needed changes for improvement. This could be useful to circuit supervisors and headteachers in enabling them assist teachers to better their teaching. The overall outcome would be the improvement of the standards of Social Studies education, the general improvement of the performance of pupils in the final examinations, and the increased number of pupils seeking further education and training or entering the job market. The GES may also refer to the outcome of this study as an educational rationale for developing and adopting guidelines, standards, and regulations concerning effective instructional supervision in JHSs. The challenges of instructional supervision in Social Studies may provide clues to measures that need to be taken to make supervision of Social Studies instruction in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis effective. Finally, it will fill the gaps in literature with regard to the influence of socio-demographic characteristics of teachers on the way they experience instructional supervision in Social Studies.

Delimitation of the Study

Although there are other factors that contribute to effective teaching, this study only considered supervision of Social Studies instruction as a variable that influences effective teaching. The study was done in public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis. It did not cover private JHSs because they are administered differently depending on proprietors' inclination hence applying different supervision practices which are mostly internal and may not be uniform across the schools. Data were collected from Social Studies teachers in public JHSs in the Metropolis because teachers directly experience instructional supervision.

Limitations of the Study

There were considerable variability in the practices and types of instructional supervision that Social Studies teachers, headteachers, and circuit supervisors practice in different public JHSs in the Metropolis since different supervisory approaches exist to use (Field Survey, 2015). As a weakness to the use of cross-sectional design, it was difficult for the respondents to answer questions thoroughly across the various public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis. The nature of the study will not make is possible to generalize the results.

Organisation of the Study

The study was organised in five chapters. Chapter One covered the introduction. Under this, background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, significance, delimitation and limitations of the study were considered. Conceptual, theoretical and empirical literature relevant to the study was reviewed in Chapter Two. The research methods employed for the study was described in Chapter Three. It dealt with the research design, description of the population, description of the instruments used, data collection procedures, and data analysis. The results and discussion were presented in Chapter Four while the summary, conclusions, recommendations as well as suggestions for further research were presented Chapter Five.

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CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

This chapter is concerned with the review of literature related to the topic – instructional supervision of Social Studies teachers in Junior High Schools – as documented by writers, theorists, authorities and researchers. For the purpose of the review, three categories of literature were dealt with: conceptualisation of supervision, and models of supervision. Specifically, the areas for reviewing related literature included: the definition of the concept of supervision, how instructional supervision is experienced by Social Studies teachers, measures to improve instructional supervision, challenges that confront supervision of instruction, models of instructional supervision, conceptual framework, nature of supervision of instruction at the Junior High School level, the historical development of Social Studies, general background of Social Studies education, goals and purposes of Social Studies, the structure of Social Studies education in Junior High Schools in Ghana, relevance of the review of related literature to my study, and summary of review of related literature.

The Concept of Instructional Supervision

Wanzare and da Costa (2000) define supervision of instruction in the light of two broad categories: custodial and humanistic supervision. Wanzare and da Costa (2000) note that the "custodial" definition of supervision can mean general overseeing and controlling, managing, administering, evaluating, or any activity in which the principal is involved in the process of running the school, whereas

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the "humanistic" definition suggests that supervision of instruction is multifaceted, interpersonal process that deals with teaching behaviour, curriculum, learning environments, grouping of students, teacher utilisation and professional development. Supervision of instruction has also been defined as a process which utilises a wide array of strategies, methodologies, and approaches aimed at improving instruction and promoting educational leadership as well as change (Glanz & Behar-Horenstein, 2000). Glanz and Behar-Horenstein note that the process of supervision and evaluation of instruction at the school level depends primarily on whether the principal functions as an instructional leader. On their part, Beach and Reinhartz (2000) see instructional supervision as a process that focuses on instruction and provides teachers with information about their teaching so as to develop instructional skills to improve performance.

Oghuvbu (2001) defines supervision of instruction as the process that involves checking the positive implementation of curriculum and assisting those implementing it. He conceives inspection and supervision differently, but complementary actions aimed at achieving organisational goals. To him, inspection deals with fact finding, and supervision is the assistance aspect concerned with the establishment of a positive superior and subordinate relationship, with special emphasis on specialisation directed towards utilisation of available human and material resources in achieving organisational goals.

Bays (2001) argues that defining supervision has been a recurrent and controversial issue in the field of education. He observes that current thoughts in the definition of supervision of instruction do not represent full consensus, but has

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listed some common themes across different definitions. These include supporting teaching and learning; responding to changing external realities; providing assistance and feedback to teachers; recognising teaching as the primary vehicle for facilitating school learning; and promoting new, improved and innovative practices.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) posit that school supervision which began as inspection has been replaced by that of supervision. Oliva and Pawlas (2004) indicate that some school supervisors or inspectors, as they are called in other countries, continue to fulfill their tasks with an authoritarian approach. They note, however that, superintendents (supervisors) have changed their focus from looking for deficiencies that would merit dismissal of teachers to helping teachers overcome their difficulties. Instructional supervision is a service provided to teachers, both individually and in groups, for the purpose of improving instruction, with the student as the ultimate beneficiary (Olivia & Pawlas, 2004). Oliva and Pawlas note that it is a means of offering to teachers specialised help in improving instruction. They argue that instructional supervisors should remember that teachers want specific help and suggestions, and they want supervisors to address specific points that can help them to improve. Similarly, supervision of instruction is seen as a set of activities designed to improve the teaching and learning process. Figueroa (2004) contends that the purpose of supervision of instruction is not to judge the competences of teachers, nor is it to control them but rather to work co-operatively with them. He believes that evaluation, rating, assessment, and appraisal are all used to describe what supervisors do, yet none of

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them accurately reflects the process of supervision of instruction. To him, such terms are a source of suspicion, fear and misunderstanding among teachers. Baffour-Awuah (2011) defines instructional supervision as that phase of school administration which deals primarily with the achievement of the appropriate selected instructional expectations of educational process. He further indicates that supervision is any leadership function that is primarily concerned with the improvement of instruction. Baffour-Awuah (2011) argues further that modern supervision of instruction is democratic in nature. Modern supervision of instruction is considered as any service for teachers that eventually result in improving instruction, learning, and the curriculum. It consists of positive, dynamic, democratic actions designed to improve instruction through the continued growth of all concerned individuals – the child, the teacher, the instructional supervisor, the administrator, and the parent or other lay person.

Historically, instructional supervision was viewed as an instrument for controlling teachers. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2005) refer to supervision of instruction as to watch over, direct, oversee, and superintend. They believe that because the historic role of instructional supervision has been inspection and control, it is not surprising that most teachers do not equate instructional supervision with collegiality. Glickman et al. (2005) see supervision as the school function that improves instruction through direct assistance to teachers, group development, professional development, curriculum development and action research. They further posit that the long-term goal of developmental instructional supervision is teacher development towards a point at which

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teachers, facilitated by instructional supervisors, can assume full responsibility for instructional development. A more humanistic definition suggested that supervision of instruction is a multifaceted, interpersonal process that deals with teaching behaviour, curriculum, learning environments, grouping of students, teacher utilisation, and professional development (Ogbo, 2005). Burke and Krey (2005) explain instructional supervision as instructional leadership that relates perspectives to behaviour, focuses on processes, contributes to and supports organisational actions, coordinates interactions, provides for improvements and maintenance of instructional programme, and assesses goal achievements. Glanz, Shulman, and Sullivan (2007) note that instructional supervision has its roots in the industrial literature of bureaucracy, and the main purpose was to increase production. To them, the industrial notion of supervision was overseeing, directing and controlling workers, and was, therefore, managements' tool to manipulate subordinates.

Instructional supervision is also viewed by other researchers as a combination of administrative procedures and supervision of instruction. The International Institute for Educational Planning [IIEP] (2007) for example, observes that instructional supervisory practices can be classified under two distinct, but complementary, tasks: to control and evaluate, on one hand, and to advise and support teachers and headteachers on the other hand. IIEP explains that although the ultimate objective of in-school supervision of instruction is to improve the teaching and learning processes in the classroom, in practice, it must cover the whole range of activities taking place in the school: from the most

administrative ones to purely pedagogical ones. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) describe instructional supervision as opportunities provided to teachers in developing their capacities towards contributing for students' academic success. In view to provide real meaning to instructional supervision, Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) advocate for teachers' involvement in instructional supervision. It is therefore an opportunity for competent teachers to explore the ways for professional developments. On his part, Onuorah (2007) defines instructional supervision as a process of regular meetings between the instructional supervisor and the teacher with support for the benefit of the teacher. It allows the demonstration of strengths and revealing of difficulties so that they could be solved. It should be confidential and designed to help the teacher to progress and promote feedback on his or her performance in order to enhance his or her educational, personal and professional development. That is, it is a formative (developmental), continuous process and not summative (one time) assessment. Fostering on the achievement of organisational goals, Zepeda (2007) defines instructional supervision as behaviour officially designated by the organisation that directly affects teacher's behaviour in such a way as to facilitate pupils' learning and achieve the goals of the organisation.

Supervision of instruction is also considered as a consciously planned programme for the improvement and consolidation of instruction. Brennen (2008) posits that supervision focuses upon the improvement of instruction, and is concerned with the continuous redefinition of goals, the wider realisation of human dynamic for learning and for co-operative efforts and the nurturing of a

creative approach to problems to teaching and learning. Brennen emphasises that instructional supervision does not simply refer to that specific occasion when the whole school is examined and evaluated as a place of learning, but it also means that constant and continuous process of guidance based on frequent visits which focus attention on one or more aspects of the school and its organisation. He notes further that achieving the purpose of instructional supervision depends on the skills and efficiency of the supervisor in working with teachers.

Instructional supervision, according to Beycioglu and Donmez (2009), is defined as "an administrative inspection that lays emphasis on administrative monitoring, enforcement and control" (p. 71). According to Beycioglu and Donmez, instructional supervision, as a field of educational practice has passed through many changes. Instructional supervision was initially described as inspection, which has the connotation of direct control of teachers by school inspectors. The term supervision has gradually taken over inspection, but both terms are sometimes used together. The contemporary concepts of instructional supervision suggest that supervision is moving gradually from the negative notion of watching over, directing, and checking teachers, to the notion of supportive, democratic and flexible activity. Such definitions encompass curriculum planning and development, staff development, group discussion on instructional programme and action research.

The definitions of supervision of instruction from the above definitions suggest that those who are being assisted (teachers) are also directly involved in the supervisory process. These definitions also suggest that instructional

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supervision requires commitment, trust, and respect on the part of both instructional supervisors and supervisees, and caring and support for supervisees.

How Instructional Supervision is Experienced by Teachers

According to Rous (2004), instructional supervision is experienced through the evaluation of lesson plans of teachers and conducting the classroom supervision by supervisors. This means that in Social Studies, aside supervising the daily lesson plan prepared by the Social Studies teacher, instructional supervisors also supervise teachers' actual classroom teaching. In a similar view, Blasé and Blasé (2004) write that supervisors use probing questions during preobservation conferences, classroom observations, and post-observation conferences to guide and assist teachers. In the case of Social Studies instruction, the supervisor guides and directs Social Studies teachers to plan their lessons, use appropriate teaching techniques, and take decisions to improve instruction. Blasé and Blasé (2004) continue that supervisors visit classrooms and provide feedback to teachers. Feedback given to Social Studies teachers after instructional supervision help them reflect on what actually took place in the teaching and learning process in Social Studies education. They however believe that feedback should not be a formality, but should serve as a guide for instructional improvement when it is given genuinely. Similarly, feedback (whether formal or informal, written or oral) should focus on observations rather than perspectives. Blasé and Blasé (2004) theorise that feedback reflectively informs teacher behaviour, and this results in teachers implementing new ideas, trying out a

variety of instructional practices, responding to student diversity, and planning more carefully and achieving better focus.

Another way in which teachers experience instructional supervision in Social Studies is through checking pupils' exercise books and lesson notes by instructional supervisors to find out if they reflect the areas covered in class by teachers. It is the head teacher's role to regularly inspect pupils' exercise books and teachers' lesson notes to ensure that the Social Studies syllabus is covered appropriately and assignments are marked.

Blasé and Blasé (1999) conducted a study of public school teachers' perceptions about instructional leadership in the US. The study revealed that instruction supervisors who participated in the study often used questioning to solicit teachers' actions about instructional matters. The participants in that study remarked that such questions served as a guide to make them reflect on their actions, know what to do next, and evaluate what they did. Another way in which instructional supervision was experienced according to the outcome of Blasé and Blasé's (1999) was that instructional supervisors demonstrated teaching techniques during classroom visits. In Blasé and Blasé's study, participants did not consider the supervisors' actions as intrusive, because the latter had already cultivated respectful and trusting relationship with teachers. Blasé and Blase's (1999) further reported that effective principals provided teachers with positive feedback about observed lessons. They indicated that such feedback was specific, expressed caring, interest and support in a non-judgmental way, and encouraged them to think and re-evaluate their strategies. However, these findings are

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inconsistent with Bays' (2001) findings in rural districts in the state of Virginia. She found that instructional support and specific feedback for teacher participants in the area of special education appeared to be limited.

Ayse (2002) also studied how teachers in Turkish private schools experience instructional supervision and found that the principals determined when visits would be conducted without consulting with teachers. In a similar study of selected public primary school teachers in the US, Rous (2004) found that most instructional supervisors make frequent visits whereas others reported that their supervisors were not seen in the classrooms enough. She observed further that teachers were energised when supervisors "dropped by" the classrooms and interacted with the students. This was seen as a demonstration of supervisors' concern for teachers, students and programme. Blasé and Blasé (2004) also conducted a study on experiences of instructional supervision and discovered that instructional supervisors' frequent visit to classrooms make their presence felt in the school. Such visits were usually not planned, but to put teachers on the alert to ensure that they (teachers) make good use of instructional time, and chip in support to teachers when necessary. A similar study was conducted by Oduro (2008) on instructional supervision in primary schools and has shown that frequent visits to classrooms are always experienced by teachers and that this improves teachers' time-on-task.

Pansiri (2008) also conducted a study on instructional supervision in schools in Botswana. In the study, 75 percent of his teacher participants indicated that instructional supervisors planned class visits with them. The teachers

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accepted the instructional supervisors as partners for instructional improvement, rather than viewed their visits as intrusion into their private instructional behaviour. Sixty-five percent participants in Pansiri's (2008) study indicated that their instructional supervisors visited classrooms with the intention of supervising instruction but were unable to provide professional support to the teachers. However, other participants reported that their instructional supervisors observed classes and gave feedback based solely on what was occurring in the classroom. Pansiri did not show the proportion in each case. The group of participants who received feedback reported that their supervisors carried out classroom supervision.

Musungu and Nasongo (2008) carried out a study in Vihiga District in Western Kenya to investigate the instructional role of the head teacher in the academic achievement of students. They found out that 8% of the principals in high performing schools checked lesson books, schemes of work and registers of class and school attendance. Lesson observation was one major way teachers experienced instructional supervision. Lesson observation has been seen as a major tool supervisors use to assess the content-knowledge of teachers and their competency in instructional strategies and practices, so as to provide the necessary assistance to improve instruction. Musungu and Nasongo (2008) recommended that in such visits, it is imperative for the supervisor to focus on what was agreed upon to be observed during a pre-observation conference.

In other study, all five participants in a 3-year longitudinal study carried out by Holland (2004) on large urban school district agreed that teachers

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experience instruction supervision through thought-provoking questions that were asked by supervisors. The participants concluded that such thought-provoking questions guide teachers and improved their instructional practice. The participants indicated that such questions are designed to reassure teachers that instructional supervisors are simply seeking information, but do not put teachers on the defensive by telling them what they should do or what they are not doing. Holland (2004) did not, however, mention the place (context) in which the study took place.

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

The teachers in Blasé and Blase's (2004) study overwhelmingly reported that successful principals (supervisors) offered suggestions to improve teaching and learning, vary their instructional methods, and help solve problems. The participants found principals' suggestions fruitful and strongly enhanced reflection and informed instructional behaviour. Rous's (2004) findings were consistent with the outcome of Blasé and Blase's (2004) study. Public primary school teachers in her (Rous, 2004) US study reported that their principals

commonly offered suggestions. The teachers acknowledged that when their supervisors offered helpful suggestions on instructional practices, it increased their ability to solve classroom problems. Rous observed that teachers in her study were willing to try suggestions which were offered sincerely and positively. The use of the word "helpful" in the report suggests that not all suggestions may be useful to the teachers. Similarly, Rous (2004) reported that in the US public schools, feedback offered by instructional supervisors was a formal behaviour, and was objective and based solely on class observation. Teachers in this study saw feedback to be constructive, and very helpful to them in their instructional practices.

Pansiri (2008) also reported that 70 percent of public primary school teachers in Botswana who participated in his study indicated their instructional supervisors provided them with constructive feedback about classroom observation. On the flip side, 71 percent of the teachers in Botswana who participated in Pansiri's (2008) study indicated that their supervisors neither gave demonstration lessons nor coached them on how to handle certain topics or lessons. Thobega and Miller (2008) measured the extent to which supervision experienced by agriculture teachers in Iowa was related to job satisfaction and intention to remain in the teaching profession. The study revealed that directive informational supervision was the type of supervision most frequently used with agriculture teachers in Iowa. It further indicated that the directive informational approach is likely to be the easiest for supervisors, because it involves them alone in formulating the plan. It may also appeal to many teachers because their

thinking and participation are limited. All they have to do is listen to the supervisor's suggestions.

Also, Yakubu (2013) conducted a study on the perception of teachers on instructional supervision in the Wa East District of the Upper West Region of Ghana. The study used a total population of 440 instructional supervisors including teachers and headteachers. The study concluded that external instructional supervision was more frequent than the internal instructional supervision. However, internal instructional supervision was more emphasised in rural and deprived areas within the district than external instructional supervision.

Challenges Confronting Supervision of Instruction

Inyega (1997), observes that the resources and facilities that a school would need for the achievement of a school's mission are qualified teaching staff, support staff, physical facilities, textbooks, furniture stores and enough playgrounds. According to the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology in Ghana (2000), inspection visits to school are poorly planned and lack clear objectives, the inspectorate seems to be checking out schools rather than trying to identify and improve quality and standards, the focus of inspection is on building and administrative systems rather than teaching and learning itself. Plans to visit the schools are over ambitious and are seldom carried out and the teacher has no trust with the inspectors since most of them are fault finders. The head teacher complains of poor performance, deteriorating quality of teaching, and pupils' indiscipline. The teachers, on the other hand, complain of their headteachers'

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insensitivity to work, students' criticism of their work, belittling them, and breakdown of communication between them and the principal.

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2000) has pointed out these other factors that militate against effective instructional supervision:

1. There are no laid down guidelines or policy to determine who a "good teacher" is and so supervisors apply their own personal yardstick.

2. Supervision is not regularly conducted as supervisor can only observe classroom teaching for only a few periods in the school year, which is an unsatisfactory proportion.

3. The supervisors also have dual responsibilities of being teachers and supervisors. Their workload, therefore, will not permit them to have adequate time for supervision.

4. Supervisors do not carry out pre- and post-observation conferences with the teachers, thus, discussions and feedback mechanism may not be effective.

5. Feedback could result in tension and stress as teachers may interpret appraisals as indictment of their competences.

6. Some supervisors force students to organise lessons outside the schools' timetable. This disorganises the schools' timetable and creates problems for other teachers.

7. In some respects, the supervisors do not supervise the lesson at all and yet they write reports on the teachers,

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8. Finally, some supervisors enter the classroom late and leave early before the end of the lesson. As a result, not all aspects of the lesson is supervised (p. 79).

According to Zepeda (2007), the number of professionally trained supervisors in our schools is grossly inadequate to meet the needs of an effective and efficient programme of supervision. The population of students in the school has so exceeded the stipulated teacher/pupils ratio that all that most principals do in terms of instruction is to ensure that there are enough teachers to man the classes. Zepeda continued that external supervisors and inspectors are usually Ministry of Education or Education Board officers specially assigned to access the level of compliance of school instructional activities with approved government standards. Unfortunately, this category of staff is usually in short supply due to the large number of government schools and teachers. In the words of Nolan and Hoover (2004), the problem of insufficient educational facilities, equipment and supplies lead to over use of some of the facilities that are available for instructional supervision. Most schools lack enough classrooms which lead to overcrowding of students during learning. Apart from such cases of nothing to supervise, there are other problems such as inadequate facilities and materials for the supervisors to use. External supervisors (inspectors) for example, often do not have transport facilities and writing materials to carry out their inspectoral duties (Sullivan & Glanz, 2004).

According to Hazi (2004), lack of adequate training and orientation in instructional supervision poses greater challenge to instructional supervisors. He

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explained further that many newly appointed supervisors are not given the necessary training and orientation to equip them with the requisite skills they need to carry out their instructional supervisory functions. They manage through for years without understanding what instructional supervision entails and how to do it. According to Ogunu (2005), the consequence of this shortage of supervisory personnel is that most of the time, a lot of unprofessional practices are carried out in our schools to the detriment of the children. According to Ogunu (2005), instructional supervisors, particularly, the school principal, are so weighed down by routine administrative burden that they hardly find time to visit the classrooms and observe how the teachers are teaching. According to Ogunu, when principals give more time to correspondence with the Ministry of Education and its parastatals, community affairs, parents and a host of other visitors and in the process neglect their primary duty of overseeing instruction in the schools.

Ogunu (2005), explains further that some unscrupulous teachers easily exploit the school head's neglect of supervision to achieve their selfish ambitions. Olatoye (2006), on his part, claims that most districts lack funds which often results in the districts' inability to organise in-house orientation and in-service programmes for their staff or travel out to other schools and resources centres to gain access to new developments in curriculum and instruction that could benefit their supervisory roles. Ajayi and Ayodele (2006), point out that some instructional supervisors at times are dissatisfied with their job because of motivating factors that are minimal. Effective instructional supervision would be difficult to carry out if funds that are supposed to be available are not there.

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School administrators as well as instructional supervisors would require certain resources to put things in order before supervision. However, non-availability of such resources would affect the supervision exercise.

On their part, Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2007), point out inadequate basic instructional materials as a key challenge to instructional supervision. According to the outcome of the study of Glickman et al., there can be no effective supervision of instruction without instructional materials. They further claimed that most schools lack even the basic materials and equipment for teaching, such as textbooks, chalkboard and decent classroom for students. Most programmess of instruction and student service require some physical facilities including school buildings and grounds, equipment needed in the classroom are essential to instruction. There is acute shortage of these physical facilities and equipment in many primary schools for effective instructional facilities.

Several other obstacles have impacted negatively on the effectiveness of instructional supervision. Olorunfemi (2008), has identified untrained personnel, under staffing, lack of commitment and positive approach, irregular inspections and inadequate follow ups of inspectoral visit and services as major obstacles that affect effective instructional supervision.

One their part, Eya and Leonard (2012), identify lack of pre-professional training for supervisors as one of the major challenges facing instructional supervision in basic schools. Eya and Leonard (2012) revealed that some instructional supervisors lack knowledge and competence to carry out the

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exercise. Some instructional supervisors were appointed based on their level of higher educational achievement and not as result of the skills they possessed.

Measures to Improve Instructional Supervision

The primary objective of the instructional supervision process in Social Studies in Junior High Schools is to offer the teachers direct assistance to improve their performance toward the goal of increasing students' learning. To achieve the goals of instructional supervision in schools, efforts must be geared toward overcoming most of the challenges facing instructional supervision.

Major changes in school leadership may lead to professional setting needed to improve teaching and learning for an information age. Leadership strategies include staff development, strategic planning and school improvements. This can be achieved through monitoring with departments, cooperative teaching, peer observation and coaching. Tanner (1994) argues that school improvements lead to the heads' and teachers' willingness to work as a team, solve problems together and use the best available knowledge to fulfill the school goal.

In a study of supervisory behaviour and teacher satisfaction, Glatthorn (1997) found that the improvement of the teacher and learning process was dependent upon teacher attitudes towards supervision. According to Glatthorn (1997), unless teachers view supervision as a process of promoting professional growth and students' learning, the supervisory exercise would not have the desired effect. Glatthorn's study came up with several findings about teachers' preferences regarding supervisory activities. Many teachers indicated that they preferred to be supervised by people with more than fifteen years of

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teaching experience. Most teachers also preferred immediate discussions with their supervisors about the lessons observed. They also expected the supervisor to be caring, understanding and helpful. The relationship between the teacher and the supervisor was expected to be collegial rather than authoritarian. Teachers usually associated instructional supervision with the rating of teachers.

According to the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (2000), it is important for the head teacher to supervise curriculum programmes and give effective advice on programmes that will improve teaching and learning in schools. This will enable the head teacher to identify specific curriculum needs and prepare a supervisory plan that would promote teacher-student achievement. The head teacher is responsible for ensuring syllabus coverage, ensuring that teaching is appropriate for the needs of both girls and boys, establishing and maintaining the quality of teaching and learning.

Effective school management needs effective supervision. Conditions of workers which encourage reflection, professional scrutiny of feelings and possibility of learning on the job/acceptance of professional accountability and strong purposeful believe which encourages commitment to students' learning and continuing improvements also need effective supervision. Instructional supervisors should therefore diagnose their own strengths and weaknesses, identify available and accessible human and material resource, determining professional activities to pursue and determine the amount of time and speed in

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learning. Another way of improving instructional supervision is engendering a climate which displays a readiness for change (Okumbe, 2001).

Okumbe (2001) observes further that the head teacher does these by establishing an enabling environment for the teaching and learning process to take place through encouraging healthy interpersonal relationships within the school. By interacting with pupils and teachers, the head teacher creates a happy working atmosphere in the school. Also, providing support materials for curriculum and instructional activities. The head teacher must provide teachers with instructional materials in time and the provision of opportunities to learn off the job by attending seminars and in-service courses. The head teacher has to be service to the teachers by giving the resources and promoting the academic and professional status of the teachers. MacNally and Isbro (2001) observe that in Zimbabwean schools at times, the conference never takes place. If the instructional supervisor is the head of the school, he/she may not have time to discuss with the teacher.

Other studies have been conducted and have suggested measures that could be put in place to improve instructional supervision. For instance, Kutsyuruba (2003) examined beginning teachers' perceptions of actual and ideal approaches to supervision and their perceived connection to professional development in selected Canadian and Ukrainian high schools. The responses of the participants in his study recommended that in order to improve instructional supervision, supervision should be frequently conducted in order to receive greater feedback about classroom performance. The participants also recommended that instructional supervision should be done by individuals who

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were familiar with teachers and possessed certain experience and knowledge in teachers' subject areas. Respondents wanted instructional supervision to be collaborative in nature, providing teachers with support, advice, and help. They identified the need to trust their supervisors and be trusted in response.

Kutsyuruba (2003) further recommended in his study that teachers wanted more time to engage in reflective and collaborative approaches to instructional supervision and also indicated the need for experienced teachers and administrators to address their individual needs and provide them with necessary resources. Respondents also wanted instructional supervision to be connected to professional development as close as possible and expressed the desire to grow professionally and improve their instruction in order to provide quality education for students. Finally, Kutsyuruba's (2003) study suggested that sufficient time should be given to planning for the supervisory process. The pre-conference should be considered as a necessary stage in any supervisory practice. For supervision to be successful, beginning teachers need to be actively involved in this process. Informal constructive feedback in the form of discussion should follow the instructional supervisory observation.

Also, Beaton (2005) suggests disciplinary action to be meted out against unprofessional or unethical conduct of some instructional supervisors. In order to improve the skills of school supervisors, appropriate sanctions should be leveled against any erring or deviant instructional supervisor who tends to undermine the expected standard of instructional supervision. A situation whereby mediocrity is exalted and standard sacrificed, while supervisors who excel in their assignment

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should be rewarded accordingly, either in kind or cash while sanctioning unacceptable performance of supervisors could serve as a deterrent to others.

In a similar view, Ndebele (2006) points out that capacity building among major stakeholders should be intensified. In order to ensure adequate and effective supervision of instruction in schools, the government needs to embark on capacity building of supervisors, administrators as well as teachers to enable them perform their duties effectively. This can be done through regular training, induction programmes, seminars and workshops to equip them with necessary skills and keep them abreast of the current trends in the school system (Ndebele, 2006). They can equally be given opportunities to participate in international conferences in order to acquaint themselves with what operates in the school system outside the shores of their home country. Kathleen (2006) supports the idea and urges self-learning by teachers based on assumptions that: People are their own instruments for growth, people learn to do what they do, readiness for growth is built by focusing on people's weaknesses and people are more effective helpers when they feel good about themselves.

Mlilo (2007) states that qualified instructional supervisors should be selected. According to him, one of the ways of ensuring effective supervision of instruction is to select or appoint personnel who have technical skills about education especially at the secondary school level. Government should not sacrifice the merit and competence on the altar of political affiliation. Qualified personnel in the field of education with sufficient knowledge, skills and experience in secondary school education should be appointed as supervisors in

order to exhibit all sense professionalism in carrying out their functions in the school system.

One major strategy for improving instructional supervision, according to Doll (2008), is training and retraining of instructional supervisors. The training of new instructional supervisors and the retraining of old ones should be taken seriously. Special training centers where experienced and practicing supervisors are available should be established for this purpose. This is important because the ideas of using old or obsolete techniques or method negate the spirit of the supervision of primary education. Instructional supervisors could be sponsored to seminars and workshops or conference to update their knowledge and skills on modern and acceptable techniques of supervision. Doll (2008) further indicates that there should be improved selection criteria for instructional supervisors. Instructional supervision is a technical task that requires meticulous, firm and objective assessment. Therefore, those saddled with this responsibility should be carefully selected from among the available education personnel in the schools or state ministries of education. In addition, government at all levels must strive to make adequate fund available to the education sector in order to procure the necessary materials that will aid effective supervision of instruction in schools. This can be done by way of increasing the grant usually allocated to schools on termly basis (Anderson, 2008).

