

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

PERCEPTION OF CURRICULUM SUPERVISION AMONG
CURRICULUM LEADERS AND TEACHERS IN SENIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS IN ASSIN NORTH MUNICIPALITY, GHANA

SYLVANUS KOFIE

2011

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

PERCEPTION OF CURRICULUM SUPERVISION AMONG CURRICULUM
LEADERS AND TEACHERS IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS IN ASSIN
NORTH MUNICIPALITY, GHANA

BY

SYLVANUS KOFIE

Thesis submitted to the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education of the
Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Curriculum Studies

DECEMBER 2011

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

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

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Sylvanus Kofie

Supervisors' Declaration

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

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

Name: Dr. Cosmas Cobbold.

Co-Supervisor's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Mr. Prosper Deku.

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to examine the perception on curriculum supervision among curriculum leaders and teachers in Senior High Schools in the Assin North Municipality of Ghana. Descriptive survey was adopted for the study. Purposive sampling procedure was employed to select 44 curriculum leaders and convenient sampling procedure was employed to select 120 teachers for the study. Questionnaire was used to elicit responses from both curriculum leaders and teachers. Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) was employed to analyse the data, using frequencies and percentages to present the data in tables.

The findings revealed strong consensus among curriculum leaders and teachers that the major purposes of curriculum supervision include monitoring performance, sharing information and solving problems. The findings also revealed that effective curriculum supervision thrives on both supervisors and supervisees keeping records of all formal as well as informal supervision sessions and providing immediate feedback.

Based on the findings, the study recommended that the procedure to be used by the supervisors should be discussed with, and agreed upon by the supervisees. It is also recommended that the scope of curriculum supervision should not only be limited to the classroom but also to activities outside the classroom which have influence on the teaching and learning interaction.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I acknowledge, with sincere appreciation, Dr. Cosmas Cobbold (Principal Supervisor) and Mr. Prosper Deku (Co-Supervisor) for meticulously effecting the laborious task of overseeing this work successfully. I, in addition, recognize the effort of Dr. Yaw Afari Ankomah, Mr. Kankam Boadu and the staff of the Department of Arts and Social Sciences Education, University of Cape Coast for the various forms of facilitation given during the research process.

I also appreciate Mrs. Doris Brookman Kofie for her love, care and attention which stimulated the sacrifice, patience and understanding for me during the study period. Further gratitude goes to Mr. Isaac Atta Kwenin for assisting in data processing, as well as other M. Phil. (Curriculum Studies) colleagues for the many ideas we liberally shared together. Many thanks go to Ms. Alice Abena Aboagyewaa Yawson for facilitating the word processing of this work and Mr. Theophilus Abaidoo Monka Quainoo for his unwavering support expressed diversely.

I am so much indebted to authors, editors and publishers whose works and ideas have been tapped to facilitate this survey. Also, I highly commend School heads, subject heads and teachers of the selected Senior High Schools who participated in the survey with selfless dedication.

Finally, to the many who, either by default or design, have contributed to this worthy course, I say thank you so much.

DEDICATION

To Gyesiwa.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	iv
DEDICATION	v
LIST OF TABLES	x
CHAPTER	
ONE INTRODUCTION	
Background to the study	1
Statement of the problem	4
Purpose of the study	6
Research questions	6
Significance of the study	7
Delimitation of the study	8
Limitations of the study	8
Organization of the rest of the study	8
TWO REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	
Overview of the conceptual framework	9
The concept curriculum	11
Types of curriculum	17
The concept ‘leadership’	25
Styles of leadership	28
Theories of leadership	31

The concept of ‘supervision’ as a leadership function	32
The concept ‘curriculum supervision’	34
Historical overview of curriculum supervision	37
Forms of curriculum supervision	41
Approaches to curriculum supervision	44
Functions/purposes of curriculum supervision	45
Roles/responsibility of curriculum supervisors	48
Challenges and controversies in curriculum supervision	50
The nature of perception	53
Factors influencing perception	57
Empirical review	59
Summary of literature review	62
THREE METHODOLOGY	
Introduction	65
Research design	65
Population	66
Sample and sampling procedure	67
Instruments	67
Review, validation and refinement of instruments	68
Data collection procedure	69
Coding and data analysis procedure	70

FOUR RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview	72
Gender distribution of respondents	73
Rank in the Ghana Education Service	73
Highest academic qualification	74
Highest professional qualification	75
Number of years spent in the Ghana Education Service	76
Current curriculum leadership position	77
Years of experience in curriculum leadership	78
Any orientation on leadership before assuming current leadership position	78
Number of in-service courses in curriculum leadership attended	79
Research question one	79
Research question two	83
Research question three	86
Research question four	89
Research question five	90
Research question six	92
Research question seven	99

FIVE SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	
Overview of the problem and methodology	104
Summary of the major findings	105
Conclusions	108
Recommendations	109
Areas for further study	110
REFERENCES	112
<i>APPENDICES</i>	<i>120</i>
<i>A. Letter of Introduction</i>	<i>120</i>
<i>B. Leaders' Questionnaire</i>	<i>121</i>
<i>C. Teachers' Questionnaire</i>	<i>128</i>

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Gender distribution of respondents	72
2. Rank in the Ghana Education Service	74
3. Highest academic qualification	75
4. Highest professional qualification	76
5. Number of years spent in the Ghana Education Service	77
6. Current curriculum leadership position	77
7. Years of experience in curriculum leadership	78
8. Any orientation on leadership before assuming current leadership position	79
9. Number of in-service courses in curriculum leadership attended	79
10. Purpose of curriculum supervision	81
11. Curriculum supervision practices	85
12. Debriefing/feedback in curriculum supervision	87
13. Conditions which promote effective curriculum supervision	90
14. Curriculum supervision approaches prevalent in the selected schools	93
15. The scope of curriculum supervision	97
16. The roles of curriculum supervisors and supervisees	101

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

Supervision can exist in both complex, bureaucratic organizations and very simple formal and informal organizational units. It may exist in industrial outfits with very elaborate administrative and managerial practices, as well as in small informal settings such as in nuclear family environments. Whichever dimensions it tends to take, whether in an institutionalized fashion or incidental to routines, supervision generally has featured and can be very vital to the effective and efficient running of organizations.