According to Reepen and Barr (2010), it is important to create conditions that will make the teacher comfortable during the instructional supervision process. For example, where the instructional supervisor and the supervisee have

cordial relations, there are high chances of the teacher feeling comfortable during the supervision process. It is also argued that where teachers are aware of the roles of supervision for their professional development, they are likely to view the classroom observations positively; but where the teachers' views on instructional supervision are negative, it is most likely that teachers may view observations as the perfect platforms for the supervisor to attack them (Reepen & Barr, 2010). After the classroom visit and observation, the supervisory conference is the most direct procedure to assist the teacher (Reepen & Barr, 2010). The reason for having such a conference is that the teacher could be anxious to know the outcome and how the supervisor felt about what have been observed. Teachers frequently worry about this conference and some may be fearful that the instructional supervisor was not pleased. On the other hand, some teachers who may be confident that the lesson was good will be eager for words of praise. Reepen and Barr (2010) suggest that most teachers prefer a few words of a lesson-observed immediately after that particular lesson. This underlines the importance of informing a teacher about his or her performance as quickly as possible to ease any fears that the teacher may have about the lesson.

A study conducted by Arthur (2011) on the state of supervision of teaching and learning in public junior high schools in the Sekyere East District of Ashanti Region of Ghana suggested that interim (supervision) training programmes should be put in place to orientate Circuit Supervisors and headmasters before they take up their appointments. Arthur suggested that in order to improve instructional supervision future appointments of Circuit

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Supervisors by the District Directors should be based on experience of heads and office staffs and academic qualifications. Sharma, Yusoff, and Kannan (2011) concluded in a similar study that involving teachers, principals, subject teachers and subject specialist will make instructional supervision practices more meaningful. The findings further advocated for supervision to be continuous development and corporate process.

Alimi and Akinfolarin (2012) examined the impact of instructional supervision on secondary school students' academic performance in Ondo state, Nigeria. Descriptive method was adopted in which a questionnaire was administered to obtain data from sixty teachers from three senatorial districts in the state, while the performance of the students in English Language was obtained from the 2008 Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSSCE) result of the sixty randomly sampled schools. Simple random techniques were used accordingly to select the teachers. Pearson product moment correlation was used to answer the questions. The study recommended the following measures to improve instructional supervision: aligning policies, resources (time, fiscal and human), and other system-wide support to ensure implementation of planned educational programmes; expanding the current professional development practices to include a wide range of collaborative, team-based, authentic learning processes that occur both within and outside the school day, which focus on content and instruction; sustaining professional development over time to ensure acquisition, application, analysis and integration of research-based instructional practices; and ensuring schools and ministry of education support for the teacher

learning within a culture of continuous improvement and shared responsibility for students' performance.

Panigrahi (2012) also conducted a research on the implementation of instructional supervision in secondary schools in Haramaya Ethiopia: approaches, prospects and problems. The research recommended that adequate time should be allotted for instructional supervision by school leaders. The study also suggested that supervision of instruction should be scheduled, well-planned and frequently practiced. Training should be offered to teachers and supervisors to raise awareness on supervision, specifically, instructional supervision. Panigrahi (2012) finally recommended that in order to ensure improved supervisory practices, supervisory officials should acquaint themselves with numerous supervision models, techniques and principles. Seminar, workshops and conferences should also be organised from time to time by the regional educational bureau to update the school supervisory officials' focus in instructional supervision.

In some schools, instructional supervisors take a long time before they discuss findings of observed lessons. According to Madziyire (2013), the morale of instructional supervisors should also be boosted. If supervisors are properly motivated with available work materials such as stationery, transportation, conducive working environment, and enhanced salaries and allowances, the morale of the supervisor could be boosted thereby affecting the skills. Even though reward of various kinds has a way of boosting the morale of workers, it also has the capacity of instigating increased performance and development of

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quality skills. Therefore, instructional supervisors with excellent performance should be rewarded accordingly in order to maintain, and if possible improve their skills.

A study conducted by Yakubu (2013) to examine the perception of teachers on instructional supervision in the Wa East District of the Upper West Region of Ghana, discovered that providing means of transport to instructional supervisors, adherence to supervisory recommendations, organising in-service training for supervisors and promoting collaboration between teachers and supervisors were the ways by which instructional supervision would be improved in the district's schools. Thembinkosi (2013) also examined teachers' perceptions towards classroom instructional supervision in Nkayi District in Zimbabwe and suggested that observations of lessons alone, without providing immediate feedback to the supervisee are not enough. There should be more discussions between instructional supervisors and supervisees immediately after lesson observation so that even before the teacher receives the comprehensive report, he or she will improve on his or her weaknesses.

Models of Instructional Supervision

A number of models on instructional supervision have been suggested by various writers, authors and researchers. Notable among them include: clinical supervision, contextual supervision, scientific supervision, human resources supervision, developmental supervision, and differentiated supervision. These models have been discussed below:

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Clinical Supervision: The Underpinning Theoretical Model

This study is grounded in the clinical supervision model of instructional leadership. According to Beach and Reinhartz (2000), teachers tend to favour individualised, close and supportive supervision, which addresses their individual needs. Teachers also agree on the basic assumptions and effectiveness of clinical supervision, accepting recommendations for change, which they believe is possible in their classroom behaviour. Thus, clinical supervision is not the means of improving supervisors' skills. The National Association of Social Workers (NASW) (2001) defines clinical supervision in the following way: It is the type of supervision that establishes a learning alliance between the instructional supervisor and supervisee in which the supervisee learns therapeutic skills while developing self-awareness at the same time. It is also concerned with teaching the knowledge, skills, and attitudes important to clinical tasks by analysing the supervisee's interaction with the pupils. The instructional supervisor teaches the supervisee what he or she needs to know to provide specific services to specific pupils.

Supervision should be a relationship that develops between an instructional supervisor and a teacher that is built on mutual trust, through the setting of mutual goals and objectives; through professionalism, harmonious interaction; and through a certain human autonomy which enhances freedom for both the teacher and instructional supervisor to express ideas and opinions about how the method of instructional supervision should be implemented to best improve teaching. Clinical supervision provides specific training on the use of assessment,

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diagnosis, treatment and termination. The clinical supervisor must have mastery of the relevant knowledge and skills of clinical supervision, and excel in helping supervisees to develop clinical skills in their work with clients in many settings and contexts.

The National Association of Social Workers [NASW] (2001) hints that, a clinical supervisor must have the following qualifications: a license to practice in the area in which supervision is going to be provided, specific coursework in supervision and/or a specified minimum number of continuing education hours, a minimum of three years of post licensure experience in a supervisory role, continuing education course in supervision that are updated every five years, and approved by the licensing boards. Coleman (2003) mentions that the instructional supervisor increases the supervisee's motivation and develops a work environment that enhances work performance. Clinical supervision provides specific training on clinical skills including: assessment, diagnosis, treatment, termination, and ethical practice standards (American Board of Examiners in Clinical Social Work [ABECSW], 2004).

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2004), clinical supervision is typically more formative than summative in its evaluative approach to the practices of beginning teachers. The goal of clinical supervision is not aligned with traditional evaluative measurement procedures intended to make summative statements about the worth of a person's teaching for purposes of quality control. Clinical supervision therefore focuses on a teacher's professional growth in terms of improving classroom instruction and relies on more teacher-directed actions as

opposed to bureaucratic, hierarchical actions of control by supervisors. It becomes a process that includes the ideas and voice of the teacher as he or she strives to meet his or her own educational goals in teaching and centres on self and collegial evaluation, including input from students. Finally, the point of supervision from a clinical standpoint is not quality control for the protection of students and the public from incompetent teaching, rather the point of clinical supervision is the professional improvement of the teacher that "guarantees quality teaching and schooling for students and the public" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2004).

Clinical supervisors have many roles. They provide leadership and act as a liaison between the supervisee and the state regulatory board where they disclose statements about the supervisee's level of competence. They serve as teachers and role models. They demonstrate practical skills and act as mentors. The supervisor's skill level impacts the process of supervision for both the supervisor and supervisee (O'Donaghue, 2006). As stated by O'Donaghue (2006), instructional supervision is so fundamental to providing competent professional teacher services that all employers must provide if it requires them to look outside of their own organisation for supervision. A clinical supervisor must also teach supervisees how to utilise the most current and effective evidence-based theories in practice. Evidence-based practice refers to the conscientious, explicit and judicious use of current best evidence in making decisions regarding the care of clients, O'Donaghue adds.

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), clinical supervision is a face-to-face contact with teachers with the intent of improving instruction and

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increasing professional growth. It is a sequential, cyclic and systematic supervisory process which involves face-to-face (direct) interaction between teachers (supervisees) and supervisors designed to improve the teacher's classroom instructions. The purpose of clinical supervision, according to Snow-Gerono (2008), is to provide support to teachers (to assist) and gradually to increase teachers' abilities to be self-supervising. Clinical supervision is a specific cycle or pattern of working with teachers. In the view of Pajak (2009), methods of clinical supervision include group supervision between several supervisors and a teacher, or a supervisor and several teachers. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the programme, procedures, and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teachers' classroom behaviour.

The Clinical Supervision Model is based on the participation of two people who can be described to be fundamentally equal in being, aim and objective as they share in a common call and purpose but differentiated by functional inequality – the supervisee and the supervisor, in that each within the school administration has his or her specific function to play for the good of the entire system (Milne & Reiser, 2012). The model consists of five phases which can be modified according to the needs of the supervisee and the supervisor and the fifth is but a critique of the four scopes. The stages are briefly described below as:

1. Pre-observation conference

2. Classroom observation

3. Analysis and strategy session

4. Conference stage

5. Post-conference observation or what can be called a "Critique" of foregoing four steps (Milne & Reiser, 2012, p. 149).

The task of the supervisee and the supervisor during each stage and the key questions that both ought to occupy themselves with can be articulated below in these ways (Milne & Reiser, 2012, p. 149).

Stage 1: Pre-observation Conference

According to Milne and Reiser (2012), the teacher's task is to mentally rehearse and orally describe the upcoming lesson, including the purpose and the content. That is, what the teacher will do, and what students are expected to do and learn from the lesson. The clinical supervisor's task, according to Milne and Reiser is to learn about and understand what the teacher has in mind for the lesson to be taught by asking probing and clarifying questions, not with the view to floor or embarrass him or her but for clarity and assistance where needed. Milne and Reiser continue that the following questions should be considered: What type of data will be recorded (e.g., teacher's questions, students' behaviours, and movement patterns)? How will data be recorded (e.g., video or audio recording, verbatim transcript, anecdotal notes, checklist)? Who will do what in the subsequent stages? How the supervisor manages Stage 1 depends very much upon what he or she already knows about the teacher from their earlier work. Among

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other things, it is important in pre-observational activity not to do anything that is likely to unsettle the teacher before he or she steps into the class. If there is nothing that the supervisor can do to enhance the teacher's probabilities of success – perhaps nothing needs to be done to reduce the teacher's chances. The pre-observation conference is designed to inform the supervisor of the objectives for the lesson. The supervisee (teacher) prepares a detailed lesson plan for the supervisor to critique and provide a basis for suggestions.

Stage 2: Classroom Observation

The principal purpose of observation is to capture realities of the lesson objectively enough and comprehensively enough to enable the supervisor and supervisee to reconstruct the lesson as validly as possible afterwards, in order to analyse it. Summarily, classroom observation has two concerns (Milne & Reiser, 2012). The first concern is that the teacher's task is to teach the lesson so well or as well as possible while the clinical supervisor's task is to invent or document the teaching during the lesson delivery as accurately as possible. According to Milne and Reiser (2012), there are numerous ways the supervisor can record the classroom observation. These include: verbatim recording: where the supervisor records everything that is said and done by the teachers as accurately as possible; specific verbatim: where the supervisor selects specific areas to record in as much detail as possible; general observation: where the supervisor selects areas that he or she will record and focus on during the observation; videotaping: is an effective technique where an agreed upon lesson or segment is video-taped for later review; and audio taping of teacher and student responses is also a valuable

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technique if it has been so agreed upon before the lesson. During the classroom observation/data collection step, the supervisor observes the supervisee (teacher) teaching the lesson outlined in the lesson plan. The supervisor should use an observation instrument to collect data on the lesson being taught. This procedure provides written information for the teacher in the post-observation conference.

Stage 3: Data Analysis and Strategy

At the third stage, the teacher tries to make sense of the data (if directly involved in this stage). The clinical supervisor on the other hand helps to make some sense of the raw data and to develop a plan for the conference. Under stage three, questions such as: What patterns are evident in the data? Are any critical incidents or turning points obvious? What strengths did the teacher(s) exhibit? Were any techniques especially successful? Are there any concerns about the lesson? Which patterns, events, and concerns are most important to address? Which patterns, events, and concerns can be addressed within the time available? How will the conference begin? How will the conference end? are considered (Milne & Reiser, 2012). The analysis/strategy stage is the core of clinical supervision; the supervisor conceptualises what was observed in the classroom and converts the analysis into readable data for the teacher (Kutsyuruba, 2003). The teacher then has a representation of how the supervisor perceived the lesson.

Stage 4: Conference Session

One way of viewing the conference between a supervisor and a supervisee is in the context of a helping and healthy relationship and never competition or a show of authority or subjugation (Milne & Reiser, 2012). With respect to the

supervisory conference, the supervisor's objective is to help the supervisee make more functional use of his own resources and therefore perform more effectively within the classroom. For effective supervisor-supervisee conference, Blumberg (2005) suggests that the supervisor as the helping person is more likely to make the relationship a growth-promoting one when he communicates a desire to understand the other person's (supervisee) meanings and feelings. This attitude of wanting to understand is expressed in a variety of ways. The supervisor avoids criticism and withholds evaluative judgments of the supervisee's ideas, thoughts, feelings, and behaviour. The comments of the helping person, according to Blumberg (2005), are aimed at assisting the other individual to clarify his or her own meanings and attitudes. According to Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1993), clinical supervisory conference enables the teacher to critically examine his or her own teaching with an open mind and to tentatively plan for the next lesson. The conference also enables supervisors to help clarify and build upon the supervisees' understanding of the behaviours and events that occurred in the classroom. Questions to consider under supervisory conferences include: What patterns and critical incidents are evident in the data? What is the relationship between these events and students' learning? Were any unanticipated or unintended outcomes evident? What will the teacher do differently for the next class meeting (e.g., new objectives, methods, content, materials, teacher behaviours, student activities, or assessments)?

Stage 5: Post-conference Analysis

According to Dornbush and Scott (2009), the post-conference analysis is the time when the supervisee and the supervisor meet alone to discuss the observation and the analysis of data relative to the supervisee's objectives. If the data is collected and presented in a clear fashion, the teacher will be more likely to use the data and evaluate his or her teaching and classroom performance by himself or herself. It is necessary to furnish the supervisees with the feedback of their observation. This is in line with a research conducted by Natrello (2009) which has shown that supervisees who receive the most classroom feedback are also most satisfied with teaching. It is important to try to elicit the feedback directly from what the teacher sees from the data. This is accomplished only after a feeling of trust and communication has been established. It is the clinical supervisor's duty at this stage to provide honest feedback to the supervisee about how the clinical supervision cycle went.

Milne and Reiser (2012) identify that the clinical supervisor's duty is to critically examine his or her performance during the clinical supervision cycle. In doing this, the clinical supervisor should address the following issues: (a) ask the supervisee to analyse the data and tell the supervisor about the lesson rather than having the teacher sit passively by while the supervisor tells the teacher about the lesson (b) ask questions to focus the teacher on certain aspects of the lesson. Since it may not always be possible for a supervisee to successfully evaluate his or her own teaching, there may be occasions where the supervisor needs to be more directive seeking collaborative skills for a detailed discussion of giving and

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receiving feedback and critiquing (Milne & Reiser, 2012). In general, every effort should be made to elicit the analysis of the data from the supervisee (c) discuss ways to improve the lesson and whether the focus of the next observation is going to remain on the already agreed upon objective. This part of the meeting can serve as a part of the next pre-observation conference (d) request feedback from the supervisee as to how effective the supervision cycle has been and how to improve the next supervision cycle.

According to Milne and Reiser (2012), the following questions should be considered: Generally, how well did the clinical supervision cycle go? What worked well? What did not work well? If you could do it again, what would you do differently? What will you do differently during the next clinical supervision cycle? The post-conference analysis is primarily for the supervisor, who must analyse if the best supervisory practices were used by the supervisee (the teacher). This analysis provides a reflection exercise to help the supervisor to improve the next supervisory conference (Milne & Reiser, 2012).

Clinical supervision however, has some advantages. As Abdulkareem (2001, p. 30) puts it, "The advantages of clinical supervision are provision of objective feedback on instruction, diagnosing and solving instructional problems, assisting teachers in developing strategy to promote learning, motivating the students, managing the classroom and helping teachers to develop positive attitudes towards continuous professional development". Abdulkareem (2001) continues that, "This model requires considerable time, which usually is not available for both teachers and supervisors" (p. 38). Notwithstanding this

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criticism however, it remains Abdulkareem's conviction that as a face-to-face process, it allows supervisors and supervisees to spend more time together discussing and analysing what is occurring in the classroom and to come up with strategies to overcome any teaching problems resulting in improved classroom practice to investigate a wide range of topics. In this regard, Sidhu and Fook (2010) argue that supervision should be viewed as a process of observing, nurturing and giving feedback on the professional activity of teaching and learning to teachers. Sidhu and Fook (2010) further highlight that effective instructional leadership that postulates formative supervision should exhibit effective and collegial dialogue to encourage teacher reflection and professional growth. Clinical supervision has however been criticised as being time consuming. Supervisors with large teacher numbers do not have the luxury of time for such individualised attention.

In conclusion, the clinical supervisor is transformation from a conventional top-down executive approach to one that entails, as well as gives opportunity to the teachers to improve themselves so as to contribute in the excellence of school administration and optimum assimilation of the youngsters in their learning pursuit. The clinical supervisor ought to remind himself or herself every day that this centre of attention created in and around him or her and assistance to the needs for a good functional education system is a task to be given the adequate approach and realised with a maximum cooperation on the part of all and every key player in the venture, underscored with a good sense of responsibility and devotion. Indeed, this is a model which when used properly not only creates a

feeling of trust and common purpose between supervisor and supervisee, but also builds skills in teachers, which, in turn, allows them to monitor their own classroom behaviours and that of fellow teachers for better productivity in the entire educational polity and policy.

This model is considered appropriate and in line with my study. This emanates from the fact that instructional supervision in Social Studies in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis consists of five phases (just as the clinical supervision model) which include pre-observation conference, classroom observation, (which is followed immediately by data analysis and strategy conference session) and post-conference observation. During the pre-observation conference, circuit supervisors involve teachers in a discussion. The discussion mostly centres on what the teacher is preparing to deliver. It concentrates on the expectations of the supervisor and the teacher. Potential weaknesses on the part of the teacher, if any, are also discussed at this first stage. The Concerns students might have, are also discussed. The discussion also borders on understanding the background of the current lesson and how it is connected to previous lessons. The pre-observation conference therefore put both the teacher and the instructional supervisor on the same wavelength in terms of pedagogical expectations. Having completed stage one, the instructional supervisor then supervises the actual instruction in the classroom. At the second stage, the instructional supervisor observes every section of instruction and makes analyses and recommendations toward improving the next instruction. At the post-conference stage, the instructional supervisor discusses the outcome of the actual observation with the teacher. The

instructional supervisor points out the teacher's strengths and weaknesses and suggests ways of improving upon the delivery. This stage also allows the teacher to ask questions to inquire more about his or her teaching. It is anticipated that when this model is used in supervising instruction in Social Studies in JHSs, it would enable efficiency in supervision of instruction in Social Studies.

Contextual Supervision

Another model of instructional supervision is contextual supervision. This model matches supervisory styles with the teacher's development or readiness level to perform a particular teaching task (Ralph, 1998). Readiness levels are a function of the teacher's confidence and competence. Competence is the extent of the teacher's knowledge, skill, and ability to perform a certain task while confidence is the degree of self-assurance, willingness, motivation, interest, or enthusiasm to become engaged in the task (Ralph, 1998). Contextual supervision requires that the supervisor has the ability to provide different leadership styles to match the teacher's developmental level of teaching. The contextual approach provides four quadrants for the supervisor to use in determining the readiness level and confidence of the teacher (Ralph, 1998). The first quadrant is labeled high confidence and low competence. The teacher is energetic toward teaching but not completely proficient with the material taught. The instructional leader establishes low support and high task for the teacher.

The second quadrant of contextual supervision is labeled low confidence and low competence. The teacher is not energetic about teaching and not proficient in a particular subject area. The instructional leader provides the teacher

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with high support and high task. The third quadrant of contextual supervision is labeled low confidence and high competence. In this quadrant, the teacher is not confident in his or her teaching abilities but is knowledgeable about the subject taught. The instructional leader would provide high support and low task to the teacher. The final quadrant of contextual supervision is labeled high confidence and high competence. The teacher is enthusiastic about teaching and is proficient in the subject area. The instructional leader merely provides feedback to the teacher if there were any immediate concerns.

Scientific Supervision

Scientific supervision is one of the early models of supervision which is based on control, accountability and efficiency. The supervisor who uses this model assumes an authoritative position. He makes regular visits to the various schools to find out how the resources are managed and work is done in line with the standard of the organisation or institution. According to Mhlanga (2012, p. 216), "In this model, the focus is on teacher rating, objective measurements in teaching, use of standardised tests, scientific methods of teaching as well as relying heavily on examinations to determine outputs". The teachers have to follow him or her without questioning. While the strength of this model lies in its emphasis on efficiency in the system, this seems to be outweighed by its weaknesses. The fact that the teachers have no say and are used as mere tools means they will not have any real commitment to the organisational goals. In addition, it means even if teachers had problems in their work they have no

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opportunity to seek assistance from the supervisor as he or she does not give them opportunities for discussion (Mhlanga, 2012).

Human Resources Supervision

The human resources supervision model integrates the positive aspects of both scientific and human relations perspectives as well as personal needs and organisational needs. The model emphasises the full utilisation of a person's capacity for continued growth. Human resources supervisors believe in giving the teacher challenging work. Workers would receive maximum satisfaction and enrichment from achievement at work. Satisfaction in this model, according to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), results from the successful completion of important and meaningful work. The integration of personal needs with organisational needs seems to be a major strength of this model as it strives to meet both personal and organisational needs. In the human resources model the supervisor's role would be mainly to help teachers develop as total beings with individual talents and competences.

Developmental Supervision

Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon, (2001) define developmental supervision as "the match of initial supervisory approach with the teacher or group's developmental levels, expertise, and commitment" (p. 197). The instructional leader operating in developmental supervision gives three types of assistance: (1) directive, (2) collaborative, and (3) non-directive. Teachers who have low conceptual thinking, expertise, and commitment to their teaching will be matched with directive assistance. Teachers at earlier stages of development often

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have problems making decisions and defining problems, and they have learned few ways of responding to problems. Directive supervision places the instructional leader as the expert in charge of writing goals for the teacher. Teachers at moderate levels of abstract thinking, expertise, and commitment are best matched with collaborative assistance (Glickman et al., 2001). With this type of assistance, the instructional leader and teacher establish goals, identify how they will be achieved, and as a team, note when the achievement should be noticed. The teachers who think abstractly and demonstrate high expertise and commitment to teaching are best matched with non-directive assistance (Glickman et al., 2001). Non-directive assistance allows the teacher to be in control of how and when the goals will be achieved. The instructional leader is still involved, but takes a more passive role in the supervisory process. Glickman et al. (2001) identify the behaviours of the instructional leader in this role as listening, reflecting, clarifying, encouraging, and problem solving.

Differentiated Supervision

Differentiated supervision is particularly teacher-driven and allows the instructional leader to become more of a mentor to the teacher. Additionally, the instructional leader can focus efforts where they are needed most (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn (1997) suggests four options for differentiated supervision: 1) intensive development (a special approach to clinical supervision), 2) cooperative professional development, 3) self-directed, and 4) administrative monitoring. The teacher chooses one of the supervisory options; the instructional leader and teacher then focus on that area. Glatthorn (1997) suggests further that intensive

development, the first option of the differentiated supervisory model, is a process which requires many instructional leader observations which focus on learning outcomes instead of teaching methods. Intensive development should be used with a small number of teachers who experience difficulty with the teaching process. Intensive development includes eight components that involve five or more cycles and multiple observations.

The first component, the taking stock conference, is held anytime the instructional leader and teacher want to discuss their professional relationship or to reflect on what has been accomplished. The second (pre-observation), third (diagnostic observation), fourth (analysis of diagnostic observation), and fifth (diagnostic debriefing) components of the intensive development option are equivalent to the planning conference, classroom observation, analysis/strategy, and supervision conference of the clinical supervision model. The sixth component of the intensive development option, the coaching session, provides an opportunity for the instructional leader and teacher to select one skill from the diagnostic process on which to concentrate. The seventh component focuses on observation, highlights one skill, using a form intended to assemble information about the teacher's use of that skill. The focused debriefing conference, the eighth component, allows the instructional leader and teacher to review and analyse the results of the focused observation.

The second option, cooperative professional development, is a mutually respectful process in which a small group of teachers agree to work together to facilitate their own professional growth (Glatthorn, 1997). The teacher becomes

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part of a two-or-three teacher teams undergoing the mentoring process together. The teachers observe each others' classes and give feedback on each others' teaching. This type of supervision is less time consuming for the instructional leader because the teachers conduct the supervisory process, and the instructional leader serves only as a resource. Cooperative professional development can be used with more experienced teachers who seek collegiality or a beneficial mentoring experience.

The third suggested option of differentiated supervision is self-directed. Beach and Reinhartz (2000) state that self-directed supervision enables the individual teacher to work independently on professional growth and allows the instructional leader to have a more relaxed supervisory role. In this case, the teacher develops and carries out individualised plans for professional growth with the instructional leader as a resource. This technique is specifically for the teacher who prefers to work alone, yet seeks the aid of the instructional leader as a mentor (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn (1997) and Beach and Reinhartz (2000) state that the teacher self-evaluates his or her teaching using videotape, inventories, reflective journals, or portfolios to critique his or her teaching procedure. The instructional leader does not need to evaluate the lesson, but through individual conferences the instructional leader could provide feedback on improving the instruction if the teacher so desires.

The final option available to teachers utilising differentiated supervision is administrative monitoring. Glatthorn (1997) defines administrative monitoring as a process by which the instructional leader monitors the teacher's classroom with

brief, unannounced visits. This option is used to monitor activity in the classroom and enables the instructional leader to be aware of any problems the teacher might be having.

Although, all these models inform instructional supervision, I found the clinical supervisory model to be more in tune with my study since for every supervisory exercise, the supervisor and the supervisee go through five important stages (pre-observation, classroom observation, analysis and strategy, conference, and post-conference stages) which ensure effective supervision of instruction.

Conceptual Framework

In the context of this study, the conceptual framework illustrates the dimensions of supervision of Social Studies instruction in JHSs (Figure 1). The dimensions that the conceptual framework covered in this study are: practices that constitute instructional supervision and how teachers experience instructional supervision. All these dimensions are confronted with a number of challenges, hence, the need for measures to improve instructional supervision in Social Studies. My study focused on instructional supervisory practices, how teachers experience instructional supervision and the effects of socio-demography of teachers on the way teachers experience instructional supervision. As shown in Figure 1, there are two major practices of instructional supervision in Social Studies. These are: collaborative and self-reflection practices. External supervision of Social Studies instruction is influenced by the relationships and interrelationships of collaborative and self-reflection practices of supervision.

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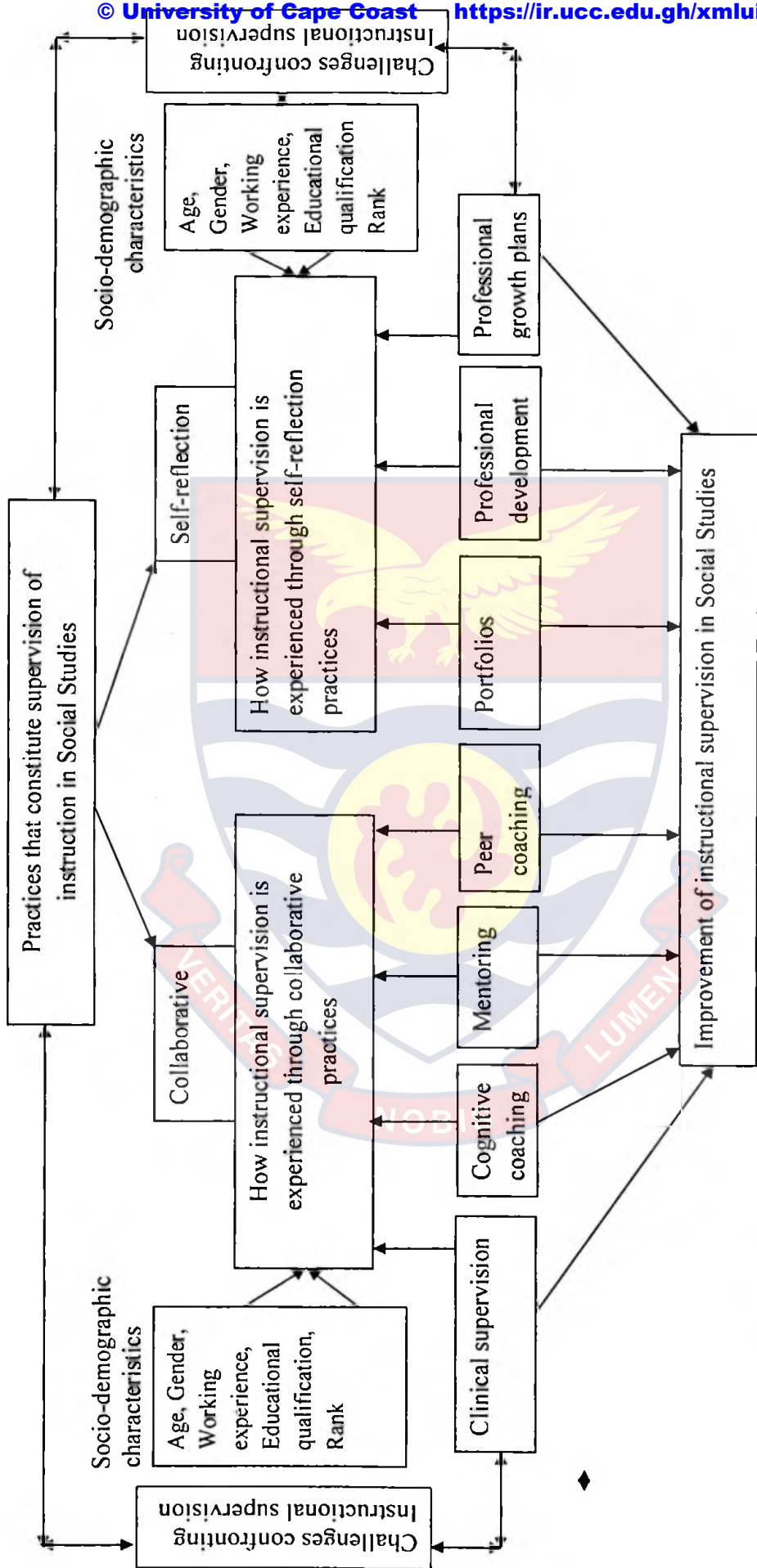
Figure 1: Atta Kwenin Model of Instructional Supervision
Source: Author's Construct (2015)

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Depending on the practices (collaborative and self-reflection) of instructional supervision chosen by instructional supervisors, the ultimate purpose is to improve instruction in Social Studies. The moment collaborative experience is chosen, teachers would experience instructional supervision either through clinical supervision, cognitive coaching, peer coaching, or mentoring. Clinical supervision is a five-step process consisting of a pre-conference, an observation, analysis and strategy, conference, and a post-conference stage. Cognitive coaching allows teachers to ask questions to explore thinking behind their practices. In peer coaching, teachers work collaboratively in pairs and small teams or cohorts, in which the coach provides feedback to teachers to help them to reach their professional goals.

Mentoring provides the opportunity for an experienced educator (mentor) to work with a novice or less experienced teacher collaboratively and non-judgmental to study and deliberate on ways instruction in the classroom may be improved (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). On the other hand, if self-reflection is chosen, Social Studies teachers experience supervision of instruction through portfolios, professional growth plans, or professional development. In the portfolio approach, teachers collect information from their students, colleagues, or themselves about their teaching while professional growth plans give teachers the opportunity to reflect on their instructional and professional goals which in turn enable them become more active participants in the assessment process by describing intended outcomes and plans for achieving the goals (Kutsyuruba, 2003). In professional development, the instructional supervisor engages teachers

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in reflective writing, as well as describing the goals and objectives with their perceived results. Teachers therefore participate in individual goal-setting activities. The ultimate aim of the two practices is for the improvement of instruction in Social Studies. The components of the conceptual framework are further explained below:

Collaborative Supervision

Collaborative supervision is the process in which learning, growing, and changing are the mutual focus for supervisors and teachers (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). This approach is developed for teachers and supervisors to be better equipped to change the culture of teaching from a hierarchical, isolating atmosphere to collaborative culture that promotes learning and growth for everyone involved. Collaborative supervision is premised on participation by equals in instructional decision making process. During supervision of instruction in Social Studies, both teachers and supervisors collaborate to make decisions. Collaborative style includes listening, presenting, problem solving, and negotiating, which lead to a development of a contract between the teacher and the instructional supervisor. Collaboration is appropriate when teachers and supervisors have and are aware of similar levels of expertise, involvement, and concern with a problem. Equality is the major issue in this orientation. Teachers experience collaborative supervision in several ways. These include the following:

Peer Coaching

Peer coaching is a type of supervision in which teachers in a given school work collaboratively in pairs and small teams to observe each others' teaching and to improve instruction (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). In Junior High Schools, Social Studies teachers help each other to reflect on and improve teaching practice and/or carry out new teaching skills needed to carry out knowledge gained through faculty or curriculum development. It involves teachers of equal status (beginners with beginners or experienced with experienced). In peer coaching two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect on current practices; expand, refine, and build new (innovative) skills, share ideas, teach one another or solve problems in the work place. The goal of coaching as described by Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), is to develop communities within which "teachers collaborate with each other to honour a very simple value: when we learn together, we learn more, and when we learn more, we will more effectively serve our students" (p. 251). Thus, peer coaching provides possible opportunities to teachers to refine teaching skills through collaborative relationships, participatory decision-making, and immediate feedback.

Peer coaching provides opportunities to refine teaching skills through immediate feedback and through experimentation with alternate strategies as a result of the informal evaluation (Bowman & McCormick, 2000). According to Starling and Baker (2000), peer coaching can utilise teams of teachers who provide daily support and encouragement to each other. The supervisor is seen as a facilitator working with cohorts of teachers. Teachers participate in small group

sessions, where they ask questions to clarify their perceptions of teaching and instructional supervision. The value of analysis and feedback, which enhance the supervisory process, cannot be underestimated. Beach and Reinhartz (2000) state, "Through analysis and feedback, supervisors (along with cohort teachers) find out the reasons for teacher's decision and coach the teacher on the job" (p. 141).

Cognitive Coaching

In cognitive coaching teachers in Social Studies become aware of their own teaching effectiveness. It is an effective means of establishing sound relationships between two or more professionals of different status (beginners with experienced teachers, beginners with assigned supervisors, or experienced teachers with assigned supervisors). According to Beach and Reinhartz (2000), in cognitive coaching, the teacher may be paired with his or her colleague teacher, or the teacher may be paired with a supervisor, or supervisor with supervisor. The cognitive coaching process is built on a foundation of trust, which is fundamental to success (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000).

As teachers work with teachers or supervisors in a coaching interaction, learning is the ultimate goal. They have the opportunity to learn more about themselves, each other, and the teaching and learning process. As the result of the coaching process, teachers are encouraged to reach autonomy – the ability to self-monitor, self-analyse, and self-evaluate – which is another ultimate goal of cognitive coaching. At the same time, teachers have to realise their interdependence as a part of a greater whole within their school. Cognitive coaching consists of three components: the planning, the lesson observation, and

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the reflection (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). Three major goals of cognitive coaching according to Igwe (2001) include: (1) developing and maintaining trusting relationship; (2) promoting learning; and (3) fostering growth toward both autonomous and interdependent behaviour.

Mentoring

Mentoring, a component of collaborative supervision, is a process that facilitates instructional improvement wherein an experienced educator (mentor) works with a novice or less experienced teacher (protégé) collaboratively and non-judgmentally to study and deliberate on ways instruction in the classroom may be improved (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Mentoring involves the process through which mentors support, assist, and guide teachers. In the case of JHSs, mentors are teachers and headteachers who are skilful in communicating, listening, analysing, providing feedback, and negotiating. They are trustworthy and committed to the process. They believe in personal and professional development and adept at adjusting their expectations of the protégés. According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), "mentors are not judges or critics, but facilitators of instructional improvement, and all their interactions and recommendations with staff members are confidential" (p. 213).

In mentoring, one senior teacher from the same department is assigned as a mentor for one novice teacher. Supportive and trusted relationships are "paramount to successfully assist novice teachers in adjusting to teaching requirements" (Smith, 2002, p. 47). Burke and Krey (2005) describe the connection between mentoring, supervision and professional development.

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According to Burke and Krey, mentoring can serve to augment the succession planning and professional development of schools. Mentors can model a culture of collaboration and collegiality in which best thinking occurs through collective judgment, which is considered to be the best way teachers learn. In the view of Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007), mentoring is a form of collaborative (peer) supervision focused on helping new teachers or beginning teachers successfully learn their roles, establish their self images as teachers figure out the school and its culture, and understand how teaching unfolds in real classrooms.

Clinical Supervision

The final practice of collaborative supervision is clinical supervision. In this method, the instructional supervisor involves the teacher in a close, "helping, relationship". Essentially, clinical supervision in Social Studies education involves a teacher receiving information from a colleague who has observed the teacher's performance and who serves as both a mirror and a sounding board to enable the teacher critically examine and possibly alter his or her own professional practice (Milne & Reiser, 2012). Within the context of such supervision, ideas are shared and help is given in order to improve the teacher's ability through the analysis of objective data that is collected during the observation. In this instructional supervision, teachers are observed through five stages which include pre-observation conference, classroom observation, analysis and strategy session, conference stage, post-conference observation (Milne & Reiser, 2012).

Self-Reflection

From Figure 1, one other way in which teachers experience instructional supervision is through self-reflection. Beach and Reinhartz (2000) discuss seven steps of effective self-assessment supervision. The first step is for teachers to analyse and reflect on their teaching performances. In the second step, teachers use the information from their reflective journals and completed inventories to analyse their effectiveness in self assessing process. The third step involves feedback from other sources, such as supervisors, peers, and/or students. The fourth step in self-assessment, most important in determining the accuracy of the information from other sources is, analysing data. The fifth step involves developing possible strategies for initiating improvement. The sixth step comes as teachers implement the agreed-upon changes in their own instructional behaviour. Finally, teachers reassess the effectiveness of the change. According to Beach and Reinhartz (2000), this model can be effective if teachers are aware of their need to develop. In addition, this approach is particularly suited to competent and experienced teachers who are able to manage their time well.

In the view of Burke and Krey (2005), the most important dimension of instructional supervision is the ability of the teacher to reflect on his or her experience. Self-directed development is an option provided teachers that enable them to set their own professional growth goals, find the resources needed to achieve those goals, and undertake the steps needed to accomplish those outcomes. In order to improve instructionally, teachers learn to analyse their own classroom behaviour. Although a supervisor may facilitate the process,

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assessment of classroom performance begins with teachers who are developmentally ready. Teachers, therefore, need to have self-analysis skills to examine the various aspects of their instructional delivery system. In the view of Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2007), to carry out reflective practices and related aspects of professional growth, teachers require appropriate opportunities, supports, and resources provided by the administration and policies. Thus, self-assessment shifts the responsibility for change from the instructional supervisor to the teacher. An instructional supervisor whose major purpose is self-reflection may choose portfolios, professional growth plans or administrative monitoring (See Figure 1).

Portfolios

A teaching portfolio is defined as a process of supervision with teacher compiled collection of artifacts, reproductions, and testimonials that represents the teachers' professional growth and abilities (Riggs & Sandlin, 2000). In the case of Social Studies education, the Social Studies teacher may compile collection of artifacts, reproductions, testimonials, and productions that represent the teacher's professional growth and abilities. The portfolio documents do not only bring innovative and effective practices of teachers, but also they are central road for teachers' professional growth through self-assessment, analysis, and sharing with colleagues through discussion and writing. A professional portfolio can serve many different purposes. Although the portfolio can be time-consuming to construct and cumbersome to review, it is not the only document for the development of innovative and effective practices, but it is a central vehicle for

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the growth of the teacher through self-reflection, analysis, and sharing with colleagues through discussion and writing (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Although each portfolio is different, they usually include teacher resources, references, and professional articles with practical suggestions.

In portfolios, teachers evaluate themselves and develop their teaching practice as well as pedagogical and domain knowledge with the evidence from collection of the artifacts (Reis & Villaume, 2002). Sergiovanni and Starratt (2007) state that the intent of portfolio development is to establish a file or collection of artifacts, records, photo essays, cassettes, and other materials designed to represent some aspect of the classroom programme and teaching activities.

Professional Growth Plans

Professional growth plans are individual goal-setting activities, long term projects teachers develop and carry out relating to the teaching. This means that teachers reflect their own instructional and professional goals by setting intended outcomes and plans for achieving these goals. Beach and Reinhartz (2000), state that in order to assess teachers' performance, one must consider the instructional intent, the teaching and learning interactions, and the results of teachers' efforts. It is useful for the supervisor to engage teachers in reflective writing, as well as describing the goals and objectives with their perceived results. In relation to instructional supervision in Social Studies, Social Studies teachers are required to reflect on their instructional and professional goals and become more active participants in the assessment process by describing intended outcome and plans

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for achieving the goals. Teachers select the area in which they wish to enhance their skills, put their entire plan in writing, including where to obtain the knowledge, what workshops they will attend, what books and articles they expect to read and how they will set up practice activities. It also includes who will observe them as they begin to implement the new learning.

In professional growth plans as part of instructional supervisory approach, teachers select the skills they wish to improve, place their plan in writing including the source of knowledge, the type of workshop to be attended, the books and articles to read, and practice activities to be set (Fenwick, 2001). In this regard, Fenwick (2001) states that professional growth plans "could produce transformative effects in teaching practice, greater staff collaboration, decreased teacher anxiety, and increased focus and commitment to learning" (p. 422). Fenwick (2001) explains further that professional growth plans "could produce transformative effects in teaching practice, greater staff collaboration, decreased teacher anxiety, and increased focus and commitment to learning" (p. 422).

Professional Development

This is teacher-directed process that occurs over a period of time, leading to the professional growth for the teacher. Professional development is a vital component of ongoing Social Studies teacher education and it is central to the role of headteachers and teachers. This development is concerned with improving teachers' instructional methods, their ability to adapt instruction to meet students' needs, and their classroom management skills, and with establishing a professional culture that relies on shared beliefs about the importance of teaching

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and learning and that emphasises teacher collegiality (Wanzare & da Costa, 2000).

The merits of this model (see Figure 1) are that it exposes both teachers and instructional supervisors to varied practices that constitute instructional supervision. This caters for the individual differences among teachers and instructional supervisors. The model is also important in the sense that it will enable instructional supervisors to follow systematic procedures in carrying out instructional supervision. When followed strictly, vital components of instructional supervision such as pre-observation, actual observation and the post observation phases will not be missed out. The shortcoming of my model is the fact that different practices (collaborative and self-reflection) constitute supervision of instruction and each of the practices determines the how teachers experience supervision of instruction. Thus, practices and experiences may differ from one school to another and from one instructional supervisor to another. Also, environmental and individual differences as well as subject orientation of instructional supervisors can affect effective application of my model to instructional supervision. Also, the workload of internal supervisors who have dual responsibilities of being Headteachers and instructional supervisors increases due to the numerous ways teachers would experience instructional supervision. For instance, when teachers experience instructional supervision through clinical supervision, the instructional supervisor would have to take teachers through the pre-observation stage, the actual observation stage, and the post-observation conferences. In effect, both internal and external (Circuit Supervisors)

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instructional supervisors may not carry out the pre-observation and post-observation conferences which are vital to the supervisory processes, thus, making discussions and feedback ineffective.

Socio-Demography and How Teachers Experience Instructional Supervision

Detailed understanding of the socio-demographic characteristics and instructional supervision is crucial for effective implementation of instructional supervisory practices. As a result, the differences between socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, rank, and level of training) and how instructional supervision is experienced was explored.

Gender and Instructional Supervision

According to Miller and Wieling (2002), gender not only influences how the supervisory personnel (teachers, Headteachers and circuit supervisors) interact, but also how they interpret their experiences in instructional supervision. Miller and Wieling (2002) contend that female instructional supervisors experience challenges in several areas, including a heightened need to demonstrate credibility and leadership early in the supervisory process. Moorhouse and Carr (2002) on their part illuminate how gender affects conversational behaviour between supervisors and supervisees and suggest that both male and female instructional supervisors present a directive supervision style more frequently in supervision. Arthur (2011) conducted a study on the state of supervision of teaching and learning in public Junior High Schools in the Sekyere East District of Ashanti Region, Ghana. The study respondents consisted

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of five males circuit supervisors, two of the three headmasters were males while one was female. However there were more females 61(52%) under the teachers' category than the males 57(48%). It was concluded based on the findings that gender could negatively affect instructional supervision especially when female teachers go for maternity leave making the school to employ part-time teachers who might not be very effective in teaching. Arthur (2011) finally concluded that female teachers are greatly involved in family matters. For example, preparing and taking their young children to school, which may make them be late for their lessons. It was based on the above that research question four was formulated to explore the relationship between gender and how Social Studies teachers experience instructional supervision.

Age and Instructional Supervision

In relation to age of teachers, Smola and Sutton (2002) conducted a cross-sectional comparison study to explore the influence of age on the work output of teachers ranging between 27 to 40 year olds and 41 to 65 year olds. Their study discovered that older teachers had a less idealised view of teaching than younger teachers did. Indeed, it was postulated that after witnessing the lack of employer loyalty toward the teachers, the latter consequently developed a less idealised view of teaching. In view of this, Adkins (1995) states that, individuals with much experience in similar tasks may learn new tasks more quickly. In addition to this, Rynes, Orlitzky, and Bretz (1997) posit that every institution seeks employees whose prior work experience is similar to the current needs of the institution because they expect that these employees will bring knowledge that enables them

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to be immediately productive. Similarly, Jin and Lee (2012) indicate that long work experience in a similar institution may facilitate the development of a sense of task competence and, consequently, increase satisfaction in performing the work.

Working Experience and Instructional Supervision

Adkins (1995) asserts that individuals with long service experience may learn new tasks more quickly. In addition to this, Rynes, Orlitzky, and Bretz (1997) posit that every supervisory process requires officers whose prior work experience is similar to the current needs of the institution because they expect that these employees will bring knowledge that enables them to be immediately productive. In relation to this view, Jin and Lee (2012) posit that work experience of the supervisory personnel may facilitate the development of a sense of task competence and, consequently, increase satisfaction in performing the work especially personnel with long working experience. According to Kiaba (2011), most supervisors who have served for longer periods are experienced enough to implement the curriculum effectively. He continues that teachers with less experience require more attention from more experienced supervisors.

On her part, Masiga (2010) states that one of the consequences that result from many years of working experience could be complacency, on the part of the teacher who overstayed in one station. This could have negative implications as far as supervision of teachers is concerned.

Thembinkosi (2013) conducted a study on teachers' perceptions towards classroom instructional supervision in Nkayi District in Zimbabwe. The study

revealed that 1(50%) teacher had served for between 6-10 years while the other 1(50%) had served for between 11-15 years. Although experienced, it was also noted that the teacher who had served for between 11-15 years had all that time been in one station. This, according to Thembinkosi, could make the teacher become used to the same Headteachers and Teachers, which could make him not take stern measures on the school's supervisory practices. The study further indicated that majority (73.3%) Headteachers had between 11 years of headship experience and above, while the least (6.7%) had between 2-5 years. This meant that majority of the Headteachers had sufficient experience to carry out instructional supervision effectively. Thembinkosi continued that this result will pave way for such Headteachers to manage those schools as their own property or be able to manipulate their school supervisory practices for effective supervision of instruction.

Educational Qualification and Instructional Supervision

Work ethic varies with education qualification and level. The lower the qualification of education of an employee, the higher their work ethic has been found to be. People with high academic qualification are found to be less likely to endorse a protestant work ethic than people with low academic qualification (Tang & Tzeng, 1992). Fokuo (1994) asserts that the Social Studies educators should have a sound academic knowledge in addition to good professional training. According to Amanchi (cited in Sawati, Anwar, & Majoka, 2013), education results in more professional impetus and hence specialised training empowers for improved performance in educational institutions. Besides

professional and academic knowledge, it is common belief that age and experience may play very important role in supervisory behaviour. Indeed, Davies, Gregory, and Riley (1999) express the need for educators to have academic background that puts them in a particularly good position to approach Social Studies instruction confidently and skillfully. According to Aggarwal (2001), Social Studies more than any other subject requires well prepared conscientious men and women of sound knowledge and training whose personalities rank high among men. Aggarwal (2001), stresses further that scholarship and professional training are the first two essential requirements for the Social Studies educators. In the view of Okoro (2004), education personnel with higher qualifications are more likely to perform better in the field than those with lower qualification. Okoro continues that personnel with higher qualifications display more confidence in their work. In addition, they are more accessible to quality information, and adapt to changing occupational conditions than their counterparts with lower qualification, who are usually more indisposed and ill-equipped in adapting to modern changes. Similarly, the Education Review Committee Report (2004) posits that personnel with requisite qualifications should be appointed as Circuit Supervisors to supervise all schools, including secondary and technical schools. They posit further that the successful supervisor of 21st century will need to be very professional, competent, highly trained and a well motivated individual.

Katozai (2005) has regarded age, experience, education, and size of the institution as factor of instructional supervision. He argues further that knowledge

is a chief weapon in the hand of the supervisor and therefore he/she should be a qualified man. A supervisor must be equipped with knowledge about methods of teaching, organisation, educational psychology and hygienic principles. He should have up-to-date knowledge of the theories and principles of education presented by modern educationists. Nsubuga (2009), has recommended that a continuous professional development system for supervisors be established and institutionalized in the education system. Nsubuga (2009) concluded that unless supervisors are well equipped with knowledge and skills in instructional supervision, they would not be able to improve school performance significantly.

Mankoe (2007) states that supervisor's experience and qualifications should under normal circumstances be higher than those of the teachers he or she supervises. On his part, Baffour-Awuah (2011) writes that most JHS teachers in Ghana do not possess higher qualifications in the form of degrees and diplomas, but they occupy supervisory positions on the basis of seniority and long service. He continues that it would be proper for instructional supervisors to possess higher qualifications and longer years of teaching experience than the teachers they supervise. Such instructional supervisors would have sufficient knowledge and experience in both content and pedagogy to be able to confidently assist, guide and support their teachers. Gakuya (2013), asserts that high academic qualifications are a prerequisite for promotion as a supervisor and states that this can explain the relatively high academic qualifications of the secondary school Headteachers and the teachers. The minimum academic qualification required for employment as a teacher in a public school is a Diploma in education however

more and more people are seeking higher education to better their chances of acquiring employment. Contrary to the view of Gakuya, Sawati, Anwar, and Majoka (2013), conducted a study on the correlation between qualification, experience, and supervisory practices which revealed that highest academic credentials, for example, up to Master's and above Master's did not influence supervisory practices. There was no significant correlation between principals' supervisory practices and level of education.

Rank and Instructional Supervision

Headteachers, Circuit Supervisors, and Social Studies teachers with low rank like their counterparts with higher ranks want to be respected, although the understanding of respect among lower and higher ranked staff differs. Staff with high ranks want their opinions to be given more weight because of their experience and for people to do what they are told, while staff with lower rank want to be listened to and have people pay attention to what they have to say (Deal, 2007). Furthermore, staff with high ranks may not appreciate equal respect showed to all, and may want to be treated with more respect than one would show someone at a lower level in the hierarchy or with less experience (Deal, 2007). Therefore, meeting the expectations of respect that individuals hold may be a genuine challenge which can affect the performance of the individuals. In support of educational personnel with varied ranks, Meyer (2002), posits that institutions with employees at various ranks tend to be more reliable and found more difficulty to shift job from one to another due to emotional attachment with the

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institution. This shows an affective commitment and satisfaction of the employees towards the institution.

Level of Training and Instructional Supervision

In the words of Barr, quoted in Sullivan and Glanz (2000), teachers, headteachers and Circuit Supervisors must have the ability to analyse teaching situations and to locate the probable causes for poor work with a certain degree of expertness. They must also possess certain constructive skills for the development of new means, methods, and materials of instruction. In short, they must possess training in both the art and science of instructing pupils and teachers. In the absence of training, especially on the part of instructional supervisors, they (supervisors) may be inclined to rely on their experiences with their previous instructional supervisors over the years, as well as their existing knowledge in administration and pedagogy. In a related assertion, Zwick (2006) opines that today's supervisory practices require supervisors to be skillful in performing complex tasks in an efficient, cost-effective, and safe manner. Training (a performance improvement tool) is therefore needed when supervisors are not performing up to a certain standard or at an expected level of performance. He adds that the difference between the actual level of job performance and the expected level of job performance indicates a need for training. Baffour-Awuah (2011) suggests that in an institution where level of training varies, supervisory practices may differ from one instructional supervisor to another in the same education system. There is also the possibility of stagnation in practice, instead of innovation and improvement. This suggests that when supervisors have varied

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skills through training, it would enable them carry out their respective roles with competence. In support of this assertion, the Human Resource Management Service (2011) maintains that the singular function of training is to produce change. It is the upgrading of a person's skill or the addition of a new skill, which in turn can bring about the desired change an institution is seeking. It is important to understand that training in and of itself cannot motivate a work force. However, it is an integral part of what is needed to accomplish the long-term goals of an institution.

The Historical Development of Social Studies

This section takes into consideration the literature related to the Background of Social Studies Education, Development of Social Studies in English-Speaking African Countries and the Development of Social Studies in Ghana. It is important to understand how Social Studies evolved in the United States, as it appears to have had a chequered history that has reshaped the way it is conceptualised and practiced.

General Background of Social Studies Education

Until 1916, history was the leading subject for citizenship education in US public schools (Correira, 1997). However, after the 1900s, the United States faced a lot of social, economic, and political problems that came about because of a number of factors. Such factors included the traumatic experience from the Civil War and Reconstruction, rapid industrialisation, and massive migration into the country (Woyshner, 2004). Against this backdrop, it did not come as a surprise

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that by the early 1900s, social sciences activists challenged History's claim of uniqueness in the education of citizens (Evans, 2004).

The activists challenged that epistemological and mythological constraints made History unable to address the new problems the United States was facing at the time (Correira, 1997). For example, they challenged that History emphasised rote learning and social events that were not connected to the present (Hertzberg, 1981). These arguments made disciplines like Sociology and Political Science to gain legitimacy for citizenship education (Correira, 1997). It, thus, became clear that the challenges the United States faced after the 1900s "created the opportunity for Social Studies ideas to enter school politics" (Saxes, 1992, p. 271). This shift marked the symbolic beginning of Social Studies.

The activists of social science saw the discipline as a general area of inquiry drawn from other subjects to help solve societal problems. However, educators agree that any comprehensive social study must include historical content because knowledge about the past is important in understanding the present (Thornton, 2005). This factor explains why, in spite of the protracted disputes between the apologists of the two disciplines since the 1900s, the integrated Social Studies field relies heavily on history and other social sciences for the purposes of its academic rigor (Thornton, 2005). The American philosophy of Social Studies soon spread to other parts of the world including Africa.

In Africa, Social Studies took time to reach the continent probably due to conservative attitudes of missionaries and colonialists who controlled formal

schooling in the colonies. In British colonies, the entire school curricula were tailored to produce obedient subjects of the British Monarchy (Tlou & Kabwila, 2000). However, after gaining their political independence, African educators, thinking of the meaning of Social Studies took a different view from that perceived by their former colonial masters. The articulation of these views dates back to 1967 when educators from eleven countries met their counterparts from the UK and the US at Oxford. African educators who attended the meeting came from Botswana, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Lesotho, Malawi, Nigeria, Sierra Leone, Tanzania, Uganda, and Zambia (Merryfield & Tlou, 1995). The Oxford meeting laid the foundation for the African Social Studies Programme (ASSP), an organisation responsible for the improvement of Social Studies in Africa. A follow-up international conference held at Mombasa, Kenya, in 1968 laid the foundation for Social Studies in African school curricula (Adeyinka, 2002).

Three major resolutions came out of these discussions. First, the purpose and objectives of Social Studies became preparation of active citizens for both local communities and nations (Adeyinka, 2002). This kind of philosophy was compatible to the change of status of Africans, from colonial subjects to citizens in their nation-states. Second, the content of Social Studies emphasised culture, environment, and problems relevant to the African needs (Shiundu & Mohammed, 2001). This change was also necessary because the goal of the inherited colonial school curriculum was preparation of obedient and loyal subjects, but this view was irrelevant in the post-colonial era. Instead, African Social Studies Programme's (ASSP's) emphasis was on the role of Social Studies

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in the development of nationhood, installation of skills and attitudes towards economic development, and creation of self-reliant citizens. For these reasons, the new Social Studies was an integration of the traditional subjects of history, geography, and civics, with some elements of other subjects like agriculture, economics, sociology, political science, and anthropology. Again, the pedagogies for teaching Social Studies changed from the traditional-teacher-centred to learner-centred approaches (Adeyinka, 2002). Thus, African educators also saw the importance of active participatory approaches that were necessary for the preparation of critical-thinking minds for making informed decisions. As a result of the efforts of the African Social Studies Programme (ASSP), 17 African nations had initiated Social Studies programmes in their school curricula by the mid 1980s. To date, ASSP has continued its efforts in making Social Studies relevant to the preparation of competent citizens for culturally diversified societies.

In Ghana, as part of the government's policy to training teachers to teach Social Studies at the basic schools, Social Studies was introduced at the Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana. The Social Studies programme as a field of study was introduced into the curriculum of the Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana as far back as the 1940s (Kankam, 2001). The teaching of Social Studies during this period was experimented in the Presbyterian Training College (Akropong), Wesley College (Kumasi) and Achimota Training College (Accra). This experiment, according to Agyemang-Fokuo (1994) was, however, not allowed to

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blossom due to both teachers' and students' negative perception and attitudes towards the Social Studies programme.

By the early 1950s, the single subjects (i.e. studying subjects like history, economics and geography separately) had taken over the integrated Social Studies (i.e. drawing concepts, ideas, knowledge etc from different subject areas like history and geography to solve problems or explain issues) in the Teacher Training Colleges. The reasons advanced for the resumption of the single subjects approach according to Tamakloe (2008), was the fact that social sciences graduates of the University of Ghana, who were to handle Social Studies in the Teacher Training Colleges could not cope with the integrated approach, for they specialised in single subjects. Also, the students in the Teacher Training Colleges welcomed the single subject approach because they perceived it as an opportunity to either improve upon their grades in the single-subjects such as history, geography and economics in School Certificate or General Certificate of Education (GCE) Ordinary Level (OL) or get a firm foundation in order to try their hands at GCE "O" Level examinations.

In the late 1960s, another development propelled: the re-introduction of integrated Social Studies in the Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana. This was when some graduate and non-graduate teachers who had been sent to Wales and Bristol to study the "Environmental Studies Approach" and the "Integrated Social Studies" returned to Ghana. By 1971, about 14 of the teachers with positive perception about Social Studies had been posted to the Teacher Training Colleges

to spearhead the development of the integrated programme, which they had studied abroad.

In 1976, the experimental Junior Secondary Schools were established where Social Studies was one of the core subjects of the school curriculum. There was the need for student-teachers at the Teacher Training Colleges to specialise in Social Studies to teach at the experimental Junior Secondary Schools. After training the first three batches of Social Studies teachers at the Teacher Training Colleges for the programme, it was realised that there was a glut of teachers because there was no corresponding expansion of the Junior Secondary Schools in terms of numbers. The result was that Social Studies had to be abandoned in the Training Colleges in the 1981/82 academic year (Tamakloe, 2008). There was no need for training specialist Social Studies teachers who could not be absorbed into the education system. This state of affairs in the Training Colleges of Ghana, together with the fact that Social Studies was not examined externally for certification, both at the Teacher Training Colleges and secondary school levels, made tutors and students alike to develop a half-hearted attitude to the study and development of Social Studies (Kankam, 2013). The development of Social Studies in the Teacher Training Colleges therefore has been characterised by unsteadiness due to both tutor's and students' perceptions and attitudes towards the programme since its inception. It is against this background that Tamakloe (1991) described the attempt at introducing Social Studies as one plagued with a "chequered history".

The 1987 Education Reform Review Committee was born as a result of the experimentation of some of the recommendations of the 1972 Dzobo Committee. The Review Committee Report of 1987 recommended six years Primary School, three years Junior Secondary School and Senior Secondary School education. The recommendation was implemented in 1987, which led to all Middle Schools being turned into Junior Secondary Schools. With this new reform in education, Social Studies was re-introduced in the Teacher Training Colleges as one of the elective subjects to train students to teach Social Studies at the Junior Secondary Schools. The 1987 Education Reform Programme aimed at changing the content of education at the basic level and to ensure its relevance to individual and societal needs (GES, 1987). Based on this, the New Education Reform Programme has brought in its trail Social Studies at the Basic Education level nationwide.

The aims and objectives of the Junior Secondary School Social Studies programmes reflected all the three domains of educational objective: cognitive, affective and psychomotor. The cognitive domain deals with the acquisition of knowledge, facts and ideas; the affective domain deals with the behavioural change of the learner whilst the psychomotor domain deals with the acquisition of skills (GES, 1987). The introduction of Social Studies at the basic education level necessitated the training of more teachers to have sound basis in the content for the courses at the Junior Secondary School level. Consequently, in 1990, Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana embarked on teaching of Social Studies after a new

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programme of instruction had been designed. The aims and objectives of the Teacher Training College Social Studies syllabus are to:

> Help the teacher trainees to be equipped with the subject content, the professional knowledge and skills that will enable them to handle confidently the Social Studies programme at the basic level of education. Hence, our goal in teaching Social Studies in the Teacher Training Colleges should be to help students to acquire knowledge and to effect a change in their attitudes and values in their society and the environment. It is also to equip them with the skills to teach for changes in the values and attitudes of pupils (GES, 1993, p. 1).

The Social Studies programme has been perceived differently and described in various ways by many writers over the years (Martollera, 1985). Some writers like Banks (1985) and Bar, Barth and Shermis (1977) perceive Social Studies as a single subject and a singular noun. Wesley (1950) perceives Social Studies as several subjects and therefore describe it as a plural noun. However, the writers in the field of Social Studies perceive the subject as an integrated subject because it integrates the social science subjects such as history, geography and civics for the purpose of citizenship education (Tamakloe, 1994).

It is common knowledge that the tutors and students at the Colleges of Education have different perception of the Social Studies programme, and

therefore are likely to approach the subject according to how they perceive it. There are two categories of tutors teaching Social Studies in the Colleges of Education in Ghana. The first category consists of those tutors who graduated in integrated Social Studies from either University of Cape Coast or University of Education, Winneba (Kankam, 2001). This first category of tutors studied the theory, principles and methods of teaching integrated Social Studies. Such tutors are likely to perceive Social Studies as an integrated subject with its main goal as citizenship education and therefore, teach the subject as prescribed by the Ghana Education Service. The second category of tutors studied the separate subjects such as History, Geography, Economics and other foundation subjects of Social Studies. Such tutors are not likely to get the principles underpinning integration in Social Studies. Hence, such tutors are not likely to perceive Social Studies as an integrated subject with its main focus on citizenship education. The GES (1993) prescribes that Social Studies should not be treated as separated and isolated subjects but rather as one integrated subject.

Goals and Purposes of Social Studies

It has been established that there is an endless debate regarding the purposes and goals of Social Studies and how particular social goals can be achieved (Ross, 2006). The debate, however, does not prevent the writing of the goals and purposes of Social Studies. The main goal of Social Studies has been mentioned as citizenship education which involves preparing citizens for active participation in a democracy by providing them with the essential knowledge, skills and values (Ross, 2006). The National Council for the Social Studies

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(1994) states that the basic goal of Social Studies education is to prepare the young people to be humane, rational, participating citizens in a world that is becoming increasingly interdependent.

The goals of Social Studies as given by the National Council for the Social Studies (1994) hang around five themes which are: (a) development of civic responsibility and citizen participation; (b) development of a global perspective through an understanding of students' life experiences as part of total human experience, past and present; (c) development of 'critical understanding' of the history, geography, and the pluralistic nature of civil institutions; (d) development of a multicultural perspective of the worlds' peoples through an understanding of their differences and commonalities throughout time and space; (e) development of students' capabilities for critical thinking about 'the human conditions'.

The five goals, according to Mullins (1990), were accompanied by recommendations on the characteristics of what content should be taught in Social Studies in the USA and these were:

1. History and Geography should be the unifying core of the Social Studies curriculum and should be integrated with concepts from economics, political science and social sciences,

2. Social Studies should be taught and learned consistently and cumulatively from kindergarten through grade 12,

3. The curriculum should impart skills and knowledge necessary for effective citizenship in democracy,

4. The curriculum should be balanced with the study of other cultures,

5. Superficial coverage of content should be replaced with indept study of selected content (p. 1).

These goals have served as the bedrock on what Social Studies aims to achieve and what content knowledge should be considered. Even though education for citizenship is the main focus of Social Studies, the consensus over citizenship education is fruitless as it is a highly contested area and content specific (Sears & Hughes, 2006). Barr, Bar and Shermis (1977) put up an insightful synthesis on Social Studies by suggesting competing analysis on the purpose and goals of Social Studies. They came out with three traditions that illustrate different approaches to Social Studies and these were put under content, purpose, and method such as: Social Studies taught as Citizenship Transmission: Social Studies taught as Social Science; and Social Studies as Reflective Inquiry. The citizenship transmission suggests citizenship is promoted through the inculcation of right values as guidelines for making decision. This relates to transmission of concepts and values through techniques such as textbook, recitation, lecture, question and answer sessions and structured problem solving exercises.

The second approach is taught as a Social Science and it is based on the grounds that citizenship is best promoted by decision making based on the mastery of the social sciences concepts and problems. The method of teaching is based on the discovery of social science different methods. The subject matter is derived from structure, concepts and processes found in each subject and the integrated social science discipline (Barr et al., 1977).

The third approach is that Social Studies is taught as Reflective inquiry. Citizenship is taught via a process of inquiry. In this approach, students identify problems, ponder over them and test for some insights. Barr et al. (1977) argue that it is this self-selection that constitutes the content of reflection. Researchers have pointed out that the identification of these traditions have aided in explaining the tension in the field of Social Studies (Evans, 2004; Thornton, 2005).

The Structure of Social Studies Education in Junior High Schools in Ghana

Social Studies at the JHSs level is a study of the problems of society. The subject prepares the individual to fit into society by equipping him or her with knowledge about the culture and ways of life of their society, its problems, its values and its hopes for the future. The subject is multi-disciplinary and takes its sources from geography, history, sociology, psychology, economics and civic education. Essential elements of the knowledge and principles from these disciplines are integrated into a subject that stands on its own. As a subject, Social Studies helps pupils to understand their society better; helps them to investigate how their society functions and hence assists them to develop that critical and at the same time developmental kind of mind that transforms societies. Our society has been a slow moving society. It is hoped that as pupils understand the Ghanaian society better, and are able to examine the society's institutions and ways of life with a critical and constructive mind, the country will surely be on the path to better and faster growth in development (GES, 2007).

Social Studies at the Junior High School level is concerned with equipping the pupil with an integrated body of knowledge, skills and attitudes that will help

the pupil develop a broader perspective of Ghana and the world. The integration is achieved in the three sections of the syllabus each of which focuses respectively on, the Environment; Governance, Politics and Stability; and Social and Economic Development (GES, 2007). The subject has been structured to cover the three years of Junior High School. Each year's work consists of three sections with each section comprising a number of units. A section consists of a fairly homogeneous body of knowledge within the subject. Within each section are units. A unit consists of a more related homogeneous body of knowledge and skills. Each unit presents one coherent topic within the broader section (GES, 2007).

Each section of the syllabus is structured in five columns: Units, Specific Objectives, Content, Teaching and Learning Activities, and Evaluation. The units in Column 1 are divisions of the major topic of the section, Column 2 shows the Specific Objective for each unit. The content in the third column of the syllabus presents a selected body of information that teachers can use in teaching particular objectives of the unit. Teacher and Learner activities that will ensure maximum pupil's participation in the lessons are presented in Column 4 while suggestions and exercises for evaluating the lessons of each unit are indicated in Column 5. Evaluation exercise adopted by Social Studies at the Junior High School level include oral questions, quizzes, class exercises, essays, structured questions, project work and investigations (GES, 2007).

Nature of Supervision of Instruction at the Junior High School Level

There are two major types of supervisions at the basic education level which are planned and carried out by regional, district director, head teacher or Local Manager inside or outside the school environment (MOEYS, 2004). The two types of supervision are: internal supervision and external supervision. Internal supervision is conducted by the teachers and the Headteachers within the schools. It is incumbent on the teachers, to teach their pupils as well as supervise all the learning activities of pupils within their respective classrooms. Headteachers are the general internal supervisors at the school level. They supervise the activities of both pupils and teachers. They also supervise the use of instructional materials as well as instructional time. There is, therefore, the need for Headteachers to create favourable climates in their schools to ensure effective teaching and learning (MOEYS, 2004).

Headteachers are expected occasionally to observe how their teachers deliver their lessons. They are required to vet their teachers' lesson plans and supply them with some teaching and learning materials. Headteachers have a duty to ensure that they organise staff meetings regularly to ensure that matters affecting the school, pupils and staff are discussed thoroughly and dispassionately. This helps to obviate any misunderstanding and keeps the staff united and focused to fight for a common goal. Moreover, Headteachers check class attendance registers to make sure that they are duly marked and closed. Finally, it is the Headteachers' responsibility to see to it that tools and

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implements, science kits as well as other teaching and learning materials are released for use, cleaned after use and stored well (Yakubu, 2013).

According to Taibbi (2013), there are several challenges associated with internal supervision. These include: The supervisor may have more experience but may be a colleague. It is difficult to maintain the type of relationship that previously existed once someone becomes a supervisor. Those being supervised often feel different about the supervisor and will no longer treat them as a confidant. Setting aside a regularly scheduled time for supervision can become a difficult task to do when one is next door to the supervisee. Supervision cannot be treated casually and needs to be completed on a regularly scheduled basis that works for both the supervisor and supervisee.

External supervision, on the other hand, is a type of supervision that is carried out by personnel coming from outside the school such as the district director of education, assistant director in charge of supervision, circuit supervisors and sometimes other officers from the District, Municipal or Metropolitan Education Directorate (Yakubu, 2013). The circuit supervisor (CS) is another important officer as far as instructional supervision is concerned. By the Ghana Education Service standards, the CS should be a graduate by qualification and of the rank of principal superintendent or above. The CS conducts regular visits to their circuit schools. They are supposed to visit each school at least once and at most three times in a term. The CS also gives professional guidance, supports and interprets educational policies to

teachers. They present reports to the District Director of Education (DDE) through the Assistant Director of Education (ADE) in charge of supervision (MOEYS, 2004). The Kumasi Metropolitan Education Directorate has 30 circuits with 30 circuit supervisors who are in charge of the 30 circuits (Kumasi Metropolitan Education Directorate, 2014). The Assistant Director of Education in charge of supervision monitors and supervises the activities of the circuit supervisors. He moves occasionally to familiarise himself with the actual situation on the ground and to find out whether the circuit supervisors' reports are genuine. He holds periodic meetings with circuit supervisors to address their professional needs and gives them moral support (MOEYS, 2004).

External supervision is confronted with a lot of challenges (Taibbi, 2013). The supervisor may provide advice that conflicts with the advice of the internal supervisor (headteacher). Conflicting advice often comes when the internal supervisor may not be a circuit supervisor. When supervisees receive conflicting advice it has the potential to create ethical dilemmas. Taibbi mentions further that when ethical dilemmas do not have a good solution, the supervisee may experience moral distress. Moral distress occurs when one knows the right thing to do but is constrained from pursuing the appropriate course of action. The inability to pursue the appropriate course of action may further be the result of agency policies or internal supervisor values that conflict with external supervisors' values. Lack of time, supervisory reluctance, and inhibiting medical power structure, institutional policy, or legal

considerations are other major challenges confronting external supervision (Taibbi, 2013).

Relevance of the Reviewed Literature to my Study

This review of related literature is relevant to my study in several ways. It has highlighted the relevant practices that constitute instructional supervision in general. It also throws light on the various means through which teachers can experience instructional supervision. In the case of Social Studies in JHSs, teachers can experience instructional supervision either through clinical supervision, cognitive coaching or mentoring. In order to address the challenges confronting effective supervision of instruction, the literature points out measures such as connecting instructional supervision to the professional development of teachers, allocating sufficient time for the instructional supervisory process, discussing the outcome of the observation with teachers as well as building cordial and collegial relationship between instructional supervisors and teachers. Finally, the literature identified several models of instructional supervision that could be adopted by instructional supervisors in facilitating the supervisory process. Among these models include the clinical supervision model, the contextual supervision, scientific supervision, human resource supervision, developmental supervision, and differentiated supervision.

Summary of Literature Review

Historically, school supervision as a field of educational supervision has passed through many changes in different countries. The concept of school instructional supervision was related with external inspection aimed at monitoring

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and control of teachers' performance and school improvement. Because of the dynamic changes in the school environment and increased teachers' demand for guidance and support in different countries, there is a shift from external school supervision to school-based (in-school) instructional supervision. However, in Ghana, the out-of-school (external) supervision and school-based (in-school) supervision types are being practiced in JHSs all over the country.

Beginning and experienced teachers have their own needs and preferences in the instruction process. The literature suggests that teachers should have access to various experiences of instructional supervisory approaches (such as clinical supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, mentoring, reflective coaching, teaching portfolios, and professional growth plans) in order to enhance their professional growth and instructional efficiency. Because of the evaluative nature of general supervision in the past, some teachers and instructional supervisors in today's schools associate instructional supervision with appraisal, rating and controlling. For many less experienced teachers, instructional supervision is meaningless exercise with little value than completion of the required evaluation form. However, unless teachers perceive and experience instructional supervision as a process of promoting professional growth and students' learning, the supervisory practice will not bring the desired effect.

Although the literature review informs my study in several ways, there are gaps that need to be filled. The available literature on supervision of instruction is skewed in favour of general practices that constitute instructional supervision in Ghana and other parts of the world. The literature does not cover the different

practices that constitute instructional supervision in Social Studies in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis. Also, the various ways in which instructional supervision is experienced by teachers in Social Studies was missing in the literature review. Another gap found in the reviewed literature is the measures to promote effective supervision of Social Studies instruction in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis. Mostly, general measures of improving instructional supervision are outlined leaving specific measures that could be adopted to improve instructional supervision in Social Studies in public JHSs the Kumasi Metropolis.

The focus of the current study is therefore to fill these gaps in the literature. The study covers such areas as how teachers experience instructional supervision, practices that constitute instructional supervision, as well as measures to improve instructional supervision.
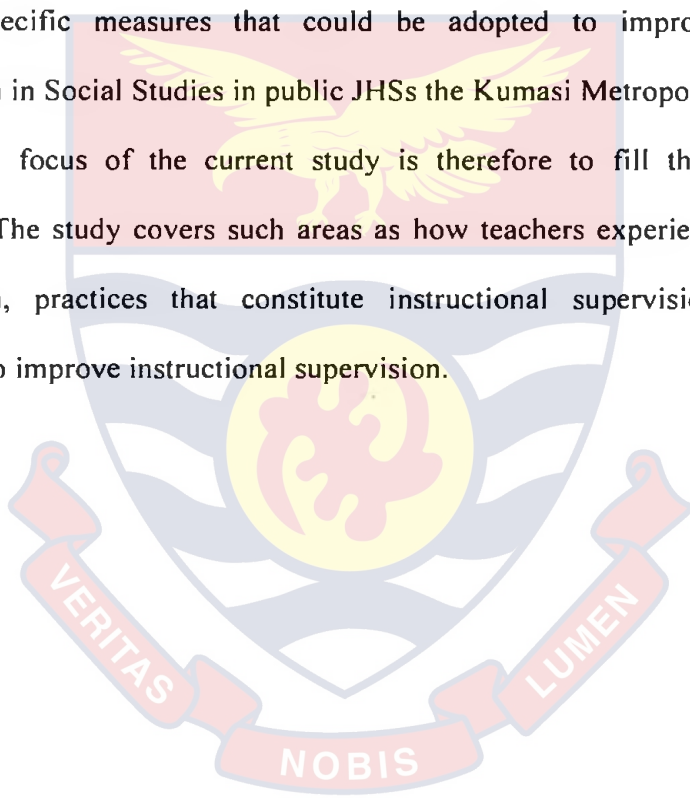
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Overview

This chapter discusses the study area, research design, and population. The demographic characteristics of the respondents and the instruments used to collect the data are also described. The chapter continues with discussion of the pilot-testing of the instrument, validity, reliability, data collection procedure, the ethical considerations, and data analysis.

Study Area

This study was conducted in the Kumasi Metropolis. Kumasi (historically spelt Comassie or Coomassie) is the capital city of the Asante Kingdom. It is situated on the semi-island exclave Ashantiland. Although located in the heart of the forest, Asante dominion was extended by military action and political skill towards the European occupied castles on the coast to the south, and also into the dry savannah lands to the north. This led to various wars with Britain. The Asante kingdom was founded by the great King Osei Tutu I (1680 to 1717) in the eighteenth century. His fetish priest, Okomfo Anokye, unified the Asante states through allegiance to the Golden Stool, which miraculously descended from heaven. Getting to the end of the 17th century, Okomfo Anokye planted three "Kum" trees at different places (McCaskie, 2007).

One at Kwaaman ruled by the Nananomayokofuo, a second one at Apemso-Bankofo ruled by Nananomaduanafuo and a third a village near Fomena and Amoafo called Oboani ruled by Nananomekuonafuo. The tree at Oboani was very

tiny and for no apparent reason was relatively short. According to oral tradition, this small tree however produced a couple of other trees which were all small in size. The name of the village was changed to "Kuma", meaning "small Kum". The "Kum" tree at Apemso-Bankofo did not grow at all. After some few weeks the leaves got rotten and the tree fell down and so it was said that the "Kum" tree has died or the "Kum tree" was dead and so the village became "Kum-awu" and this later changed to become Kumawu. The "Kum" tree at Kwaaman however flourished and became a very big tree under which the King and his people often sat and so Kwaaman became "Kum-ase" which later changed to Kumasi, meaning "under Kum" (McCaskie, 2007).

Kumasi Metropolis is situated 30 kilometers north-east of Lake Bosumtwi, in a rain forest region. The Metropolis is situated west and south of Lake Volta and approximately 500 kilometres (300 miles) north of the Equator and 200 kilometres (100 miles) north of the Gulf of Guinea. The governmental and political administration of Kumasi Metropolis is through the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly (KMA) which is for effective administration sub-divided into ten sub-metros, namely Nhyiaeso, Asokwa, Subin, Bantama, Manhyia, Manso, Tafo, Kwadaso, Asawase, and Oforikrom (Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2015).

The official language of the Metropolis is Ashanti Twi which is used along with the English language. Kumasi Metropolis' strategic location within Ashanti contributed significantly to the growing wealth of the city. Over the duration of Kumasi Metropolis' existence, a number of peculiar factors have combined to transform Kumasi Metropolis into a fitting financial centre and

political capital of Ashanti and the Ashanti kingdom as well as Ashantiland. The main causal factors included the unquestioning loyalty to the Ashanti monarchy with Kumasi Metropolis' growing wealth deriving in part from the Kumasi Metropolis lucrative domestic-trade in items such as bullion gold bars with an array of other industrial minerals, technology, weapons manufacturing to industrial crops with agricultural machinery as well as real estate development implemented by the Ashanti and Kumasi Metropolis workforce driven by the domestic native Ashanti people population of Kumasi Metropolis (Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2015).

The Metropolis is the most populous district in the Ashanti Region. During the 2010 Population Census it recorded a figure of 2,035,064 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). Kumasi has attracted such a large population partly because it is the regional capital, and also the most commercialised centre in the region. Other reasons include the centrality of Kumasi as a nodal city with major arterial routes linking it to other parts of the country and also the fact that it is an educational centre with two State Universities, a Private University, a Polytechnic, two Colleges of Education, 19 Senior High Schools and 346 Basic Schools (Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2015).

Although the Kumasi Metropolis is Asante dominated, almost all the other ethnic groups in Ghana are represented. Ethnic and cultural diversity abounds tremendously in the Metropolis, but they are closely-knit together in a harmonious relationship. The diverse ethnic groups in the area can be attributed to factors such as the rate of in migration into the Metropolis as a result of its

strategic location and also rapid urbanization, the ability of these diverse ethnic groups to co- exist with each other and share cultural values, and the presence of a strong traditional administrative set-up that galvanises cohesion among the diverse ethnic groups (Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2015).

Research Design

This study employed the mixed methods survey design, with both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. Multiple data sources and methods of data gathering increased the credibility and dependability of the data. This is because the strengths of one source compensate for the potential weaknesses of the other (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2006). Mixed method approaches was also used in order to answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because I was not confined to a single method or approach. Mixed-methods also provided stronger evidence for the conclusions of my study through convergence and corroboration of findings. It must be pointed out that mixing methods is not primarily to search for corroboration, but rather to expand understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. The purpose of using a mixed method design was to use both the responses obtained from the questionnaire and those from the interviews to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research questions asked. Secondly, I used the results from one instrument to confirm or corroborate findings from the other (Creswell, 2003). Since I collected data at one point in time, the cross-sectional survey was employed. I collected data from the teachers at one point in time (1st and 15th June, 2015). Cross-sectional surveys may use both questionnaire and interviews to gather

information from respondents (Babbie, 2007), Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen 2006; Creswell, 2003). Another major reason for using this design was that it offered me the opportunity to collect a wide scope of information from a large population. It was also used because of its usefulness in assessing practices, attitudes, knowledge and beliefs of the population in relation to supervision of instruction in Social Studies (Babbie, 2007). The results from my study not only gave an indication of the magnitude of the problem at a particular point in time, but also provided a basis for proposing appropriate measures to deal with the problem.

One important advantage of the cross-sectional survey was that in general it was relatively fast and less expensive. This is because there was no need for a follow up, so fewer resources (funds, pens, books, etc) were required to conduct the study. On the other hand, it did not provide opportunity for respondents to answer questions thoroughly across the various public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis.

Based on the research questions and the purposes of the study, I adopted the pragmatist paradigm. This paradigm was chosen because it is most suitable in situations where complex and pluralistic social contexts demand analysis that is informed by multiple and diverse perspectives. The pragmatist paradigm considers the mixed methods approach (Rallis & Rossman, 2003). This philosophy focuses on the research problem and where the researcher uses all approaches available to understand the problem (Creswell & Clark, 2011). In my study, research questions were addressed not within a wholly quantitative or

qualitative approach to design and methodology but a combination of the two. My study was a pluralistic based on a rejection of the forced choice between post positivism and constructivism. It placed the research problem at the centre in order to understand the research context.

In a mixed methods approach, I built knowledge on pragmatic grounds asserting that truth is what works (Creswell, 2013). Here, researchers choose unit of analysis as well as approaches which are most appropriate for finding answers to their research questions. I also sought many approaches to collect (questionnaire and interviews) and analyse data (quantitative and qualitative mehods) instead of sticking to one way. It thus embraced ideas from multiple realities by reporting different perspectives of the study participants. The information gathered also represented the subjective views of the respondents as especially through the use of interviews. This paradigm was deemed appropriate because the mixed methods answered simultaneously confirmatory and exploratory questions. Secondly, they provided the opportunity through divergent findings for an expression of differing viewpoints. It also enhanced logic of triangulation, an ability to fill in the gaps left when using one dominant approach, the use of quantitative research to facilitate qualitative research and vice versa.

Population

The population for the study consisted of all 346 Junior High School Social Studies Teachers, 10 Headteachers, and 10 circuit supervisors in all the 186 Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis in the 2014/2015 academic year. This constituted the target population of the study. The Teachers were selected

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because they directly experience instructional supervision and have in-depth knowledge about issues relating to practices that constitute instructional supervision in the Metropolis. The rationale for choosing JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis was due to the differences in practices that constitute instructional supervision in various public Junior High Schools in the Metropolis and the differences in the ways in which Social Studies Teachers experience instructional supervision in the Metropolis. All the teachers were however included (census) in the study due to their small size.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

Both census and purposive sampling techniques were used to select participants for the study. The census study covered the entire population (all teachers, 346) in the Metropolis under study. I used a census method to select all the teachers to respond to the questionnaire and the purposive sampling technique was used to select headteachers and circuit supervisors for the interview. The purposive sampling technique was used because the headteachers and the circuit supervisors were selected based on their qualifications and characteristics they possessed in terms of supervision of instruction which related to the study. This was because the importance of purposive sampling lies in the quality of knowledge of the participants in the study but not the size of the sample (Patton, 1990). They were therefore typical or representative to be chosen from the population.

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Teachers

The demographic data covered gender, age, work experience, education level, and rank. The outcome of socio-demographic characteristics is shown in Table 1.

Table 1- *Demographic Information on Teachers*

Demographics	Subscale	No.	%
Gender	Male	178	52.2
	Female	163	47.8
Age	Up to 25	0	0.0
	26 - 30	0	0.0
	31 - 35	12	3.5
	36 years and above	329	96.5
Working experience	1 – 5	10	2.9
	6 – 10	56	16.4
	11 – 15	118	34.6
	16 years and above	157	46.0
Level of education	Initial teacher training	0	0.0
	Diploma	31	9.1
	First Degree	137	40.2
	Postgraduate Degree	173	50.7
Rank	Superintendent II	11	3.2
	Superintendent I	20	5.7
	Principal Superintendent	310	90.9

Gender Distribution of Teachers

Gender serves as a significant part of instructional supervision. It permeates all interactions, functioning as a lens through which people interpret and classify the world (Haddock, Zimmerman, & MacPhee, 2000). Women and men encounter different developmental tasks related to their gender and socialisation experiences. Haddock, Zimmerman, and MacPhee (2000) point out that the gender of educational personnel may also influence how tasks are addressed and issues discussed. The above informed the formulation of item 1 of the questionnaire to seek the distribution of gender of the respondents.

From Table 1, 178 (52.2%) of the teachers were males and 163 (47.8%) were females. The Social Studies teachers' population is therefore representative in terms of gender although the number of female teachers compared to that of males was slightly higher. Given the significance of gender, it seems that being male or female teacher would shape respondents' experiences of instructional supervision. Gender does not only influence how the teachers interact, but also how they interpret their experiences (Miller & Wieling, 2002). Miller and Wieling (2002) contend further that female teachers experience challenges in several areas, including a heightened need to demonstrate credibility and leadership early in the instructional process. Moorhouse and Carr (2002) also illuminate how gender affects conversational behaviour between supervisors and teachers and suggest that both male and female teachers present a directive supervision style more frequently in instruction.

Age Distribution of Teachers

Jenkin (2007) asserts that employers complain that younger employees are uncommitted to their jobs and work for only the required hours and little more. Conversely, older employees may be workaholics. Jenkin continues that older employees have been characterised as the most hardworking generation than younger generation. Whether the younger generations do not work as hard as older ones is debatable. This assertion influenced the inclusion of age on the questionnaire. I wanted to explore the age difference among the respondents and how that affected the way they experience instructional supervision.

Table 1 indicates that the age distribution of Social Studies teachers ranges from 31 – 35 years, and 36 years and above with the majority 329 (96.5%) being 36 years and above. The implication of the outcome on my study is that as age increased, reported work ethic decreased, indicating that younger teachers reported higher work ethics than older workers.

Work Experience of Teachers

Table 1 further shows that majority of teachers have more than 10 years experience in the teaching profession. This implies that teachers have been engaged in different practices that constitute the supervision of instruction and have experienced instructional supervision in diverse ways for many years. This will provide fertile grounds for them to offer valuable suggestions and contributions towards this study. They can make use of knowledge and skills that they have acquired over the years to improve their current roles. In view of this, Adkins (1995) argues that individuals with much experience in similar tasks may

learn new tasks more quickly. In addition to this, Rynes, Orlitzky, and Bretz (1997) posit that every institution seeks employees whose prior work experience is similar to the current needs of the institution because they expect that these employees will bring knowledge that enables them to be immediately productive.

Highest Academic Qualification of Teachers

It would be proper for teachers to possess higher qualifications and longer years of teaching experience. Such teachers would have sufficient knowledge and experience in both content and pedagogy to be able to confidently assist, guide and exhibit excellent teaching skills. It was based on this premise that item 4 was designed to gather data on the academic qualification of teachers. From the outcome, over 50 percent possessed University Degrees and few were Diploma holders. Table 1 shows that the respondents possessed the required qualification which enabled them to teach Social Studies. In support of this outcome, Fokuo (1994) asserts that the Social Studies educators should have a sound academic knowledge in addition to good professional training. Indeed, Davies, Gregory, and Riley (1999) express the need for educators to have academic background that puts them in a particularly good position to approach Social Studies education confidently and skillfully. Since majority of the respondents had First Degrees and Postgraduate Degrees, they are better positioned to improve the teaching of Social Studies with the expertise they have acquired. According to Aggarwal (2001), Social Studies more than any other subject, requires well prepared, conscientious men and women of sound knowledge and training whose personalities rank high among men and women. Aggarwal (2001) stresses further

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that scholarship and professional training are the first two essential requirements for the Social Studies educators. Tamakloe (1991) shares Aggarwal's (2001) views when he points out that the teacher must be well grounded in a variety of teaching methods and also possess adequate knowledge in several disciplines. Also, Okoro (2004) asserts that education personnel with higher qualifications are more likely to perform better in the field than those with lower qualification. He continues that education personnel with higher qualifications display more confidence in their work. In addition, they are more accessible to quality information, and adapt to changing occupational conditions than their counterparts with lower qualification, who are usually more indisposed and ill-equipped in adapting to modern changes.

Rank of Teachers

Staff with high ranks may not appreciate equal respect showed to all, and may want to be treated with more respect than one would show someone at a lower level in the hierarchy or with less experience (Deal, 2007). Therefore, meeting the expectations of respect that individuals hold may be a genuine challenge which can affect the performance of the individuals. This informed the formulation of item 5 of the questionnaires to explore the ranks of the respondents. Table 1 shows that majority, 310 (90.9%) were Principal Superintendent with few (3.2%) with the rank of Superintendent II.

The implication of this outcome on my study is that since majority of the respondents have risen through the various ranks in the Ghana Education Service, they can utilise the experience, knowledge and skills acquired in their past ranks

to improve their performance in teaching in Social Studies. In support of this, Meyer (2002) posits that institutions with teachers at various ranks tend to be more reliable and found more difficulty to shift job from one to another due to emotional attachment with the institution. This shows an affective commitment and satisfaction of the teachers towards institution.

Instruments

The questionnaire and a standardized open-ended (semi-structured) interview protocol (see Appendices A, B, and C) were used. The questionnaire consisted of five parts. Part A was made up of the socio-demographical information about the participants. This part consisted of five items on gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank of respondents (items 1 to 5). Part B consisted of 11 items (items 6-16). These items were used to gather data on practices that constitute instructional supervision. Item 16 was however an open-ended item. Part C covered ways supervision of instruction is experienced by teachers in public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis and consisted of 16 items (items 17-32), 15 close-ended items and 1 open-ended item while Part D consisted of 11 items (33-43) which gathered data on the challenges that confront supervision of instruction. Ten of the items were close-ended while one was an open-ended. Part E was made up of 10 items (items 44-53) which gathered data on measures that can be put in place to improve supervision of instruction in Social Studies. One of the items was however an open-ended.

A 5-point Likert-type scale was used: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = uncertain, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree. Items were structured along the

difficult to retrieve them after the respondents had responded to the items as some of the respondents preferred to respond to the items at their own convenient time. As a result five questionnaires could not be retrieved from the teachers.

I used interviews to complement the questionnaire because interviews enabled me to better understand the perspectives of the circuit supervisors and headteachers (Patton, 1990). Interviews also allowed a wide range of respondents' understanding to be explored, and helped revealed important aspects instructional supervision in Social Studies. Semi-structured interviews allowed the respondents to focus on the research questions, yet opened up new avenues for further questions. The semi-structured interview consisted of 10 items which focused on the first four research questions.

I chose interviews because they have the potential to provide insight into supervisory practice, since they provided the opportunity to probe further for explanations of responses provided by respondents. Furthermore, interviews were intended to provide additional information that would be difficult to capture using a questionnaire. Interviews were also appropriate because they allowed exploration of variables under investigation in greater detail, and so complemented the survey (Creswell, 2003). Even though an open-ended semi-structured interview allows less flexibility than an unstructured interview, it can reduce interviewer effect and facilitate data analysis (Patton, 1990).

Pilot-testing

The instruments were pilot-tested in the Cape Coast Metropolis with 50 JHS Social Studies teachers. This was because the Kumasi and Cape Coast

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Metropolis bear similar characteristics in terms of practices (the pre-observation of instruction, the actual observation stage, and the post-observation stage) and experiences (clinical, mentoring, peer coaching) that constitute supervision of instruction in Social Studies. To facilitate the pilot-testing exercise, a letter of introduction (see Appendix D) was obtained from the Metropolitan Directorate of Education, Cape Coast, and was handed to the headteachers of the respective schools as well as the respective circuit supervisors. The pilot-testing was conducted between 13th and 20th April, 2015.

Pilot-testing the instrument aimed at ensuring that the questionnaire was suitable to elicit the responses from the Social Studies teachers on instructional supervision in Social Studies, to check the clarity of the items and to identify, restructure and re-phrase any ambiguities that existed. It was also meant to ensure that administration procedures were effective. The outcome of the pilot-test provided very beneficial feedback before the actual data collection exercise. Besides, the layout of the questionnaire needed to be revised in terms of ensuring the consistency of font size and line spacing. This made the planning for the actual field work less stressful and less difficult. More importantly, the pilot-testing of the instrument enabled me to establish the internal consistency reliability of the instrument.

Validity of the Instruments

This study incorporated the procedures of content validity. The claim for content validity was based on the examination of the survey instrument by

educational professionals. I took the following steps in order to ensure the content validity of the questionnaire's items:

1. The design of the questionnaire and the interview protocol was influenced by the literature reviewed in my study and the conceptual framework to ensure that the questionnaire reflects the representative themes.

2. The questionnaire and the interview protocol were initially revised by my supervisors who commented on the layout of the questionnaire, the wording and possibilities of similar statement. The aim was to reveal any ambiguity, threatening questions and other problems which needed to be sorted before trying out the questionnaire.

3. Researchers (Best & Kahn, 1998; Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996) advocated pilot-testing the survey instrument prior to its delivery to the participants. In this regard, the instrument was piloted with a group of Social Studies teachers, headteachers and circuit supervisors in JHSs in the Cape Coast Metropolis. These individuals reviewed the instrument, commented on its appropriateness, and made recommendations for change. The feedback helped to ensure that the instrument measured what it was intended to measure.

Based on that, the following changes were done to the final version of the questionnaire:

1. The items were put in five (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Undecided, Agree, and Strongly Agree) scales because I wanted to give room for respondents who were uncertain about some of the items.

2. The abbreviations such as A, U, and D which represented Agree, Uncertain, and Disagree in the columns of the Likert-type scale were substituted with the whole words, to make it easy for the respondent to choose.

Reliability of the Questionnaire

The development of multi-item rating scale required evaluation of the scale for reliability. According to Greenleaf (1992), a multi-item scale should be evaluated for accuracy and applicability. In relation to my study, this involved testing for internal consistency among the items measuring each construct.

Table 2 - *Reliability Coefficient*

Constructs	Reliability
1. Create awareness of my teaching and its consequences on my learners	0.913
2. Establish open and trusting relationship with me	0.922
3. Provide opportunities for me to meet and share ideas about instruction with him/her	0.913
4. Guide me to plan for lesson observation	0.911
5. Guide me to work collaboratively with other teachers in pairs and small teams to observe each other's teaching	0.908
6. Collaborate with me to make decisions about my instruction	0.912
7. Engage me in mutual dialogue with supervisors about ways to improve my instructional practices	0.917

Table 2 - *Reliability Coefficient Cont'd*

8. Help me to implement agreed-upon changes in my instructional behavior	0.917
9. Develop possible strategies for initiating improvement of my instruction	0.914
10. Work with me to analyse and reflect on my teaching performance	0.911
11. Pair me with experienced supervisors to be able to learn from him or her	0.908
12. Engage me in pre-observation discussions before the actual supervision	0.908
13. Formally observe teaching and learning in my classroom	0.909
14. Supervise every aspect of my instruction from beginning to the end	0.914
15. provide objective feedback about my classroom observations	0.909
16. Engage me in post supervision discussion to discuss the outcome of the supervision	0.913
17. Create the opportunity for me to select areas I wish to improve upon and the steps to improve upon those areas	0.911
18. Guide me to reflect on my instructional professional goals after every supervision session	0.912

Table 2 - *Reliability Coefficient Cont'd*

19. Engage me more actively in the assessment process of instructional supervision	0.913
20. Work with me to develop and carry out individual goal-setting activities and long-term projects relating to teaching	0.909
21. Guide me to improve upon my instructional methods and the ability to adapt instruction to meet students' needs	0.907
22. Supervise the pre-instructional stage	0.910
23. Supervise the actual instructional in the classroom	0.915
24. Engage me in post-supervision discussion	0.909
25. Provide immediate feedback on instructional supervision	0.912
26. Provide comprehensive feedback on instructional supervision.	0.908
27. Visit my school on time for instructional supervision.	0.906
28. Conduct regular instructional supervision in my school	0.913
29. Observe classroom teaching for full periods in my school	0.908
30. Supervise the lesson and yet they write reports on the teachers	0.904
31. Follow laid down guidelines to supervise my instruction	0.914

Table 2 - *Reliability Coefficient Cont'd*

22. Support me as I adapt, adopt, and refine the instructional practices I implement	0.917
23. Work with me to compile assignments, class exercises, class tests, and home works	0.916
24. Guide me to evaluate myself and develop my teaching practice	0.913
25. Work with me to systematically plan for my own professional growth in teaching	0.912
26. There should be capacity building among instructional supervisors	0.921
27. I should be given immediate and comprehensive feedback on classroom supervision	0.907
28. Instructions should be supervised by individuals who possess adequate knowledge and experience in instructional supervision	0.923
29. Sufficient time should be given to planning for the supervisory process	0.909
30. There should be a pre-conference and discussions between supervisors and supervisees to enable teachers improve upon their weaknesses	0.912

Table 2 - *Reliability Coefficient Cont'd*

31. Supervisory officials should acquaint themselves with the models, techniques and principles of supervision	0.909
32. Headteachers should be actively involved in the supervisory process	0.920
33. I should be involved in the planning of the supervisory process	0.921
34. Qualified instructional supervisors should be selected	0.901
35. Varied supervisory practice should be emphasised for effective instructional supervisory exercise	0.905

Source: Field Survey (2015)

In order to determine whether I succeeded in testing the constructs I sought to test the individual items were tested for reliability (Table 2). This was compiled by computing the Cronbach's alpha coefficient which indicated the degree of item-total correlation. It varies from 0 to 1 and a value of 0.6 or less generally indicates unsatisfactory internal-consistency reliability and therefore helps in deciding whether to delete an item from the list and whether the elimination improves the corresponding alpha values (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry, 1988).

I used the Cronbach's alpha against the background that its values tend to increase with an increase in the number of items in a scale. Individual items with corrected item-to-total correlation below 0.6 were eliminated. In all, the total number of items eliminated was 14. The items that remained after this step are

presented in Table 2. The items under each construct therefore possessed item-total-correlation coefficients. Although Malhotra and Birks (2000) state that the coefficient alpha is artificially and inappropriately inflated by including several redundant scale items, it was favoured against others because of its popularity among social science researchers.

Data Collection Procedure

Each JHS was contacted separately to schedule an appropriate time to administer the questionnaire to the Social Studies teachers. In each school, a briefing section was organised to brief respondents on the study. This was done to a) explain the goals of the study; b) direct respondents' attention to their rights during the course of the study; c) clarify the instructions for responding to the items; and d) obtain a good return rate and more accurate data. The respondents were also assured of confidentiality of their responses. To facilitate the administration of the questionnaire, letters of introduction which were obtained from the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education, University of Cape Coast (see Appendix E) and Kumasi Metropolitan Directorate of Education (see Appendix F) were given to the Social Studies teachers and the headteachers of the respective schools as well as the respective circuit supervisors. The questionnaires were then distributed personally to the participants between 1st and 15th June, 2015 when permission was granted.

I also personally conducted face-to-face interviews with 10 headteachers and 10 circuit supervisors. Personally conducting the interviews improves the reliability of the interview process since a consistent approach was adopted. The

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interview conducted for this study followed a uniform protocol to ensure that the interviews yielded data consistent with the study's goals. In the first place, participants were invited to the study by the researcher, and were informed of the risks involved. Secondly, in-depth (semi-structured) interviews were held with participants in their respective schools and offices. Thirdly, interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed within a day of the interviews. Finally, follow up informal contact was initiated, and I played back the recorded conversation to the interviewees to make sure they agreed to what had been shared and also to ensure that the conversation was properly recorded. This was also done because of the difficulties in sending the transcripts back to the interviewees. Each participant was also given his or her respective transcript for member-checking, and to verify transcript content. The interviews with headteachers and the circuit supervisors lasted between 10 and 15 minutes. The interview times were short because the items were few (11) and also the open-ended questions were straight-forward but allowed for flexibility. Even though the interview questions were standardized open-ended items, I probed further for more detailed information when interviewees provided responses which I thought were incomplete.

Response Rate

An important aspect of any survey is the response rate which suggests the level of participation of the respondents. Usually, high non-response rate has implication for the quality of the data. A total of 346 JHSs Social Studies Teachers were included in the study, of which 341 (98.6%) provided usable data for the study. Thus, it was the data of the 341 Social Studies teachers that were

used in the data analysis. On the part of the circuit supervisors and the headteachers, all availed themselves for the interview section. I obtained high response rate because I sent prior notification to all the teachers drawing their attention to the purpose of the study and the potential benefits of the study. This increased my chances for a greater reception when I approached them to collect the data. The percentage difference of non-response (1.4%) for the Teachers was due to the fact that the respondents refused to return their questionnaires to me.

Ethical Consideration

Ethically, it was prudent to seek the consent of respondents before instruments were administered. The respondents were given autonomy, that is, they had the right to be informed about the nature and the consequences of the research in which they were involved. Proper respect for human freedom was ensured by giving the teachers the opportunity to agree voluntarily to participate – that is, without physical or psychological coercion and also their agreement were based on full and open information I gave them. Deliberate misrepresentation is forbidden in research. The straightforward application of this principle suggests that researchers conduct data gathering free from active deception. Teachers were given adequate knowledge of the study being conducted and no vital information concerning their involvement was hidden. They were made to understand that data that were gathered were used for the purpose for which they were gathered, that is academic and not anything else. I explained the purpose and gave the teachers the opportunity to ask questions about methods and procedures

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pertaining to the research. Information offered by the respondents was therefore used only for the purpose of the study.

Ethics in research insist on safeguards to protect participants' identities. Confidentiality must be assured as the primary safeguard against unwanted exposure. All personal data ought to be secured or concealed and made public only behind a shield of anonymity. In the case of this study, respondents were asked not to give personal private information. Copies of the questionnaire were given to the headteachers for their personal perusal in order to make sure that the data collection process and the information required would not infringe on the rights of the teachers, and also create ethical problems to the schools. After they had gone through, they offered their acceptance to offer the requisite information for the study.

Data Analysis

Data from the questionnaires were analysed separately to answer the three research questions. The data from the questionnaire were organised into four sections based on the research questions and the purposes of the study such that each section provided answers for each research question. Prior to coding and tabulating the items on the questionnaires for analysis, all the items were checked. This helped me to check to see if instructions had been followed uniformly and whether all items had been responded to. The responses to the questionnaires were then coded by assigning numbers to the various categories of responses for the purposes of analyses. That is, "strongly disagree" was scored 1, "disagree" was scored 2, "undecided" was scored 3, "agree" was scored 4 while "strongly

agree" was scored 5. After checking incomplete and inaccurate questionnaire, the items on the questionnaires were transferred to a spreadsheet (Statistical Product and Service Solutions, version 18.0). The data were then cleaned by examining them for any errors and were finally analysed using the SPSS.

Research questions one, two, three and four were analysed using frequency counts, percentages, means, and standard deviations, while research question five was analysed using Factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) (See Table 3).

Table 3 - *Statistical Tools for Research Questions*

Research Questions	Scale	Statistical Tool(s)
1. What practices constitute instructional supervision in Social Studies in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?	Interval	Descriptive statistics: frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation
2. How do Social Studies teachers experience instructional supervision in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?		Descriptive statistics: frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation
3. What challenges confront the supervision of Social Studies teachers' instruction in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?		Descriptive statistics: frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation

Table 3 - *Cont'd*

4. What measures could be put in place to improve instructional supervision in Social Studies in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?	Interval	Descriptive statistics: frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation
5. What differences exist in Social Studies teachers' experience of instructional supervision in Social Studies based on their socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank)?	Interval	Factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

I analysed the interview responses from the two groups of interviewees (headteachers and circuit supervisors) after transcription. I used a cross-case analysis procedure (Patton, 1990) to analyse the interview data. In this approach, responses to a common question from all interviewees in each category were analysed together. Thus, each question was analysed separately for headteachers and the circuit supervisors. Common themes across respondents were then identified, analysed and interpreted item by item. The interview data for the two groups of respondents were analysed in a systematic manner. First, I replayed the audio recordings of each respondent and transcribed them by hand on paper. I transcribed sentences and phrases directly to avoid misinterpretation of the sense or meaning of information respondents provided. I read through the responses for

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each item across all the ten headteachers and the ten circuit supervisors separately and recorded the key ideas. Responses from each question were grouped together and analysed on central issues. If an interviewee provided a response to a particular question but this was found to answer a different question, I transferred the particular response to include it in the responses for the latter.

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CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview

This chapter presents the results from the questionnaire. The presentation of results covered issues such as: practices that constitute instructional supervision, how JHSs Social Studies teachers experience supervision of instruction, measures to improve instructional supervision, as well as differences in demographic characteristics (gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank) of teachers with respect to how teachers experience instructional supervision. The items were tested on 1 to 5 likert-type scale (5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = uncertain, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree). The weights were added to get the average for the acceptable mean value (1+2+3+4+5 = 15; 15 /5 = 3). Therefore, mean value of 3 meant that the respondents were uncertain with the items or statement and a mean value greater than 3.1 to 5.0 meant the respondents were in agreement while a mean value less than 3.0 meant that respondents were in disagreement.

In the presentation of the results, the total percentage of respondents who agreed and strongly agreed to the issues raised were merged to obtain the total percentage in agreement. Likewise, the views of those who disagreed as well as those who strongly disagreed were merged to obtain the total percentage in disagreement. Therefore, percentage value greater than 50 percent meant the respondents were in agreement with the items while percentage value less than 50 percent meant the respondents disagreed. Meanwhile, percentage value of 50

above 3 to 5 indicates agreement with the statement while a mean below 3 indicates disagreement. The details of results are shown in Table 4.

Results from Table 4 indicate that majority of the teachers (n = 294) either agreed or strongly agreed that one major practice that constitute instructional supervision in their schools is that supervisors create teachers' awareness of their teaching and its consequences on learners (M = 4.1, SD = 1.1). This is a major aspect of collaborative supervision which enables teachers to direct their teaching towards learners' needs. With this practice, supervisors, together with teachers are able to identify particular learning needs of students and tailor instruction towards meeting those needs. In support of this view, Glickman, Gordon, and Ross-Gordon (2005) and Nolan (2004) held that teachers experience instructional supervision for the purpose of helping teachers to be aware of their teaching and its consequences for their learners.

Again, most teachers (n = 271, M = 3.9, SD = 1.1) either agreed or strongly agreed that as part of their practices of instructional supervision, supervisors establish open and trusting relationship with them. This outcome is not surprising since the creation of trusted relationship between the supervisor and the teacher is a crucial collaborative component of every instructional supervision session. The open and trusted relationship creates an atmosphere devoid of fear and intimidation on the part of the teacher. Here, teachers are free and willing to share with supervisors issues of major concern, especially, issues relating to instruction and professional development.

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Table 4 - *Practices that Constitute Instructional Supervision in JHSs*

Practices that constitute instructional supervision: Supervisors:	SA/A		UD		DA/SDA		Mean	Standard Deviation
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
1. create awareness of my teaching and its consequences on my learners	294	86.2	11	3.2	36	10.6	4.1	1.1
2. establish open and trusting relationship with me	271	79.5	31	9.1	38	11.4	3.9	1.1
3. provide opportunities for me to meet and share ideas about instruction with him/her	230	67.5	8	2.3	103	30.2	3.6	1.5
4. guide me to plan for lesson observation	49	14.4	81	23.8	211	61.8	2.3	1.3
5. guide me to work collaboratively with other teachers in pairs and small teams to observe each other's teaching	155	45.5	19	5.6	167	49.0	2.9	1.6

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Table 4 - *Practices that Constitute Instructional Supervision in JHSs*

Statement								
6. collaborate with me to make decisions about my instruction (collaborative)	208	61.0	29	8.5	104	30.5	3.5	1.5
7. engage me in mutual dialogue with supervisors about ways to improve my instructional practices (collaborative)	197	57.5	0	0	144	42.2	3.2	1.5
8. help me to implement agreed-upon changes in my instructional behaviour (self-reflection)	102	29.9	26	7.6	213	62.5	2.6	1.2
9. develop possible strategies for initiating improvement of my instruction (self-reflective)	51	15.0	28	8.2	262	76.8	2.1	1.1
10. work with me to analyse and reflect on my teaching performance (self-reflective)	74	21.7	37	10.9	230	67.5	2.4	1.2

Source: Field Survey (2015)

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In view of this, Beach and Reinhartz (2000) assert that, crucial for a successful teacher-supervisor relationship is the establishment of trust and collaboration. A significant role of supervisors is to provide conducive atmosphere for teachers to make professional decisions regarding their own development and trust them with its outcome.

Another collaborative practice that teachers identified as characterising instructional supervision was the opportunities provided for teachers to meet and share ideas about instruction with supervisors (n = 230, M = 3.6, SD = 1.5). The large number of teachers supporting this statement is an indication that this aspect of instructional supervision is mostly practiced by supervisors. This will therefore afford both teachers and supervisors the opportunity to discuss issues of mutual interest. Here, teachers' strengths, weaknesses as well as challenges they may be encountering are shared with supervisors for possible solutions to be provided. Within the context of such supervision, ideas are shared and help is given in order to improve the teacher's ability. This is achieved through analysis of objective data that is collected during the observation (Milne & Reiser, 2012).

On the contrary, few teachers (n = 49, M = 2.3, SD = 1.3) either agreed or strongly agreed that a situation where supervisors guide teachers to plan for lesson observation is not practiced (Table 4). Preparation of lesson plans is vital components of every instructional process and for that matter the first document checked by any instructional supervisor before the supervisory process begins is the lesson plan.

This outcome may however be due to the fact that in JHSs in the Metropolis, like elsewhere, lesson plans are prepared by teachers but supervised by headteachers of the respective schools. Instructional supervisors only have to check whether these lesson plans have been vetted by the headteachers. They only make additions when there is the need to relay information on new guidelines for its preparation.

Similarly, less than half (n = 155, M = 2.9, SD = 1.6) of the teachers either agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors guide them to work collaboratively with other teachers in pairs and small teams to observe each other's teaching (Table 4). This outcome also indicates that another important practice of instructional supervision (collaborative practice) is less emphasised in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis. Pairing teachers to observe each other's teaching becomes necessary especially when there are newly posted or recruited teachers on the staff. Novice teachers find their first few years of teaching a trying and often defeating experience. Entrance into the teaching profession is marked by an initial period of challenges and opportunities. Teachers begin their careers facing the most difficult assignments with a lack of time for planning. In consistent with this view, Brennen (2008) held that most instructional supervision involve the practice whereby teachers are made to observe themselves and receive information from each other on their performance.

One major self-reflection practice that is de-emphasised in JHSs in the Metropolis is the support given to teachers by supervisors to help them implement agreed-upon changes in their instructional behaviour. Few teachers (n = 102, M =

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2.6, SD = 1.2) either agreed or strongly agreed with this issue. Related to this outcome was the fact that few teachers (n = 51, M = 2.1, SD = 1.1) either agreed or strongly agreed that their supervisors develop possible strategies for initiating improvement of teachers' instruction. These results are indications that supervisors although are much concerned with improvement of instruction, overlook strategies that would bring about the desired changes. Similarly, the practice where supervisors work with teachers to analyse and reflect on their teaching performance, majority of the teachers either agreed or strongly agreed (M = 2.4, SD = 1.2). These mean that teachers do not adequately emphasise self-reflective supervision. In the view of Burke and Krey (2005), the most important dimension of instructional supervision is the ability of the teacher to reflect on his or her experience. Self-directed development is an option provided teachers that enable them to set their own professional growth goals, find the resources needed to achieve those goals, and undertake the steps needed to accomplish those outcomes. Developing possible strategies for initiating improvement of teachers' instruction was another major self-reflection practice to instructional supervision that was not employed by supervisors. Few teachers (M = 2.1, SD = 1.1) either agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. Similarly, few teachers (n = 74, M = 2.4, SD = 1.2) either agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors work with them to analyse and reflect on their teaching performance.

The outcome of Table 4 put together reveals that although two major practices constitute instructional supervision in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis, collaborative practice is mostly employed to the neglect of self-reflection. Even

with the collaborative supervisory practice, supervisors do not adequately take teachers through all the collaborative practice but limit them to the creation of mutual relationship as well as discussing with teachers how to make decisions about teachers' instruction.

Interview Responses on the Practices that Constitute Instructional Supervision

This section presents the results from interviews with headteachers. The results are presented according to the interview questions asked.

What practices constitute supervision of instruction in your school?

Headteachers' views

The headteachers did not mention any specific practices that constitute instructional supervision in their schools. They however indicated that circuit supervisors are cooperative when they visit their schools. Some headteachers said that some circuit supervisors collaborate effectively with teachers, headteachers as well as students in an effective manner for effective supervision. One headteacher made it clear that instructional supervision does not follow a particular practice. This, he indicated by saying:

In this school, I do not have any particular practice in mind when supervising instruction. But I go [to the classroom] and talk to the teachers on any issue at all: those that relate to teaching and non-teaching, check one or two things and off I leave. I make sure teaching is effectively carried out.

This means that although the headteacher conducts his supervisory role, he does not adopt a specific practice to carry out their mandate. This is also evident in the view of another headteacher who said:

> When I come to school, I check a number of things. For example, I check teachers' attendance, punctuality, work output, teaching and learning, and other school records. But all these don't follow specific pattern or schedule.

Some of the headteachers also indicated that

> I don't think there is any policy guideline for supervision of instruction in schools especially in basic schools in Ghana. What I know is you have to find out whether teachers are doing what they are expected to do. That is, whether they prepare their lesson plans and submit them on time, whether they come to school on time and leave at the right time, whether they are able to give a number of exercises, mark and return them to pupils. This is what I know.

When the headteachers were probed further whether their supervision was geared towards collaborative means or for the purpose of self-reflection, some of them were of the view that their supervision performs both functions. This is evident in the view of one headteacher who said that

> Oh, as for me, I collaborate a lot with the teachers, especially those who have just been posted to my school. You know, some of these teachers may be too young and new to teaching so if you don't draw them close and

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point out one or two things to them, they will find teaching more difficult
since they will not find the system to be accommodating.

Another circuit supervisor also emphasised the fact that both collaborative and self-reflection practices are used for supervision of instruction in Junior High Schools in the Metropolis. In this regard she indicated that:

After the classroom visits and observation, I hold meetings and conferences with teachers to discuss their weak and strong points, and identify opportunities for improvements and efforts are made to improve them as well. It is also important to note that I provide regular guidance to teachers through reports which contain suggestions for improved methods of teaching.

Another view which was also in line with both collaborative and self-reflection was given by another headteacher who said that:

I use face-to-face interaction with my teachers though not frequent. The intention has always been double. One, for the purpose of improving instruction in the classroom, and two, for improving teachers' professional growth which is a form of staff development.

Another headteacher however indicated that his major priority is for the purpose of improving instruction and therefore he does not focus much on helping teachers to reflect on themselves. He said that:

I'm mostly concerned with improving teaching. For the teachers, they have their own plans in life. At times they come and later they will inform you that they want to pursue further education. Others will not inform you

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and yet will be schooling without my knowledge, especially, distance education. So when it comes to self-reflection, I leave that to the teachers themselves. But I make sure that I collaborate with them as well. It is only when you collaborate that they will bring their best out.

In the view of another headteacher, the major practice is broad and comprises activities that occur both within the classroom and outside the classroom. This is what one headteacher had to say:

I supervise teaching, co-curricular activities programmes such as sporting activities, school environment, supervision of school records, supervision of pupil and supervision of financial management, and so on. So as for me, these constitute the major practices of instructional supervision in my school.

Another headteacher was also of the view that:

I ensure that supervision takes place in a comfortable, non-threatening environment. Since the success of the supervision depends on the cordial relationship between you the head and the teacher, I welcome teachers' suggestions and I also point to them their weaknesses and the areas they need to improve upon their teaching. By so doing, I help them to reflect on their teaching and I think I am being collaborative enough or?

Finally, one headteacher limited the practices of instructional supervision to lesson plan evaluation and indicated that:

To supervise every teacher's teaching is quite impossible so for practices towards instruction, I do not have anything in mind. But generally, I vet

> *every teacher's lesson note and make suggestions that will help them*
> *improve teaching. I have been going round everyday to see if teachers are*
> *teaching but I don't sit in their class during teaching, I only stand through*
> *windows. But once a while, I enter their class.*

The outcome clearly indicates that although headteachers perform their supervisory role, they don't adopt specific supervisory practice.

Circuit Supervisors' views

The circuit supervisors on the other hand did not mention specific practices that constitute instruction supervision. However, what they mentioned can be aligned with both collaborative and self-reflection practices. For example, one supervisor said that:

> *I don't specifically choose a particular practice. What I do is that I make*
> *sure I collaborate effectively with them [teachers] and through that I help*
> *them reflect upon their teaching and their professional development as*
> *well.*

This was not different from the view of another circuit supervisor who mentioned that:

> *That is my duty as a circuit supervisor. I have to encourage headteachers*
> *and teachers to improve on their respective roles. This I can achieve*
> *through effective collaboration.*

In a related view another supervisor indicated that:

Collaborating with teachers, headteachers and pupils help in every supervisory exercise. If they don't and if I don't collaborate, it can affect the whole exercise, including school management.

One other circuit was not aware of the practices that constitute supervision of instruction. He had this to say.

Instructional supervision cannot be neatly categorized because classroom supervision continues to serve too many purposes. For the most part, supervision embraces a wide variety of activities and personnel directed toward a major goal: the improvement of instruction.

Another circuit supervisor rather linked the practices of instructional supervision to the visits supervisors make to the various schools and indicated that:

School visits is the main practice of supervision. Visiting schools for pedagogical and administrative purpose is the task of instructional supervisors. The number of schools to visit and the number of times each school is to be visited are clearly specified. So for me, visiting of schools and teachers is the most important practice of the actual instructional supervision.

Another circuit supervisor indicated that:

Once I am in the school, I am responsible for two different tasks. One, I am responsible for monitoring the performance of teachers and making the corrections when necessary. Secondly, to identify and solve the

problems that the teachers face before the problem deteriorate their

performance.

In the view of another circuit supervisor

I have done this work for quite a number of years. Mostly, teachers

preferred I discussed with them about the lessons I observe. Through the

discussion, I have found out that they want supervisors to be caring,

understanding and helpful. They want a cordial relationship between

teacher and supervisor rather than authoritarian.

It is clear from the views of both the headteachers and the circuit supervisors that instructional supervision in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis does not follow any particular practice.

How JHS Social Studies Teachers Experience Instructional Supervision

Research Question Two: How do Social Studies teachers experience instructional supervision in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?

This section sought to identify the way teachers experience instructional supervision. Teachers were asked to indicate whether they agreed or disagreed with statements on the way teachers experience supervision. Some of the statements considered included issues relating to pairing teachers with experienced supervisors, engaging teachers in pre-observation and post-observation discussions, formally observing teachers, providing objective and comprehensive feedback, guiding teachers to reflect on their professional development goals, etc. which related to the experiences teachers go through depending on the type of supervisory practice adopted by instructional

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supervisors. It is believed that since two major practices constitute instructional supervision in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis, that is, collaborative and self-reflection, once collaborative practice is emphasised, teachers will experience instructional supervision through clinical supervision, mentoring, peer coaching, or systematic supervision. On the other hand, once self-reflection practice is emphasised, teachers would experience supervision through professional growth supervision, professional development supervision, or portfolio supervision (See Figure 1). Teachers were to indicate their views a scale of Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Undecided = 3, Agree = 4, and Strongly Agree = 5. Descriptive statistics in the form of frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse data concerning the experiences. The mean range for each item was from $1 - 5$, therefore, a mean above 3 to 5 indicates agreement with the statement whiles a mean below 3 indicates disagreement. Detail of results is in Table 5.

One of the major way in which teachers could experience instructional supervision through collaborative means is pairing teachers with their experienced supervisors in order to learn from the supervisors. This constitutes mentoring. The results in Table 5 however show that few teachers (n = 24) either agreed or strongly agreed that they are paired with experienced teachers and supervisors (M = 1.8, SD = 1.0).

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Table 5 - *Views on How Social Studies Teachers Experience Instructional Supervision in JHSs*

How teachers experience instructional supervision	SA/A		UD		DA/SDA		Mean	Standard Deviation
Supervisors:	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
1. pair me with experienced supervisor to be able to learn from him or her	24	7.1	17	5.0	300	87.9	1.8	1.0
2. engage me in pre-observation discussions before the actual supervision	37	10.8	20	5.9	284	83.3	1.9	1.0
3. formally observe teaching and learning in my classroom	247	72.4	29	8.5	65	19.1	3.7	1.3
4. supervise every aspect of my instruction from beginning to the end	74	21.7	37	10.9	230	67.5	2.4	1.2

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Table 5 Cont'd – *Views on How Social Studies Teachers Experience Instructional Supervision in JHSs*

	N	%	N	%	N	%	Mean	SD
5. provide objective feedback about my classroom observations (clinical)	45	13.2	16	4.7	280	82.1	2.0	1.0
6. engage me in post supervision discussion to discuss the outcome of the supervision	207	60.7	18	5.3	116	34.0	3.2	1.5
7. create the opportunity for me to select areas I wish to improve upon and the steps to improve upon those areas	216	63.8	40	11.7	85	24.9	3.4	1.4
8. guide me to reflect on my instructional professional goals after every supervision session	210	61.6	31	9.1	100	29.3	3.4	1.4
9. engage me more active in the assessment process of instructional supervision	51	15.0	28	8.2	262	76.8	2.0	1.1

Table 5 Cont'd

Statement	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Mean	SD
10. work with me to develop and carry out individual goal-setting activities and long-term projects relating to teaching	233	68.4	48	14.1	60	17.6	3.7	1.2
11. guide me to improve upon my instructional methods and the ability to adapt instruction to meet students' needs	257	75.4	28	8.2	56	16.4	3.9	1.1
12. support me as I adapt, adopt, and refine the instructional practices I implement	263	77.1	40	11.7	38	11.2	4.0	1.1
13. work with me to compile assignments, class exercises, class tests, and home works	177	51.9	29	8.5	135	39.5	3.2	1.6
14. guide me to evaluate myself and develop my teaching practice	50	14.7	25	7.3	266	78.0	2.1	1.1
15. work with me to systematically plan for my own professional growth in teaching	102	29.9	26	7.6	213	62.5	2.6	1.2

Source: Field Survey (2015)

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This outcome implies that although collaborative practices are employed, teachers do not experience supervision through pairing them with experienced supervisors which is a major component of collaborative supervision. The experienced supervisors serve mentors rather than judges or critics. They facilitate instructional improvement, and all their interactions and recommendations with staff members are confidential (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000). Therefore, to be successful, inexperienced teachers must meet their challenges with perseverance, hard work and quality assistance from experienced teachers and headteachers who are willing to provide, recognise, and commit support for novice teachers during the first year or two of their teaching careers (Robinson, 1998). According to Huling-Austin (1990), effective supervision and coaching programmes for beginning teachers have been found to ameliorate beginning teachers' concerns, and to increase beginning teachers' focus on instruction.

Again, few teachers responded positively (M = 1.9, SD = 1.0) that supervisors engage them in pre-observation discussions before the actual supervisory process. This pre-observation conference is a vital component of instruction supervision which prepares teachers physically and psychologically before the actual instructional supervision. During this session, teachers discuss and share with supervisors weaknesses they may be encountering and possible solutions provided. This enhances effective lesson delivery. This constitutes the clinical supervision suggested by Milne and Reiser (2012). According to Milne and Reiser (2012), what the teacher will do, and what students are expected to do and learn from the lesson are all discussed during the pre-observation stage.

Supervisors also use the opportunity to learn about and understand what the teacher has in mind for the lesson to be taught through the probing and clarifying questions he or she asks. Therefore, if left out, then, teachers might be ill-prepared before instructional supervision.

The results from Table 5 further shows that majority of the teachers (n = 247, M = 3.7, SD = 1.3) either agreed or disagreed that their lessons are formally observed in the classroom by supervisors. The large number of teachers who responded positively to this statement may be due to the fact that formal observation of teachers' instruction is a key component of instructional supervision. This is one of the major constituents of clinical supervision where supervisors are required to supervise every aspect of teachers' instruction; from start to end and point out the strength and weaknesses as well as suggest measures for improving upon teachers' instruction. Through formal classroom observation, ideas are shared and help is given after supervision in order to improve the teachers' ability (to deliver effective instruction) through the analysis of objective data that are collected during the observation.

Also, as part of the supervisory process, supervisors are expected, per the Ghana Education Service regulations, to supervise every aspect of teachers' instruction. This enables supervisors to obtain adequate, true and valid information about teachers' instruction. The realities of the lesson captured by the supervisor therefore become as objective and comprehensive as possible. However, the situation was different as few teachers (n = 74, M = 2.4, SD = 1.2) either agreed or strongly agreed with this as a way in which they experience

instructional supervision. The implication is that not every aspect of teachers' instruction is supervised. This may be due to the fact that there are few instructional supervisors as compared to the large number of JHSs in the Metropolis coupled with the tight schedule of the supervisors. These cause supervisors to "hop" from one school to the other with the intention to visit all the schools that are under their supervision. They therefore do not make time to take teachers through all the stages of supervision. According to Milne and Reiser (2012), in every of instructional supervision process, teachers should experience five processes which include pre-observation conference, classroom observation, analysis and strategy session, conference stage, post-conference observation.

Another major area of concern to every instructional supervisory process is the engagement of teachers in the post-supervision section to discuss with teachers areas they fared well and areas they fell short with the aim of suggesting measures to mitigate challenges teachers may be encountering. More than half of the teachers either agreed or strongly agreed with this view (M = 3.2, SD = 1.5). Once teachers have been formally observed, the outcome of the observation must be made known to them.

The results further show that few teachers (n = 45, M = 2.0, SD = 1.0) either agreed or strongly agreed that they are not given objective feedback about their classroom observations. This outcome is not surprising since objective feedback and comprehensive feedback could only be provided by supervisors when they are able to supervise every aspect of teachers' instruction. This however appears not to be so in the JHSs in the Metropolis. The results

presuppose that supervisors are able to report only on the aspect they are able to supervise leaving other equally important components untouched. In effect, teachers' strengths and weaknesses in the areas left out may not be identified, hence, possible measures for improvement may also be lacking. In commenting on the importance of objective feedback, Beach and Reinhartz (2000) indicate that instructional supervision should be viewed as a process that centres on instruction and provides teachers with feedback on their teaching so as to strengthen instructional skills to improve performance. In a similar view, Brennen (2008), states that after the instructional supervision, it is necessary to furnish the teachers with the feedback of their observation. Teachers who receive the most classroom feedback are satisfied with teaching. The teacher and the instructional supervisor meet alone to discuss the observation and the analysis of data relative to the teacher's objectives. Brennen (2008), continues further that if the data is collected and presented in a clear fashion, the teacher will be more likely to use the data and evaluate his or her teaching and classroom performance by himself or herself. In line with the theoretical framework of this study, providing teachers with feedback regarding effective classroom practices is the overarching purpose of clinical supervision and this enhances teachers' professional growth.

From Table 5, teachers also either agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors guide them to reflect on their instructional professional goals after every session of instruction (n = 210, M = 210, 3.4, SD = 1.4). In support of this outcome, The Saskatchewan Teachers' Federation [STF] (2002) asserts that instructional supervision in modern schools is a planned developmental process

that is intended to support the career-long success and continuing professional growth of each teacher. STF (2002) continues further that participants in the supervision process should plan and implement, with various degrees of formality, a range of timely professional growth opportunities that are designed to meet the individual teacher's professional growth and are consistent with the educational goals and objectives at different educational levels.

One other way in which teachers indicated that they do not experience instructional supervision was a situation where supervisors engage teachers more actively in the assessment of the instructional process. This may be so since the assessment of the instructional process is the sole responsibility of the supervisor without the involvement of the teacher who is supervised. The outcome from Table 5 shows that majority (n = 216, M = 3.4, SD = 1.4) of the teachers either agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors create the opportunity for teachers to select areas they wish to improve upon and the steps to improve upon those areas. This is a critical component of self-reflection supervision. Other self-reflective supervisory experiences identified was supervisors guiding teachers to reflect on their instructional professional goals after every supervision session (n = 210, M = 3.4, SD = 1.4), working with teachers to develop and carry out individual goal-setting activities and long-term projects relating to teaching (n = 233, M = 3.7, SD = 1.2), supporting teachers to adapt, adopt, and refine the instructional practices they implement (n = 263, M = 4.0, SD = 1.1), and guiding teachers to improve their instructional methods and ability to adapt instruction to meet students' needs (n = 257, M = 3.9, SD = 1.1). All these constitute self-reflection instruction

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supervision and are therefore not expected to be experienced by teachers since according to the outcome on research question one, teachers are not effectively engaged in the self-reflection supervisory practice. This outcome shows that teachers are not taken through the right supervisory experiences which should reflect the approach and practice that constitute instructional supervision in the Metropolis. According to Kutyuruba (2003), teachers experience a particular instructional supervision based on the overall approach adopted by instructional supervisors; either collaborative or self-reflection. Putting together results from Table 5, it becomes clear that once collaborative supervisory practice is chosen by supervisors, teachers should experience instructional supervision either through clinical, cognitive, mentoring or peer coaching.

Interview Responses on How Teachers Experience Instructional Supervision

Headteachers' views

When asked whether they take teachers engage teachers in the five stages of clinical supervision (pre-observation, classroom observation, analysis, conference, and post-conference), majority of the headteachers indicated that they do not usually engage teachers in all the stage but normally discuss few issues that relate to teachers' lesson plans and some activities teachers allow students to perform. One teacher indicated that:

I mostly collect their lesson plans early Monday morning or latest Tuesday. Then I vet and return them to the teachers. I don't usually discuss with them issues relating to the lessons they will be teaching but I discuss with them the errors that I will see in their lesson plans. As for the

> *actual lessons, the number of teachers and the time available will not*
> *permit me to do that. But I discuss with them certain things about their*
> *lessons that I think need improvement.*

This means that this headteacher does not specifically engage teachers in all the stages of clinical supervision. The only discussion he engages teachers is the outcome of lesson plan evaluation. This is also evident in the view of another headteacher who expressed that:

> *Since I don't sit in the classroom and supervise teachers' teaching, I don't*
> *think it is necessary to discuss the outcome of the lesson taught with them.*
> *What I do is that after vetting their lesson notes, I call them, especially*
> *when I see any mistakes in the lesson notes, and I discuss the mistakes*
> *with them so that next time they will not repeat those mistakes.*

Another headteacher however stated categorically that:

> *In my school, the teachers are many and I can't go from class to class to*
> *discuss with teachers what they are about to teach. I only discuss the*
> *outcome of lesson plans that contain errors but not every teacher's lesson*
> *plan, but only those that contain errors.*

In the view of one other headteacher, vetting lesson plans was the major means through which teachers experience supervision of instruction in her school, just as have been expressed above. This is what she had to say:

> *The lesson plan is a reflection of the level of preparedness as well as the*
> *effort the teacher made in gathering information for the lesson. So a*
> *poorly prepared lesson plan does not only indicate the quality of the*

teacher, but also the level of commitment to his primary task of teaching. On the other hand, a well prepared lesson plan should tell you how effective that teacher will be when it comes to the delivery of the lesson plan he prepared. So as the school head I critically examine the clarity and appropriateness of the objectives, the relevance and adequacy of the lesson notes, selection of appropriate teaching aids, and selection of appropriate evaluation techniques to determine the extent of realizing the objective effectively.

Another headteacher also indicated different ways in which supervision is experienced in her school and she had this to say:

I have a checklist which I use for my supervision. I supervise teachers' attendance, punctuality, work output, I mean, number of exercises. But when I supervise a lesson, I only check for class control and lesson delivery.

Another headteacher gave a similar view when she said that:

In the classroom I check teacher appearance, questioning skills, organization or lesson, use of teaching and learning materials, class control and assessment and I give report on these.

Asked whether she gives written report? This is what she had to say:

Oh, for written report, I don't [give] but what I do is to discuss the outcome with the teacher involved.

She was further asked whether the report was comprehensive enough to cover every aspect of the teaching.

She indicated that:

> *The discussion which in one way or the other is the report covers only the*
>
> *areas I concentrate during supervision so that teacher will improve upon*
>
> *those areas.*

One other teacher however indicated that she actually observes teachers' lesson in order to write report that will reflect the classroom situation. In her opinion:

> *Teaching is said to be effective if the desired objectives are achieved. As*
>
> *the head, I am required to carefully pay attention to the introduction of the*
>
> *lesson and the teacher's ability to maintain students' attention throughout*
>
> *the duration of the lesson. I am also supposed to pay attention to the*
>
> *teacher's voice quality, speech, clarity of expression, intelligibility and*
>
> *appropriateness of language, effective use of learning materials such as*
>
> *audio-visual aids and chalkboard, teacher's knowledge of the subject*
>
> *matter in terms of structure and sequence, use of classroom management*
>
> *techniques including skills in affecting student's participation in class*
>
> *activities, etc.*

Though very important in instructional supervision, teachers do not experience all the stages of clinical supervision. The only stage they seem to engage teachers is the conference stage. The implication is that the conference stage will not be effective since discussion at the conference stage usually emanates from the first three stages. Another implication is that teachers will not be prepared psychologically, mentally, emotionally prior to their instructions. This outcome also confirms the views of the teachers that supervisors hardly engage them in the

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pre-observation discussion.

Interview response from Circuit Supervisors

The circuit supervisors were also asked whether the engage teachers in all the stages of clinical supervision. The outcome of the interview indicates that teachers are not engaged in all the stages but rather few. The conference and the post-conference stages were mostly considered by circuit supervisors. This is evident in the view of one circuit supervisor who had this to say:

I only supervise every stage of teachers' instruction when they are due for promotion. In this case, I sit in the classroom of that particular teacher and observe every bit of his or her teaching. After that, I discuss the outcome with him or her and based on that, I write report for the promotion.

Similarly, another circuit supervisor indicated that

I supervise instructions once a while, however, when they are going for promotion, I supervise them and write report.

When asked further whether they give comprehensive feedback to teachers, one circuit supervisor responded:

For written reports, I hardly give, but orally, I discuss the outcome of supervision with teachers especially, when we want to see how they apply the skills they learnt during seminar or workshop.

In a similar view, another supervisor indicated that written reports are not give except for the purpose of promotion. This is what he had to say:

I only supervise their teachings when there is the need for promotion or

when we organize workshop and we teach them one or two things and later we want to see whether they can use what we taught them. Even with this, I don't supervise everything thing [stage]. I only check the key areas in lesson delivery to see if the teachers are applying the principles. Then, I discuss the outcome with them. Although in some situations, I write formal reports but those reports are not meant for the teachers. They are rather meant for our office, either the director or deputy director. The headteacher is also given a copy of the report, either orally or written.

Another circuit supervisor also gave a similar view in relation to the post-conference stage (that is the feedback stage). This is what the circuit supervisor said:

No written feedback is given unless for the purpose of promotion but something we log the report in the log book.

This was also similar to the view of another circuit supervisor who said that:

I log the feedback in the log book. It is the headteachers who are supposed to give the feedback to the teachers based on what I log in the log book.

Another circuit supervisor indicated that although supervision of instruction is carried out, it is not done on regular basis and even it is not every aspect of teachers' instruction that he supervises. On this, he said:

Supervision is not done every day. Normally, in the first term, I go round the schools to check records – lesson notebooks, books for students, and other materials. But the second term marks the beginning of the actual supervision. The actual supervision is done to ensure whether materials

which were supplied during the first term are being used and are in good

stage. The third term is only for evaluation of the effectiveness of the

materials. During this term [third term], I make sure that teachers hand

over all materials in their possession to the school. This is done because

some teachers are usually transferred from the school while others are

given new class.

One circuit supervisor however gave a contrary view to the views expressed above. According to him, he engages teachers in every stage of the instructional supervisory process. He expressed that:

Although I don't supervise every teacher, but whenever I supervise any of

them, I first interact with the heads before I interact with the teacher

involved. You know, I do this in order to get a fair idea about the teacher

before I supervise him or her.

He continued that:

After every lesson, I send the teacher outside for a discussion and make

my recommendations. No written report is given but that is made part of

the discussion after the teaching.

Another circuit supervisor also said that:

As for me, I believe in validation and accuracy so I prefer going to the

field [classroom]. It doesn't mean that once headteachers are around and

are ready to supervise teaching, the CS should relax, no!

The views of the supervisors clearly indicate that the clinical supervision is not readily employed by circuit supervisors during supervision of instruction in Junior

High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. The only aspect which seems to be followed is the post-observation discussion. The feedback which is sometimes provided is mostly in oral form. The views also show that the actual observation stage is only supervised for the purpose of promotion or for special reasons other than for the purpose of improving instruction.

Challenges That Confront the Supervision of Instruction in Social Studies in

Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis

Research Question Three: What challenges confront the Supervision of Social Studies Teachers' Instruction in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?

In the process of improving teacher instructional competencies, it has been realised that the quality of instruction depends not only on teachers but on the supervisory practices. Supervision should assist teachers in making decisions regarding the quality of their instructional competencies (Glanz, 2010) and improve upon themselves. Yet, instructional supervision often does not help teachers in this respect (Zepeda, 2012; Pajak, 2008). This informed me to inquire from the teachers the challenges that confront the supervision of instruction in Social Studies. Research Question Three was therefore formulated to seek answer to the problems.

Teachers were to indicate their views on a scale of Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Undecided = 3, Agree = 4, and Strongly Agree = 5. Descriptive statistics: frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse data concerning the challenges. The mean range for each item was from 1 – 5, therefore, a mean above 3 to 5 indicates agreement with the statement

whiles a mean below 3 indicates disagreement. The outcome of the views of the teachers is presented in Table 6.

Results from Table 6 show that major of the teachers (n = 286, M = 4.2, SD = 0.9) either agreed or strongly agreed that one main problem confronting instructional supervision in the Metropolis was the inability of the circuit supervisors to supervise the pre-instructional stage of their instruction. Engaging teachers in active interaction during the pre-observation stage of instruction is crucial for effective preparation of the teacher towards that actual teaching. During this stage, the circuit supervisor discusses with the teacher possible challenges anticipated during teaching, observes the teacher's lesson, and prepares the teacher psychologically, emotionally, and mentally for the task ahead. Ignoring this vital step therefore has repercussions on the actual observation stage.

In support of this view, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2000) indicate that some supervisors enter the classroom late and leave early before the end of the lesson. As a result, not all aspects of the lesson are supervised (p. 79).

Table 6 - *Challenges that Confront Instructional Supervision in JHSs*

My circuit supervisor is unable to:	SA/A No.	%	UD No.	%	DA/SDA No.	%	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. supervise the pre-instructional stage of my instruction.	286	83.9	35	10.3	20	5.8	4.2	0.9
2. supervise the actual instruction in my classroom	171	50.2	61	17.9	109	32.0	3.3	1.5
3. engage me in post-supervision discussion	271	79.5	31	9.1	39	11.4	3.9	1.1
4. provide immediate feedback on instructional supervision	230	67.5	8	2.3	103	30.2	3.5	1.5
5. provide comprehensive feedback on instructional supervision.	208	61.0	29	8.5	104	30.5	3.4	1.5

Table 6 Cont'd - *Challenges that Confront Instructional Supervision in JHSs*

6. visit my school on time for instructional supervision.	204	69.8	0	0	137	40.2	3.3	1.5
7. conduct regular instructional supervision in my school	240	70.4	37	10.9	64	18.7	3.8	1.3
8. observe classroom teaching for full periods in my school	206	60.5	27	7.9	108	31.6	3.5	1.2
9. supervise the lesson and yet they write reports on instruction	221	64.8	43	12.6	77	22.6	3.6	1.3
10. follow laid down guidelines to supervise my instruction	269	78.9	34	10.0	38	11.2	4.0	1.1

Source: Field Survey (2015)

The results further indicate that the teachers (n = 171, M = 3.3, SD = 1.1) either agreed or strongly agreed that circuit supervisors do not supervise their instructions. Supervision of the actual instruction is critical in every supervisory practice. It is a key component because it forms the basis of the other components of instructional supervision such as the pre-observation, the conference stage, as well as the post-conference stage. Circuit supervisors will be in a better position to give adequate and comprehensive feedback only when they are able to supervision the actual instruction, or else, feedback will not be informed by the actual classroom instruction. According to Ogunu (2005), instructional supervisors, particularly, the school principal, are so weighed down by routine administrative burden that they hardly find time to visit the classrooms and observe how the teachers are teaching. This supports the views of teachers (n = 221, M = 3.6, SD = 1.3) who either agreed or strongly agreed that although their instructions are not supervised yet circuit supervisors write reports and provide feedback based on their instructions. This confirms the views of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (2000) that, in some respects, the supervisors do not supervise the lesson at all and yet they write reports on the teachers.

Another major challenge that confront instructional supervision of Social Studies teachers is that no laid down guidelines are followed to supervise instruction (n = 269, M = 4.0, SD = 1.1). It must be pointed out that if circuit supervisors do not follow laid down guidelines such as those provided by the GES, then they are likely to adopt their own style and criteria to supervise instruction. This will however not augur well for effective supervision of

instruction since variations will emanate from the supervisory practices and the way teachers experience supervision of instruction.

The results further show that teachers ($n = 271$, $M = 3.3$, $SD = 1.5$) either agreed or strongly agreed that circuit supervisors do not engage them in post-supervision discussion. This outcome implies that a key feature in the development of the teacher is left out in instructional supervision. This is because it is during the post-instructional supervision discussion that the circuit supervisor discusses with the teacher the strengths and weaknesses of the actual instruction. This stage also gives the teacher the opportunity to explain to the circuit supervisor the rationale behind the adoption of a particular teaching style or the use of a particular teaching and learning resource. Opportunities for teacher development are also pointed out.

A cursory look at the various challenges that confront supervision of instruction reveals that the clinical supervisory stages are not rigorously followed during supervision. Circuit supervisors apply components of it in their instructional supervisory practices and ignore others. This could have serious implications such that vital aspects of teachers' development and the improvement of instructions could be missed.

Interview Responses on Challenges that Confront Instructional Supervision

Headteachers' views

The headteachers were asked to indicate challenges they encounter when supervising instructions in their schools. Almost all the headteachers appeared to give similar responses which related to the workload of the nature of their work. For example, one headteacher indicated that:

> *The workload in this school does not allow me to supervisor everybody's teaching. At times you have to fill some forms, check whether all teachers have submitted their lesson notes, vet and give them back to the teachers, attend workshops and seminars. In fact, the whole day's activities are so packed that there is not enough time for this [supervision of instruction].*

Another headteacher also pointed out that the large number of teachers does not allow him to supervision instruction.

> *In my school, the teachers are many so if I decide to supervise everybody, then I will not get time for other equally important things in this school. That is why the CS [Circuit Supervisors] come around. Even they are unable to supervise every teaching.*

Similarly, another headteacher also said that

> *To do proper supervision of teaching, it is not an easy task and looking at my workload, it virtually becomes impossible. I think we are not to supervise everybody's teaching but for their lesson notes, we vet and make suggestions.*

Another headteacher also said that:

> *I spent a lot of time on administrative spending, capitation grant, school records, inventory from GES, NGOs, etc. There are a lot of difficulties and problems with this school setting.*

Another headteacher also indicate that:

> *The classes are many. Even classes 1 to 6 somehow. So I normally supervise once a term and gives report once a term.*

Another headteacher indicated the late submission of lesson plans by teachers as a major challenge. He said:

> *Some of the teachers do not submit their lesson notes for vetting at all while others submit their very late. I have found out that some teachers are not comfortable with the feedback that I give so in order to avoid those comments I make, they prefer not to submit their notes at all.*

One headteacher had this to say with regard to the number of circuit supervisors.

> *We lack external supervisors and inspectors. They are usually GES staff specially assigned to access the level of compliance of school instructional activities with approved GES standards. Unfortunately, this category of staff is usually in short supply due to the large number of government schools and teachers.*

Another headteacher mentioned that he lacks time to ensure effective supervision of instruction in his school. He indicated that

> *As a head, I am so weighed down by routine administrative burden that I hardly find time to visit the classrooms and observe how the teachers are*

> *teaching. I give more time to correspondence with the GES, community affairs, parents and a host of other visitors and in the process find it difficult overseeing every instruction in the school.*

Results from above indicate that large number of teachers and increase workload are major challenges confronting supervision on the part of headteachers.

Responses from Circuit Supervisors

The responses of the circuit supervisors were not different from those of the headteachers. Majority of the circuit supervisors were of the view that the workload on supervisors affected their duties. This is what one circuit supervisor has to say:

> *The growing number of schools in the Metropolis virtually makes supervising every aspect of a teacher's instruction impossible. It also makes supervising every component of a teacher's teaching virtually impossible. But for me, we are doing a great job.*

In a related view, another circuit supervisor said that

> *You know the school structure is so big that supervising every teaching is a challenge. Supervising both classroom and out-of-class activities is a challenging task. In fact, if I supervise everything in order to get a fair idea about everything in the school, then job becomes loaded for me.*

Other challenges that confront supervision of instruction that were pointed out by the circuit supervisors are in the area of logistics. In this respect, one circuit supervisor had this to say:

> *The magnitude of the job requires a lot of logistics. Although we have*

some but others although we get them later, they are not sufficient.

This was similar to the view of another circuit supervisor who mentioned *inadequate teaching and learning materials, large classes, inadequate furniture, and delay in capitation grant* as some of the challenges that affect instructional supervision in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis.

Another circuit supervisor also mentioned that:

> *Most schools lack even the basic materials and equipment for teaching. Apart from such cases of nothing to supervise, there are others where the problems are lack of facilities and materials for the supervisor to use. External supervisors for example, often do not have transport facilities to carry out their inspectoral duties.*

With respect to inadequate materials, Grauwe (2007) asserted that in many countries school visits are insufficient because of various problems such as lack funds, and lack of transport.

Another circuit supervisor also indicated that

> *Admittedly, supervising every bit of teachers' lesson has not been an easy task looking at the number of teachers and the stream of class and schools we have in this Metropolis. If it had been in small districts where there are few schools and few teachers, even that wouldn't be easy but I hope it could be managed, but ours, it is impossible. Writing reports for every school visit is time consuming, coupled with other extra-curricular activities such as sporting and games.*

Another one responded with respect to training and orientation for supervisors. He

indicated that:

> *There can be no effective supervision of instruction without adequate*
> *training and orientation in instructional supervision. Many newly*
> *appointed CS are not given the necessary training and orientation to*
> *equip them with the skills they need to carry out their instructional*
> *supervisory functions. They manage through for years without*
> *understanding what instructional supervision entails and how to do it.*

In relation to this view, Danielson and McGreal (2000) stated that limited supervisors' experience and lack of skills are major problems in teacher supervision. They further reported that most supervisors do not have enough training in providing constructive feedback while maintaining relationships. This also supports the view of Abdulkareem (2001) who identified lack of frequent training for supervisors, weak relationship between teachers and supervisors and lack of support for supervisors from higher offices as some challenges confronting the supervisory practice in the school. In line with this, Merga (2007) pointed out that lack of continuous training system for supervisors to up-date their educational knowledge and skills is obstacle of the practice of supervision.

Another circuit supervisor was of the view that:

> *Many visits take place unplanned and unscheduled and I think it can be a*
> *major challenge to the teachers and the school as a whole. Irregular and*
> *bad planning of visits, not enough time spent in the classrooms add up to*
> *the problem. The system works such that you can't call every teacher or*
> *every head and tell them that we want to come to your school for*

supervision. They should expect our presence anytime but to me this can

divert their [headteachers] attention from whatever they will be doing to

the supervisor.

The views of the circuit supervisors concerning the challenges that confront supervision of instruction were not different from those of the headteachers. Large class size, increase in the number of schools and teachers as well as tight schedules or increase in their workload were some of the challenges that confront supervision of instruction, according to the circuit supervisors.

Measures to Improve Instructional Supervision in Social Studies in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis

Research Question Three: What measures could be put in place to improve instructional supervision in Social Studies in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis?

This section sought to find out whether teachers agreed or disagreed with statements on measures to improve instructional supervision. Teachers were to indicate their views on a scale of Strongly Disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Undecided = 3, Agree = 4, and Strongly Agree = 5. Descriptive statistics: frequency counts, percentages, mean and standard deviation were used to analyse data concerning the measures. The mean range for each item was from 1 − 5, therefore, a mean above 3 to 5 indicates agreement with the statement, while a mean below 3 indicates disagreement. The outcome of the views of the teachers is shown in Table 7.

Table 7 Cont'd: *Measures to Improve Instructional Supervision*

Statement	N	%	N	%	N	%	Mean	SD
5. There should be a pre-conference and discussions between supervisors and supervisees to enable teachers improve upon their weaknesses.	202	59.3	55	16.1	84	24.6	3.5	1.4
6. Supervisory officials should acquaint themselves with the models, techniques and principles of supervision	207	60.7	27	7.9	107	31.4	3.5	1.5
7. Headteachers should be actively involved in the supervisory process	174	51.1	30	8.8	137	40.2	3.2	1.6
8. I should be involved in the planning of the supervisory process	210	61.6	31	9.1	100	29.3	3.4	1.4

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Table 7 Cont'd

9. Qualified instructional supervisors should be selected	243	71.2	28	8.2	70	20.6	3.8	1.3
10. Varied supervisory practice should be emphasised for effective instructional supervisory exercise	210	61.6	31	9.1	100	29.3	3.4	1.4

Source: Field Survey (2015)

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Results from Table 7 indicate teachers (n = 233, M = 3.7, SD = 1.2) either agreed or strongly agreed that there should be frequent capacity building among supervisors. Capacity building in the form of in-service training, seminar, conferences, and workshops on supervision of instruction could be organised for both teachers and instructional supervisors. They may keep both teachers and supervisors abreast with current techniques and strategies concerning supervision of instruction.

The outcome suggests that capacity building from time to time by the Ghana Education Service who are in charge of training and recruitment of teachers and instructional supervisors in Ghana will keep teachers abreast with the various models of instructional supervision and acquaint themselves with the practices as well as the experience they could gain from instructional supervision. According to Panigrahi (2012), seminars, workshops and conferences should be organised from time to time by the regional educational bureau to update teachers on instructional supervision. Yakubu (2013), also recommends that organising in-service training for teachers and instructional teachers promotes collaboration between teachers and supervisors which in turn improves instructional supervision.

From Table 7, most teachers (n = 257, M = 3.9, SD = 1.1) either agreed or strongly agreed that they should be given immediate and comprehensive feedback on classroom supervision. This result may be borne out of the fact that majority of the teachers already indicated that supervisors do not provide the objective feedback after supervising teachers' instruction. Provision of immediate and

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regular feedback enables teachers to identify the strengths and weaknesses with the aim to improving upon them. This outcome is in support of a study conducted by Thembinkosi (2013), which revealed that observations of lessons without providing immediate feedback to teachers are not enough. Thembinkosi's study further suggested that there should be more discussions between instructional supervisors and supervisees immediately after lesson supervision so that even before the teacher receives the comprehensive feedback, he or she will improve on his or her weaknesses and strengths.

For supervision of instruction to be effectively done, supervisors who possess adequate requisite knowledge and experience in the exercise cannot be left out. In view of this, majority (n = 263) of the teachers either agreed or disagreed. This outcome confirms the views of Jin and Lee (2012) who assert that work experience of the supervisory personnel may facilitate the development of a sense of task competence and consequently, increase satisfaction in performing the work especially personnel with long working experience. According to Kiaba (2011), most supervisors who have served for longer periods are experienced enough to implement the curriculum effectively. He continues that supervisors with less experience require more attention from more experienced supervisors. In a related study conducted by Kutsyuruba (2003), the participants recommended that supervision should be done by individuals who are familiar with teachers and possessed certain experience and knowledge in teachers' subject areas. In a similar outcome, Sullivan and Glanz (2000) concluded that teachers have trust and confidence in an instructional supervisor who is knowledgeable and an

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instructional expert in their (teachers') subject areas. This therefore suggests that supervisors should be knowledgeable in content and teaching strategies to be able to provide assistance and support for teachers.

The crucial nature of instructional supervision in JHSs in Ghana requires enough time for adequate preparation and implementation. The allocation of enough time for the various components of the supervisory exercise therefore becomes important. It is based on this backdrop that the teachers (M = 3.2, SD = 1.6) either agreed or strongly agreed that sufficient time should be given to the planning of the supervisory process. In the words of Kutsyuruba (2003), sufficient time should be given to planning for the supervisory process. In a similar view, a study conducted by Panigrahi (2012) recommended that adequate time should be allotted for instructional supervision by school leaders and that supervision of instruction should be well-scheduled, well-planned and frequently practiced.

Also, more than half of the teachers (n = 202, M = 3.5, SD = 1.4) either agreed or strongly agreed that there should be pre-conference and discussions between teachers and supervisors before the actual supervision of instruction begins. This suggests that when pre-conference discussions between supervisors and supervisees are encouraged it will help improve upon teachers' weaknesses during the instructional process. Besides, the success of the actual supervision depends to a large extent, on what the supervisors know about the teacher from the pre-observation discussion.

Table 7 further shows that teachers (n = 174, M = 3.2, SD = 1.6) either agreed or strongly agreed that supervisors should acquaint themselves with the

various models of instructional supervision. This outcome may be due to the numerous models of instructional supervision and the tendency that supervisors may not follow any of the models when supervising instructions. The selection of a particular model influences the way teachers experience instructional supervision. It is therefore imperative for instructional supervisors to acquaint themselves with the numerous models. Panigrahi (2012) recommended that in order to ensure improved supervisory practices, supervisory officials should acquaint themselves with numerous supervision models, techniques and principles.

Since headteachers are considered as internal instructional supervisors, their active involvement not only in vetting lesson plans but also supervising instruction is very relevant. As compared with the circuit supervisors who have large number of schools and teachers to supervise, the number of teachers under the supervision of the headteachers is few. This will therefore afford them ample time to offer effective supervision of instruction. This belief might have been the reason why majority of the teachers (n = 207, M = 3.5, SD = 1.5) either agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

The teachers (n = 243, M = 3.8, SD = 1.4) either agreed or strongly agreed that for supervision of instruction to be improved, they should be involved in the planning of the supervisory process. This may be due to the fact that there are different supervisory practices that are used by supervisors. Therefore, teachers' involvement in the planning of the process will enable them to be aware of the particular practice being adopted by the supervisors. Sharma, Yusoff, and Kannan

(2011), share the view that involving teachers in supervisory practices will make instructional supervision practices more meaningful. This implies that teachers should be involved in the supervisory process but the instructional leader should take a more active role in the process. Sharma, Yusoff, and Kannan further suggest that for supervision to be successful, beginning teachers need to be actively involved in this process. This view is also shared by Painter (2001), who argued that if we want teachers to be involved in their own development, they must take ownership of the supervisory process and the best avenue for teachers to engage in such practice is involving them in the process.

The results also show that the teachers (n = 201, M = 3.4, SD = 1.4) either agreed or strongly agreed that instructional supervisors should be qualified in the supervisory process in order to apply the appropriate model of supervision. In support of this outcome, Arthur (2011), suggests that appointments of circuit supervisors should be based on experience and academic qualifications of instructional supervisors.

Put together, data from Table 7 implies that different views concerning the measures to improve instructional supervision in Social Studies in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis reflect a combination of both collaborative and self-reflection supervision. When effectively implemented the combination, it will provide fertile grounds for supervisors to offer valuable suggestions and contributions towards the improvement of instructional supervision in Social Studies.

Interview Responses on How Instructional Supervision can be Improved

Headteachers' views

When the headteachers were asked to indicate how instructional supervision in their schools can be improved, most of them indicated that the workload should be reduced so that they can get enough time to supervise instruction.

> *I think reduction of our workload will be a great relief. This will give me plenty of time to do that [supervise instruction]. I also think that supervising instruction should be the sole responsibility of the CS [circuit supervisor].*

Another headteachers also indicated the fact that circuit supervisors should rather be equipped with the necessary skills and given the needed logistics in order to facilitate supervision in schools. To this end, one headteacher said that:

> *One way is that they [supervisors] must be given the requisite skills and training in the area of instructional supervision, especially, modern trends in supervision. This will help them a lot to discharge their duties as required by GES.*

This was similar to the view of another headteacher who also had this to say:

> *In addition to specific training and workshop in instructional supervision, I think they [supervisors] should be provided with the needed materials and equipment. This will help them develop much interest and carry out their functions effectively.*

Another headteacher also indicated that

> *Identifying the skill gap and giving the capacity building training for heads and teachers will help them at different levels. So, we must first identify the kind of skills they [heads and teachers] have and the skills they need. This will help to provide the necessary training and capacity to bridge the gap.*

Another headteacher rather preferred supervisors being made to teach in order to identify the problems in the classrooms for amicable solutions to be provided. This was what he had to say:

> *I think the best way to deal with some of these challenges is for the supervisor to participate in the classroom teaching. To me this will help expose him or her to the actual situations on the ground so that possible solutions could be provided to bring improvement in instructional supervision. However, this will not work since they are already overloaded.*

Another headteacher focused more on the feedback given to teachers after every supervision session and indicated that:

> *The need for discussing the lesson observed with the teacher is also seen as vital. Classroom observation appears to work best if feedback is given to the teacher, hence there is the need for the supervisor and supervisee to work hand-in-hand before and even after the observation process. In dong all these, teachers must feel that the supervisor is there to serve them and to help them become more effective.*

Another related view with regard to feedback was given by another headteacher who said that:

> *The supervisor should incorporate teachers' suggestions as this builds the teacher's confidence hence enhancing the learning process. He or she should recognize and provide alternative approaches and application of variety of skills as this will strengthen the teacher's pedagogical skills. The supervisor should provide an immediate feedback after observation which should be comprehensive and should cover everything he or she supervised.*

Responses from Circuit Supervisors

The circuit supervisors were also interviewed to state measures that can be put in place to address the challenges that confront supervision of instruction in their circuits. The following were the views of the circuit supervisors. One circuit supervisor indicated that:

> *The number of supervisors should rather be increased. In this circuit, I'm the only supervisor and look at the number of schools in this circuit. How do you expect me to go and supervise over hundred teachers in the circuit? And the children also keep on increasing which also increases my responsibilities.*

A similar response was given by another circuit supervisor who also talked about large number of teachers. This is what he had to say:

> *In fact the number of teachers is increasing while the number of circuit supervisors remains the same. We can only supervise key areas in the*

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schools. For that one, we do it effectively. But I also think the teachers are also teaching well. Although they need to be supervised, I don't think it is every teaching that we need to supervise.

Another circuit supervisor also indicated that headteachers should rather take the centre-stage when it comes to instructional supervision in order to enhance effective supervision. He indicated that:

The headteachers should play key role in supervision, which I think they do. But they should also identify teachers who need guidance and help them in that direction. By so doing, the work of the circuit supervisor will be minimized.

In a related view another circuit supervisor supported the above view by when he indicated that:

Due to the large size of the Metropolis, [instructional] supervision should be brought to the heads, apart from their duties as heads, they should supervise [instruction] and report to the CS who also later should crosscheck.

Another circuit supervisor was also of the view that the appropriate measures to deal with the challenges that confront instructional was that:

To me, the measures should be specific. If you supervise a lesson and you identify any problem through the supervision, then you apply solutions that will deal with the problem. For example, if the problem relate to inadequate training on the part of the teacher, then, quickly, in-service training is organized by the headteacher. Or if possible, some experts or

resource persons from outside can be invited.

Another supervisor commented on the need for adequate training for circuit supervisors. According to him, training helps to improve the supervisor's performance that will enable him teach teachers the basic knowledge and technique needed to teach. He further explained that training helps to develop the supervisor's capacity to fulfill new responsibilities arising from technical and other changes which might affect his job. This is what he had to say:

> *To me, I think regular and adequate training and orientation should be given to newly appointed supervisors. This will enable them do their best as supervisors, or else, they will work with the little experience they have, which to me will not help. They wouldn't be able to bring the best out of them. Even some of us who are already on the field need more training because when old and obsolete techniques are used in supervision, it negates the spirit of the supervision in basic schools.*

In support of this, another supervisor indicated that:

> *Supervisors need continuous and sufficient training to carry out their responsibility effectively. Training programs of supervisors aimed at providing necessary skills for supervisors and make them better equipped at doing their job.*

Another circuit supervisor was of the view that the qualification of the supervisors should rather be higher. In this regard, he indicated that:

Appointment of supervisors with higher educational qualifications will do. To me, supervisors with higher qualifications are more likely to perform better in supervision than those with lower qualification.

This view is however in support of Okoro's (2004) view that, education personnel with higher qualifications display more confidence in their workplace. In addition, they are more accessible to quality information, and adapt to changing occupational conditions than their counterparts with lower qualification, who are usually more indisposed and ill-equipped in adapting to modern changes. In a similar view, Bernard and Goodyear (1998) stated that a supervisor will not be able to carry out instructional evaluation effectively if he/she is not well qualified and trained in techniques of evaluation; a sound up date knowledge of the subject matter, a good organizing skill, and ready to accept teachers idea and interest.

Following appropriate laid down procedures was the view of another circuit supervisor. According to him, supervision should be guided by plans which will make it more effective. This is evident in what he stated.

For supervision to be more effective, then we need to have a well laid down plan and schedule for school visit. This will do away with the problem of unannounced visits which usually throw the schools' activities overboard.

In the view of another circuit supervisor:

Supervisors are expected to provide accurate and timely information for the director and at the same time give clear direction to the teachers. They should effectively serve as a linkage between teachers and GES. For me,

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this linkage is supposed to be two-sided. They should provide information for the GES or its representatives at the district or Metropolis level regarding the needs and realities in the school and inform schools about the norms and rules set from the top. Secondly, they should identify and spread new ideas to the schools and facilitate interactions among schools.

Other circuit supervisors were also of the view that effective supervision could only take place with a relationship of trust and a nurturing work climate in the school. They indicated that it was important to create a climate of respect that favored open collaboration among teachers, headteachers and circuit supervisors. In this context, they believe that supervisors should act more as guides than as evaluators for being sensitive to the delicate nature of the supervision, specifically in terms of work relations which were composed of a hierarchical dimension due to the various roles played by each member of the school.

Differences that exist in Social Studies teachers' experience of instructional supervision in Social Studies based on their socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank)

Research Question Four: What differences exist in Social Studies teachers' experience of instructional supervision in Social Studies based on their socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank)?

This research question sought to explore if teachers' socio-demographic characteristics have any effect on the way they experience instructional supervision. These socio-demographics were gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank. Separate factorial between groups univariate

analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted for the socio-demographics and dependent variable (teachers' experiences of supervision of instruction). Preliminary assumptions testing were conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrics, and multicolinearity, and none of these assumptions was violated. The effect of the socio-demographics on how teachers experience instructional supervision is presented in the paragraphs that follow.

Table 8 - *Socio-Demographic Characteristics and How Teachers Experience Instructional supervision*

Source	df	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	20	44.241	.000*
Intercept	1	6.355	.000*
Gender	1	15.330	.000*
Age	1	55.876	.000*
Working experience	2	9.501	.000*
Educational qualification	2	12.796	.000*
Rank	2	9.005	.000*
gender*working experience	1	45.989	.000*
gender*rank	1	5.266	.022*
working experience*educational qualification	2	46.139	.000*
working experience*rank	2	32.544	.000*
educational qualification*rank	2	8.833	.000*

*significant at $p \leq 0.05$
**Significant interaction effect at $p \leq 0.05$

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The result of the General Linear Model (GLM) corrected model showed a statistically significant effect of the socio-demographics on how teachers experience instructional supervision $F_{(20, 320)} = 44.24$, $p = .000$. Statistical significant interactions were found between gender and working experience, $F_{(1, 320)} = 45.99$, $p = .000$, gender and rank, $F_{(1, 320)} = 5.27$, $p = .022$, working experience and educational qualification, $F_{(2, 320)} = 46.14$, $p = .000$, working experience and rank, $F_{(2, 320)} = 32.54$, $p = .000$, and educational qualification and rank, $F_{(2, 320)} = 8.83$, $p = .000$. The results indicate that there was a statistically significant main effect for gender, $F_{(1, 320)} = 15.33$, $p = .000$, age, $F_{(1, 320)} = 55.88$, $p = .000$, working experience, $F_{(2, 320)} = 9.50$, $p = .000$, educational qualification, $F_{(2, 320)} = 12.80$, $p = .000$, and rank, $F_{(2, 320)} = 9.00$, $p = .000$ on the way teachers experience instructional supervision in Social Studies. Post hoc analyses using Bonferroni tests revealed statistically mean differences at all levels of gender, age ranges, working experience, educational qualification and rank. The results show that teachers' socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational qualification, and rank) combined, have a statistically significant effect on the way they experienced instructional supervision. Thus, differences exist in the way teachers' experience instructional supervision with respect to their gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank. The results also implied that the impact of the gender on the way teachers experience instructional supervision depends on whether they have many years working experience or few years working experience. Again, the impact of teachers' gender on the way they experience instructional supervision

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depends on their rank (Superintendent II, Superintendent I, and Principal Superintendent). Also, the impact of working experience on the way teachers experience instructional supervision depends on whether they are Diploma, First Degree, and Postgraduate Degree holders. Similarly, the impact of working experience on the way teachers experience instructional supervision depends on their rank (Superintendent II, Superintendent I, and Principal Superintendent). Lastly, the impact of educational qualification on the way teachers experience instructional supervision depends on teachers' rank (Superintendent II, Superintendent I, and Principal Superintendent).

The findings are congruent with the findings of most studies (Kiaba, 2011, Masiga, 2010, Tang & Tzeng, 1992, Miller & Wieling, 2002, Moorhouse & Carr, 2002) on the influence of socio-demographics on the way instructional supervision is experience. For instance, According to Miller and Wieling (2002), gender not only influences how teachers interact, but also how they interpret their experiences in instructional supervision. They contend that female instructional supervisors experience challenges in several areas, including a heightened need to demonstrate credibility and leadership early in the supervisory process. Moorhouse and Carr (2002), on the other hand, illuminate how gender affects conversational behaviour between supervisors and teachers and suggest that both male and female instructional supervisors present a distinctive style more frequently in supervision. On his part, Kiaba (2011), indicates that most teachers who have served for longer period are experienced enough to have undergone varied supervisory practices. He continues that teachers with less experience

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require more attention from more experienced supervisors in order to incorporate varied instructional strategies in their supervisory roles. On her part, Masiga (2010), states that one of the consequences that results from many years of working experience could be introduction of different skills and techniques in supervising instruction. This could have positive implications as far as supervision of teachers is concerned.

Similarly, Tang and Tzeng (1992), asserted that the lower the qualification of education of an employee, the higher their work ethic has been found to be. People with high academic qualification are found to be less likely to endorse a protestant work ethic than people with low academic qualification. In support of the views of Tang and Tzeng, Okoro (2004) states that teachers with higher qualifications are more likely to perform better in the field than those with lower qualification. Okoro continues that teachers with higher qualifications display more confidence in their work. In addition, they are more accessible to quality information, and adapt to changing occupational conditions than their counterparts with lower qualification, who are usually more indisposed and ill-equipped in adapting to modern changes.

On ranks, Deal (2007), reports that staff with high ranks want their opinions to be given more weight because of their experience and for people to do what they are told, while staff with low rank want to be listened to and have people pay attention to what they have to say. He continues further that staff with high ranks may not appreciate equal respect showed to all, and may want to be treated with more respect than one would show someone at a lower level in the

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hierarchy or with less experience. In support of the views on teachers' rank, Meyer (2002), posits that institutions with teachers at various ranks tend to be more reliable and found more difficulty to shift job from one to another due to emotional attachment with the institution. This shows an affective commitment and satisfaction of the teachers towards the institution.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

This chapter summarises the study and presents the major findings of the study. It also looks at the conclusions drawn out of the findings, and further makes recommendations and suggests areas for further research.

Overview of the Study

The study investigated the instructional supervision of Social Studies teachers in public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis. This study employed the mixed methods survey design, with both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. Mixed method approaches was also used in order to answer a broader and more complete range of research questions because I was not confined to a single method or approach. Mixed-methods also provided stronger evidence for the conclusions of my study through convergence and corroboration of findings. Cross-sectional survey was used to gather information on a population at a single point in time (1st and 15th June, 2015). I selected this design on the grounds that it offered me the opportunity to collect a wide scope of information from a large population. Although, it was difficult to get respondents to answer questions thoroughly across the various public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis, the design was suitable for the study because it was quick and cheap since there was no need for a follow-up so fewer resources (funds, pens, books, etc) were required to conduct the study.

The population for the study consisted of all 346 Social Studies teachers, 10 Headteachers, and 10 circuit supervisors in the Kumasi Metropolis in the 2014/2015 academic year. These constituted the target population of the study. Teachers were chosen because they are directly involved in instructional supervision and have in-depth knowledge about issues relating to instructional supervision. All the teachers were included (census) in the study. Questionnaire was used to collect data. It consisted of four parts. Part A was made up of the socio-demographical information about the teachers. This part consisted of five items on gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank of respondents (items 1 to 5). Part B consisted of 11 items (items 6-16). These items were used to gather data on practices that constitute instructional supervision. Item 16 was however an open-ended item. Part C covered ways supervision of instruction is experienced by teachers in public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis and consisted of 16 items (items 17-32), 15 close-ended items and 1 open-ended item while Part D consisted of 11 items (items 33-43) which gathered data on measures that can be put in place to improve supervision of instruction in Social Studies. One of the items was however open-ended. A 5-point Likert-type scale was used: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = uncertain, 2 = disagree, 1 = strongly disagree. Items were structured along the lines of the Likert scale because it enabled the respondents to indicate the degree of their acceptance in a given statement. The questionnaire was pilot-tested in the Cape Coast Metropolis with JHS Social Studies teachers. This was because the Kumasi and Cape Coast Metropolis bear similar characteristics in terms of differences in practices (such as

collaborative and self-reflective) and experiences (such as clinical, peer coaching, mentoring) that constitute supervision of instruction in Social Studies. To help determine whether I succeeded in measuring the constructs I sought to measure, the individual items were tested for reliability. This was compiled by computing the Cronbach's alpha coefficient which indicated the degree of item-total correlation. Data were gathered between 1st and 15th June, 2015 when permission was granted. After checking incomplete and inaccurate questionnaire, the items on the questionnaires were transferred to a spreadsheet (Statistical Product and Service Solutions, version 18.0). The data were then cleaned by examining them for any errors and were finally analysed using the SPSS. Descriptive statistics, frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations were used to answer research questions one to four while Factorial One Way Analysis of Variance was used to test whether teachers' experiences in instructional supervision differed across their socio-demographic characteristics.

Key Findings

The key findings are listed in terms of the focus of each of the research questions.

1. Practices that Constitute Instructional Supervision in Social Studies

The study revealed that the dominant practice of instructional supervision in the JHSs is collaborative. The major collaborative practice which are usually employed by supervisors include: the creation of teachers' awareness of their teaching and its implication on the learners; establishment of open and trusted relationship with teachers' providing opportunities for teachers to meet and share

ideas about instruction; and supervisors collaborating with teachers to make decisions about instruction. However, self-reflective practices such as supervisors: developing possible strategies for initiating improvement of their instruction; helping teachers to implement agreed-upon changes in their instructional behaviour, and working with teachers to analyse and reflect on teachers' performance were revealed by few teachers. It is clear from the views of both the headteachers and the circuit supervisors that instructional supervision in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis does not follow any particular practice.

2. How Social Studies Teachers Experience Instructional Supervision

The results showed that teachers experience instructional supervision in Social Studies in diverse ways. Teachers mainly experience instructional supervision through supervisors: guiding teachers to evaluate themselves and develop their teaching practice; supporting teachers to adapt, adopt, and refine the instructional practices; guiding teachers to improve upon their instructional method and the ability to adapt instruction to meet students' needs; and working with teachers to develop and carry out individual goal-setting activities and long-term project relating to teaching. Few teachers however responded that they are paired with experienced supervisors to learn from them. Few of them also responded that supervisors engage them in pre-observation discussion before the actual supervision. Finally, few teachers revealed that supervisors provide teachers with objective feedback about their classroom observation.

The views of the headteachers and supervisors clearly indicate that the clinical supervision is not readily employed by circuit supervisors during supervision of

instruction in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. The only aspect which seems to be followed is the post-observation discussion. The feedback which is sometimes provided is mostly in oral form. The views also show that the actual observation stage is only supervised for the purpose of promotion or for special reasons other than for the purpose of improving instruction.

3. Challenges that Confront Supervision of Social Studies Instruction

The study revealed that not every component of teachers' instruction is supervised by circuit supervisors. It was found out that circuit supervisors were unable to engage teachers in the initial stage of instructional supervision which is the pre-instructional stage before the actual supervisory exercise, and post-supervision discussion. In some situations, circuit supervisors do not supervise instructions at all. Another major challenge that confront instructional supervision of Social Studies teachers is that no laid down guidelines are followed to supervise instruction (n = 269, M = 4.0, SD = 1.1). The views of the circuit supervisors concerning the challenges that confront supervision of instruction were not different from those of the headteachers. Large class size, increase in the number of schools and teachers as well as tight schedules or increase in their workload were some of the challenges that confront supervision of instruction, according to the circuit supervisors.

4. Measures to Improve Instructional Supervision in Social Studies

The study revealed capacity building through in-service training, seminars, and workshops on instructional supervision as some of the measures to improve supervisors' knowledge and skills in supervising instruction. Besides, teachers

suggested that immediate comprehensive feedback on classroom supervision should be provided. This could be achieved through post-supervision conferences that are held between teachers and the supervisors. Another important measure revealed by the study was the fact that supervision of instruction should cover the pre-supervision, actual supervision, and the post-supervision phases. Other measures revealed by the study were that the appointment of instructional supervisors should be based on experience and academic qualifications of the supervisor. Also, teachers should be involved in the planning of the supervisory processes.

5. Differences that exist in Social Studies teachers' experience of instructional supervision in Social Studies based on their socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank)?

The result of the General Linear Model (GLM) corrected model showed a statistically significant effect of the socio-demographics on how teachers experience instructional supervision. Statistical significant interactions were found between gender and working experience, gender and rank, working experience and educational qualification, working experience and rank, and educational qualification and rank. The results indicate that there was a statistically significant main effect for gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank, on the way teachers experience instructional supervision in Social Studies. Post hoc analyses using Bonferroni tests revealed statistically mean differences at all levels of gender, age ranges, working experience, educational qualification and rank. The results show that teachers' socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational qualification, and

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rank) combined, have a statistically significant effect on the way they experienced instructional supervision.

Conclusions

Based on the major findings of the study, a number of conclusions have been drawn. The main practice that constitutes instructional supervision in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis is the collaborative supervision but sometimes, little emphasis is laid on self-reflection supervision. As a collaborative practice supervisors meet teachers and discuss issues that are geared towards improving instruction. The major focus is on instruction but not teacher development. Therefore, other equally important aspects of the teacher such as meeting teachers' professional growth and development goals are given little prominence. Experienced instructional supervisors are not paired with novice teachers to provide a fertile ground for teachers especially newly posted Social Studies teachers to acquaint them with the school system and develop professionally. The opportunity for teachers to study well-experienced instructional supervisors and deliberate various ways of developing teachers are not offered. In effect, supervisors do not stick to one particular practice of instructional supervision but instead adopts two (collaborative and self-reflection).

It can also be concluded that although the dominant practice of supervision is collaborative supervision, teachers experience instructional supervision through both collaborative and self-reflection supervision. In effect, teachers are exposed to varied experiences of supervision such as clinical, cognitive, mentoring, peer coaching, portfolio, professional growth and

development supervision. However, one major experience that teachers are not usually exposed to is the situation where teachers are engaged in pre-observation and the post-observation stages of supervision. Premium is only put on the actual classroom observation with little emphasis on the post-observation discussion and no pre-observation discussion is held. This means that not all aspects of teachers' professional development are assessed. At the pre-observation discussion, ideas are shared and help is given in order to improve the actual classroom observation while the post-conference section is the time when the instructional supervisor and the teacher meet alone to discuss the observation. Thus, if these two vital sections are left out, then, the overall picture of the teacher is not covered and properly reported. Although collaborative experience dominates, few self-reflective experiences such as professional development and professional growth supervisions are sometimes employed by supervisors.

Since circuit supervisors do not follow laid down guidelines when supervising instruction in the Metropolis, variations will emanate from the supervisory practices and the way teachers experience supervision of instruction. Also, since the pre-observation and post-observation discussions are not given much attention, key features (such as self-reflective skills, developing skills to set personal and professional goals) in the development of the teacher will be left out in instructional supervision. This is because during the post-instructional supervision discussion the circuit supervisor discusses with the teacher the strengths and weaknesses of the actual instruction for the purpose of improving instruction. Feedback that is given to the teacher may not be comprehensive and

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will not be informed by what actually happens during the actual supervision of instruction.

Concerning measures to improve instructional supervision, conducting regular in-service training, seminars and workshops would give up-to-date information on types, strategies, techniques and principles on instructional supervision. According to Panigrahi (2012), when seminars, regular workshops and conferences are organised from time to time, it would update the instructional supervisory officials' knowledge in instructional supervision processes. Also, when immediate and regular feedback is given, it will encourage teachers to improve upon their methods of delivery. The teacher will be more likely to use the data to evaluate his or her teaching and improve his or her classroom performance. The teacher will thus be more satisfied with his or her teaching. Also, engaging teachers in post-observation discussion will help establish open and trust relationship between teachers and instructional supervisors. It can further be concluded that measures suggested by teachers for improving supervision are both collaborative and self-reflection in nature. It can be deduced from these measures that the application of varied practices towards instructional supervision would be of great importance to the development of teachers.

Finally, it can be concluded that differences exist in the way teachers' experience instructional supervision and their gender, age, working experience, educational qualification, and rank. The effects of gender on the way teachers experience instructional supervision is greatly influenced by the number of years teachers have served in their current position, and their rank (Superintendent II,

Superintendent I, and Principal Superintendent). Also, the influence of working experience on the way teachers experience instructional supervision is affected by the educational qualification (Diploma, First Degree, and Postgraduate Degree) and rank (Superintendent II, Superintendent I, and Principal Superintendent) of teachers. Moreover, the effects of educational qualification on the way teachers experience instructional supervision depends on teachers' rank (Superintendent II, Superintendent I, and Principal Superintendent).

Recommendations

Based on the findings and the conclusions drawn, a number of recommendations have been made.

1. It is recommended that the frequent visits made by Circuit Supervisors to the public JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis should be intensified since it improves teachers' time-on-task. Since the study revealed that supervisors do not discuss with teachers how to plan for lesson observation, it is being recommended that supervisors should plan lesson observations with teachers. They should guide the teachers to plan the various components of lesson observation and the relevance of each component to the professional development of the teacher. Also, supervisors should develop with teachers possible strategies for initiating improvement of instruction. Opportunities should also be given for teachers to analyse and reflect on their teaching performance. Thus, both collaborative and self-reflection supervisions should be encouraged.

2. On how teachers experience instructional supervision in Social Studies in JHSs in the Kumasi Metropolis, it is recommended that circuit supervisors should ensure that teachers experience the pre-observation session which constitutes an essential component of collaborative instructional supervision. It is being recommended that supervision of instruction should be scheduled, well-planned and frequently executed such that supervisors will find time to hold a pre-observation conference with every teacher they supervise. Also, the post-observation conference must be a two-way-communication process between the teacher and the instructional supervisor. The teacher must be made to realise that the post-observation conference is not intended for open criticism, but is for the constructive development of the teachers' teaching skills. In a fair manner, the final evaluation of teachers should be made after the observation, not during the observation, and should be arrived at as an outcome of the observation. To achieve maximum benefit, the post-observation conference must be held in a friendly atmosphere, and not rushed through.

3. It also recommended that circuit supervisors should engage teachers actively in all the five stages of clinical supervision (pre-observation conference, classroom observation, data analysis and strategy, conference session, and the post-conference analysis) so that they will be in a better position to give adequate and comprehensive feedback. Engaging teachers actively in all these stages will also help identify the key areas of teachers'

instruction that need improvement so that the GES can put in place proper measures to remedy the situation.

4. Also, the Ghana Education Service which is responsible for appointing instructional supervisors should identify and consider the training needs of the teachers and instructional supervisors and expose them to the desired aspects of contemporary instructional supervisory practices through pre-service and in-service training programmes. These aspects of contemporary instructional supervision could be incorporated into teacher and supervisory training programmes at all levels of education to equip teachers and instructional supervisors with diverse instructional supervisory practices. Both teachers and instructional supervisors could also be exposed to pre-service training in instructional supervision as part of their induction process. Also, periodic in-service training programmes about new developments in the education system could be provided to teachers and instructional supervisors to keep them abreast with current trends and practices of instructional supervision. This will enable them to be more conversant with the desired aspects of contemporary supervision, which may consequently improve instruction and pupils' learning.

5. Finally, gender, age, educational qualification and rank of teachers should come to play when appointing instructional supervisors. Particularly, the integrated nature of Social Studies demands that supervisory personnel should have sound academic and professional knowledge in addition to good professional training in Social Studies education. This will put them

in a good position to approach instructional supervision in Social Studies confidently and skillfully.

Suggestions for Further Studies

Based on the outcome of the study, the following suggestions have been made for further studies to be conducted.

1. Since the focus of my study was on public JHSs, a similar study should be conducted at the second cycle level of education in the Kumasi Metropolis. This is because external supervision of instruction is not effectively carried out at the second cycle level of education. Emphasis is mostly laid on internal supervision of instruction.

2. This study could also be replicated in different Metropolis, Municipality, or District with different methods and designs.
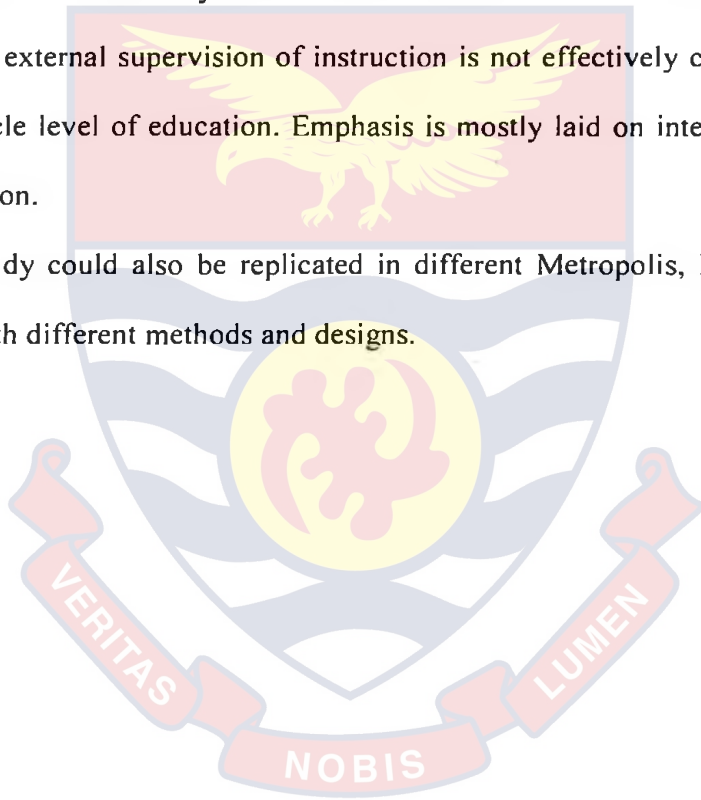
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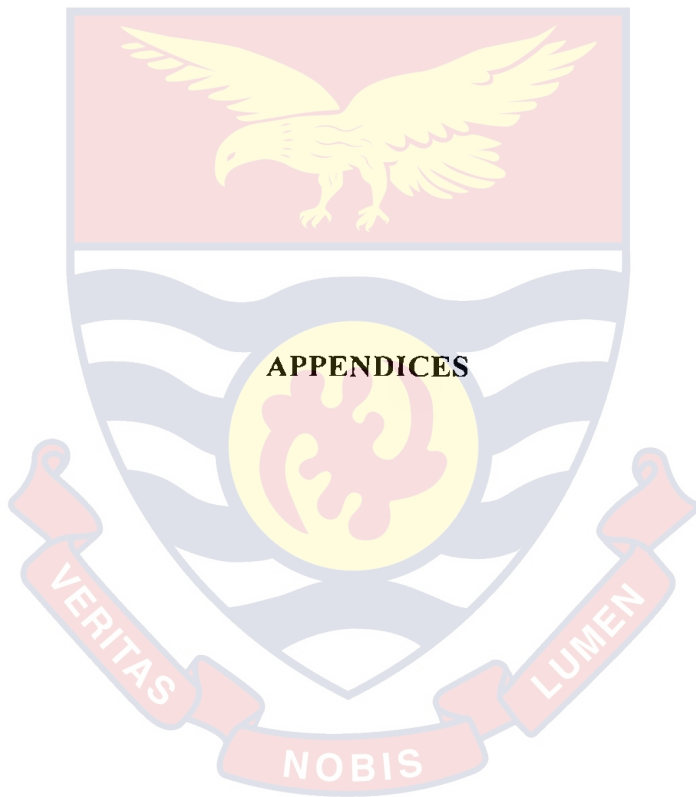
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for Teachers

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION

Instructional Supervision of Social Studies teachers in public Junior High

Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis

Dear Participant,

The purpose of this study is to explore instructional supervision of Social Studies teachers in public Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis. Your participation in the study will enable me to gather the required data. I therefore like to ask you to help me by completing this questionnaire. Please feel free to indicate your opinion because no response is treated as right or wrong.

Participant Consent

I have read the information about the purpose of study of this study. Any questions I have about the research have been addressed to my satisfaction. I agree to take part in this research. I know that I may change my mind and withdraw my consent to participate at any time; and I acknowledge that once my questionnaire has been submitted it may not be possible to withdraw my data. By handing over the questionnaire to the researcher, I give my consent for the results to be used in the research.

I understand that the researcher will treat all information I provide confidential and will not release it to a third party unless required by law to do so. I understand that no information which can specifically identify me will be published as part of the findings.

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SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Please tick (√) where appropriate

1. Sex: Male ( )   Female ( )

2. Age: Up to 25 ( )   26 - 30 ( ) 31 - 35 ( ) 36 years and above ( )

3. For how long have you been teaching Social Studies?

        1 - 5 ( )   6 - 10 ( )

        11-15 ( )   16 years and above ( )

4. What is your educational level?

        Initial teacher training/Cert A/Cert B/Post Sec Cert   ( )

        Diploma   ( )

        Degree   ( )

        Postgraduate ( )

        Other, (specify)................

5. Rank: Assistant Director 1   ( )

        Assistant Director II   ( )

        Principal Superintendent ( )

        Other, (specify)....................................

SECTION B

PRACTICES THAT CONSTITUTE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Practices that constitute instructional supervision. Supervisors	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
6. create awareness of my teaching and its consequences on my learners					
7. establish open and trusting relationship with me					
8. provide opportunities for me to meet and share					

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ideas about instruction with him/her					
9. guide me to plan for lesson observation					
10. guide me to work collaboratively with other teachers in pairs and small teams to observe each other's teaching					
11. collaborate with me to make decisions about my instruction					
12. engage me in mutual dialogue with supervisors about ways to improve my instructional practices					
13. help me to implement agreed-upon changes in my instructional behaviour					
14. develop possible strategies for initiating improvement of my instruction					
15. work with me to analyse and reflect on my teaching performance					

16. Others, please specify...
....
....

SECTION C
HOW SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHERS EXPERIENCE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION IN SOCIAL STUDIES

How I experience supervision of instruction in my school	Please tick whichever is appropriate for your circumstance.				
My supervisor has been:	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly agree
17. pair me with experienced supervisors to be able to learn from him or her					
18. engage me in pre-observation discussions before the actual supervision					
19. formally observe teaching and learning in my classroom					
20. supervise every aspect of my instruction from beginning to the end					
21. provide objective feedback about my classroom observations					
22. engage me in post supervision discussion to discuss the outcome of the supervision					
23. create the opportunity for me to select areas I wish to improve upon and the steps to improve upon those areas					
24. guide me to reflect on my instructional professional goals after every supervision session					
25. engage me more actively in the					

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assessment process of instructional supervision					
26. work with me to develop and carry out individual goal-setting activities and long-term projects relating to teaching					
27. guide me to improve upon my instructional methods and the ability to adapt instruction to meet students' needs					
28. support me as I adapt, adopt, and refine the instructional practices I implement					
29. work with me to compile assignments, class exercises, class tests, and home works					
30. guide me to evaluate myself and develop my teaching practice					
31. work with me to systematically plan for my own professional growth in teaching					

32. Others, please specify...
....
....
....
....

SECTION D
CHALLENGES AFFECT SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION

Supervisors are unable to:	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
33. supervise the pre-instructional stage					
34. supervise the actual instructional in the classroom					
35. engage me in post-supervision discussion					
36. provide immediate feedback on instructional supervision					
37. provide comprehensive feedback on instructional supervision.					
38. visit my school on time for instructional supervision.					
39. conduct regular instructional supervision in my school					
40. observe classroom teaching for full periods in my school					
41. supervise the lesson and yet they write reports on the teachers					
42. follow laid down guidelines to supervise my instruction					

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43. Briefly describe any other problems you face in supervision.

....

SECTION E
## MEASURES TO IMPROVE SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION IN SOCIAL STUDIES

Measures to improve instructional supervision	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
44. There should be capacity building among instructional supervisors					
45. I should be given immediate and comprehensive feedback on classroom supervision					
46. Instructions should be supervised by individuals who possess adequate knowledge and experience in instructional supervision					
47. Sufficient time should be given to planning for the supervisory process					
48. There should be a pre-conference and discussions between supervisors and supervisees to enable teachers improve upon their weaknesses					
49. Supervisory officials should acquaint themselves with the models, techniques and principles of supervision					

50. Headteachers should be actively involved in the supervisory process				
51. I should be involved in the planning of the supervisory process				
52. Qualified instructional supervisors should be selected				
53. Varied supervisory practices should be emphasised for effective instructional supervisory exercise				

54. Others, please specify...
....
....
....
....

Thank you for completing this questionnaire. Your participation is very much appreciated.
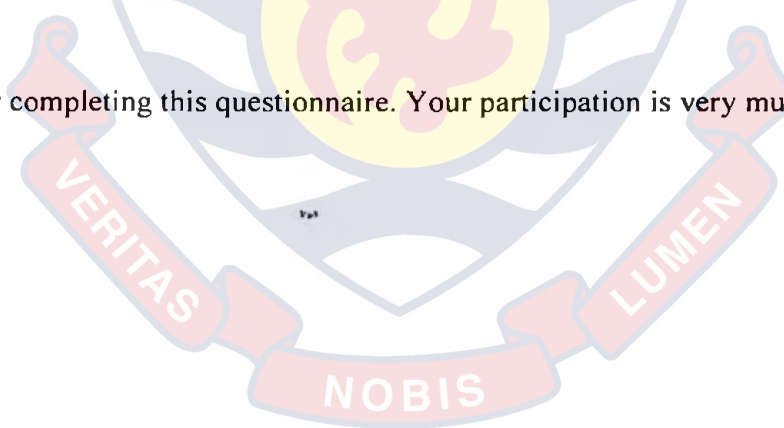
APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION

Interview Protocol for Headteachers

Instructional supervision of social studies teachers in public junior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis

Interview Consent Form

Participant

I have read the participant information sheet, which explains the nature of the research and the possible risks. The information has been explained to me and all my questions have been satisfactorily answered. I have been given a copy of the information sheet to keep. I am happy to be invited for an interview to be audio recorded as part of this research. I understand that I do not have to answer particular questions if I do not want to and that I can withdraw at any time without consequences to myself. I agree that research data gathered from the results of the study may be published provided my name or any identifying data is not used. I understand that all information provided by me is treated as confidential and will not be released by the researcher to a third party unless required to do so by law.

_____   _____

Signature of Participant   Date

Date of interview:

Interviewer:

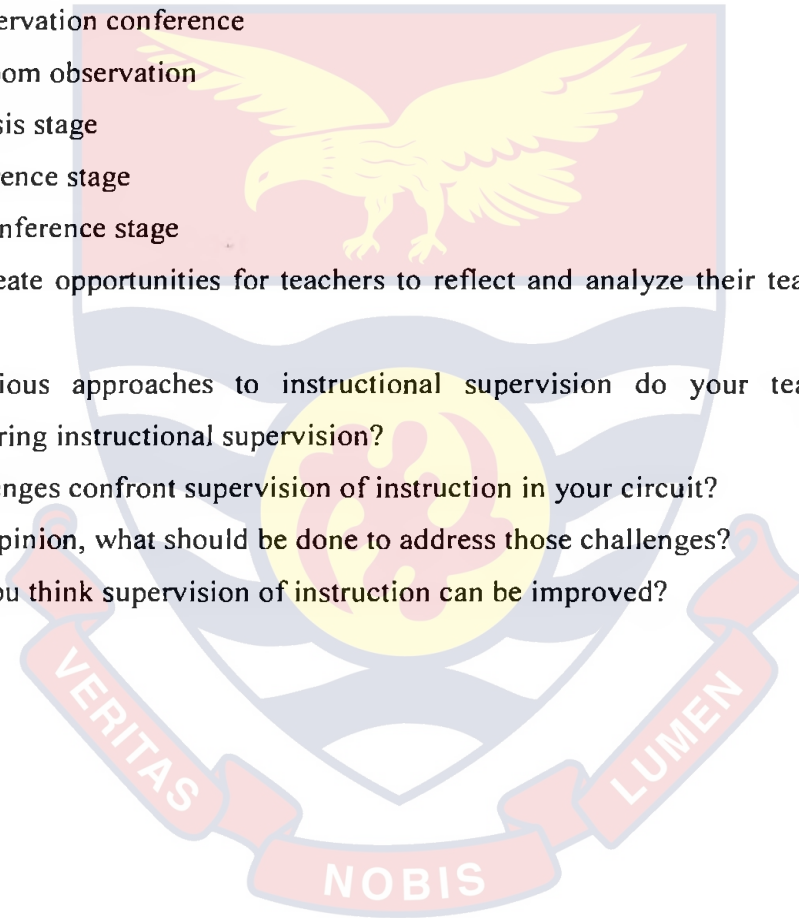Interviewee:

School:

Time started: Time ended:

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1. Sex: Male (   )   Female (   )

2. Age: Less than 25 (   )   26 - 30   (   ) 31 - 35 (   ) 36 years and above (   )

3. For how long have you been supervising instruction in JHSs?

4. Can you please tell me the practices that constitute supervision of instruction in this school?

5. Do you engage teachers in the following stages of instructional supervision?

    i. Pre-observation conference

    ii. Classroom observation

    iii. Analysis stage

    iv. Conference stage

    v. Post-conference stage

6. Do you create opportunities for teachers to reflect and analyze their teaching practices?

7. What various approaches to instructional supervision do your teachers experience during instructional supervision?

8. What challenges confront supervision of instruction in your circuit?

9. b. In your opinion, what should be done to address those challenges?

10. How do you think supervision of instruction can be improved?

APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION
Interview Protocol for Circuit Supervisors
Instructional supervision of social studies teachers in public junior high schools in the Kumasi metropolis
Interview Consent Form

Participant

I have read the participant information sheet, which explains the nature of the research and the possible risks. The information has been explained to me and all my questions have been satisfactorily answered. I have been given a copy of the information sheet to keep. I am happy to be invited for an interview to be audio recorded as part of this research. I understand that I do not have to answer particular questions if I do not want to and that I can withdraw at any time without consequences to myself. I agree that research data gathered from the results of the study may be published provided my name or any identifying data is not used. I understand that all information provided by me is treated as confidential and will not be released by the researcher to a third party unless required to do so by law.

_____   _____

Signature of Participant   Date

Date of interview:

Interviewer:

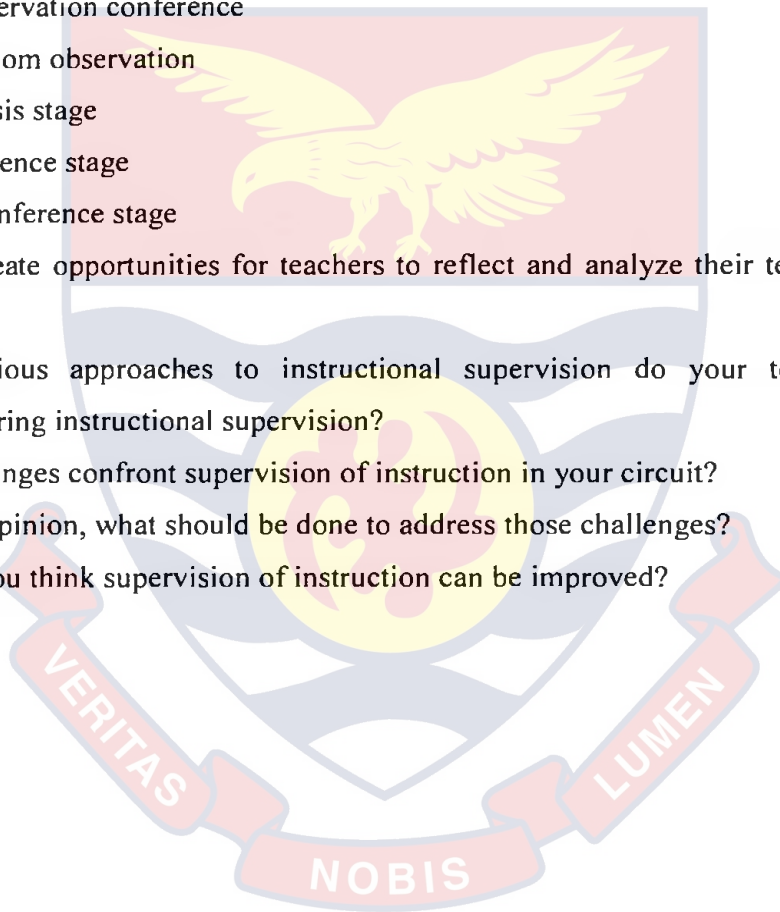Interviewee:

School:

Time started: Time ended:

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1. Sex: Male   (   )   Female (   )

2. Age: Less than 25 (   )   26 - 30   (   ) 31 - 35 (   ) 36 years and above (   )

3. For how long have you been supervising instruction in JHSs?

4. Can you please tell me the practices that constitute supervision of instruction in this school?

5. Do you engage teachers in the following stages of instructional supervision?

    i. Pre-observation conference

    ii. Classroom observation

    iii. Analysis stage

    iv. Conference stage

    v. Post-conference stage

6. Do you create opportunities for teachers to reflect and analyze their teaching practices?

7. What various approaches to instructional supervision do your teachers experience during instructional supervision?

8. What challenges confront supervision of instruction in your circuit?

9. b. In your opinion, what should be done to address those challenges?

10. How do you think supervision of instruction can be improved?

APPENDIX D

Letter of Introduction from Cape Coast Metropolitan Directorate of Education

GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

In case of reply the

Number and date of this
Letter should be quoted

METROPOLITAN EDUCATION DIRECTORATE
P. O. BOX 164
CAPE COAST

REPUBLIC OF GHANA

Tel. 03321-33405/32514
Fax 03321-32199
Email: capecoastmeo@yahoo.com.
My Ref. No GES/MD/EP1/VOL.3/251
YourRef.No.

31ˢᵗ MARCH. 2015

HEADTEACHERS CONCERNED
CAPE COAST METROPOLIS

INTRODUCTORY LETTER
MR.KWENIN ATA ISAAC

The above named-student is at the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education. University of Cape Coast. He is researching into the topic "Supervision of Social Studies Instruction in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis." As part of the project, he is required to conduct a pilot –test in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

Permission has been granted him to conduct the study in your school. However, his project should not unduly interfere with the school contact hours.

Please, accord him the necessary assistance.

FLORENCE INKOOM (Mrs)
METRO DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
CAPE COAST

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APPENDIX E

Letter of Introduction from University of Cape Coast

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES

Department of Arts & Social Sciences Education

TELEPHONE: +233 03321 35411/ +233 03321 32480/3,   **University Post Office,**
EXT. (268), Direct: 35411.   **Cape Coast, Ghana.**
Telegrams & Cables: University, Cape Coast.
OUR REF: DASSE/ED/ECT/13/0001
YOUR REF: *Date: 26ᵗʰ February 2015*

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

The bearer of this letter **Mr. Isaac Atta Kwenin** is a PhD student of the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education of the University of Cape Coast, Ghana.

He requires some information from your institution for the purpose of writing a thesis as a requirement for the pursuit of PhD Programme. His topic is **"Supervision of Social Studies Instruction in Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis"**.

I would be grateful if you would kindly allow him to collect the information from your institution. Kindly give the necessary assistance that Mr. Atta Kwenin requires from you.

I will appreciate any help that you may be able to give.

DR. KOFI TSIVANYO YIBOE
HEAD OF DEPARTMENT

DEPARTMENT OF ARTS AND
SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
CAPE COAST, GHANA

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APPENDIX F

Letter of Introduction from Kumasi Metropolitan Directorate of Education

GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE

Tel: 03220 – 24571

In case of reply the number and date
of this letter should be quoted

Our Ref: 11/13

REPUBLIC OF GHANA

METRO EDUCATION OFFICE
POST OFFICE BOX 1918
KUMASI

7th April, 2015

DEPARTMENT OF ARTS AND SOCIAL
SCIENCE EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
CAPE COAST

LETTER FOR ASSISTANCE

With reference to your letter 24th March 2015, demanding the following information;
The total number of:

1. Junior High Schools in the Kumasi Metropolis.
2. Social Studies Teachers in JHS in the Metropolis.
3. Head Teachers in JHS in the Metropolis.
4. Circuit Supervisors in JHS in the Metropolis.

I submit herein the response to the above questionnaires.

GERTRUDE MENSAH (MS)
METRO DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
KUMASI

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