Located at the heart of educational administration and management are, generally, school supervision, and more specifically, curriculum supervision. School supervision might be broader in scope than curriculum supervision. It generally 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. School supervision is therefore aimed at improving conditions within the school climate, as well as teaching and learning in the school.

On the other hand, curriculum supervision is intended to embrace those activities in the school which directly involve the implementation, monitoring, evaluation and appraisal of the school curriculum. Curriculum supervision

therefore 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 the curriculum (Education Encyclopedia, 2009).

Various issues relating to curriculum supervision have proved quite controversial. The controversy stems from different conceptions about the nature, approaches, importance, and practice of curriculum supervision within different educational delivery settings.

As stated by Glanz (2000), there are those who have criticized modern concepts of supervision as being bureaucratic, hierarchical, and oppressive. He said, "According to a post-modernist view, supervision stifles individual autonomy, especially that of the teacher" (p. 70). To post-modernists, rational-technical conceptions of supervision reduce effective supervision to routines which turn supervisors into autocratic lords with the authority to diagnose teachers' pedagogical lapses and impose solutions. On the other hand, Ovando (2000) compliments effective supervision, and maintains that it "implies that educators, including teachers, curriculum specialists, and supervisors would cooperate in order to improve instruction" (pp. 108-109).

To some curriculum leaders and policy makers, supervision in schools constitutes tasks which build pathways to excellence, or effective data gathering activity for quality assurance. Relevant to this motive is what is today termed as supportive supervision. According to Garubo and Rothstein (1998), supportive curriculum supervision is a method of teaching the staff to act in more conscious ways. Its goal is to provide curriculum implementers and supervisors with more information and deeper insights into what is happening around them. There is therefore an increase in options for teachers to work with students and superiors.

A situation of effective collaboration between curriculum leaders as supervisors, and teachers is created as teachers learn to identify and resolve their problems, while supervisors get a better idea about what happens in different classroom environments. To Garubo and Rothstein (1998) therefore, “supportive supervision is a learning situation for both teachers and their supervisors” (p.1). However, to others (mostly staff and students), supervision could lead to some curriculum leaders overstepping their role expectations just to teach one a hard lesson or show where power lies. In this case, curriculum supervision is thought of as a situation where a school/subject head stands in the window to find faults with the content and methods applied by a teacher rather than learning “to trust the eyes and ears of teachers, while teachers have to trust that supervisors will use the information gathered to help teachers help themselves” (Garubo & Rothstein, 1998, p. 1).

Also, very critical to the discourse is the issue of trust from both the supervisor and the supervisee. According to Garubo and Rothstein (1998), trust does allow supervisors, teachers and students to know each other better; it also enhances friendliness and mutual acceptance. On the other hand, lack of trust breeds unfriendliness and suspicion. In their estimation, ‘lack of trust is very apparent in public schools, where in general, relationships between administrators and teachers are very poor’ (Garubo & Rothstein, 1998, p. 4).

The natural crave for autonomy and self assertion which are inherent in humans keep manifesting in all organizational settings such as the school. More often than not, teachers and students would want to enjoy some natural freedom in the context of autonomy. However, this can be perceived to be lost when supervisors become, to them, too stringent. The situation becomes even dicier in

instances when both the supervisor and the supervisee may possess the same level of qualification or rank and even perform similar tasks in the course of their work. For instance, in the Ghana Education Service, heads of subject departments may possess the same qualification and/or rank with supposed subordinates. In this case, it might be critical that supervision tasks, which distinguish and symbolize the authority of the head, who is sort of ‘first among equals’, must be mutually perceived within the context of the purposes it serves rather than the attributes of players involved. In school settings where such mutual understanding and singleness of purpose do not exist or are not clearly perceived, supervision might be thought of by teachers as a tool to stifle their autonomy, and by supervisors as a means to assert their authority.

Statement of the problem

The curriculum leadership tasks of supervision and/or inspection are believed by many to be the key factor in the success or failure of the process of implementing, evaluating and reviewing the curriculum. In Ghana for instance, most people allude to the point that students of high achieving schools such as Wesley Girls High School, Mfantipim School, Archbishop Porter Girls’ School, Prempeh College, Achimota School and others excel due to a telepathic agreement among school leadership, staff and students concerning strict supervision of both curricular and co-curricular activities. Also, most Ghanaians apparently hold the view that effective supervision is a key explanatory factor for the high academic performances of private basic schools in contrast to public basic schools as measured by their Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) results. This is buttressed by the findings of a study conducted by Opare (1999) to compare performance of private and public basic school pupils in Ghana

which suggest that the monitoring and supervision of teachers' work is crucial to achievement of results.

However, in many school settings, observations tend to show that the issues involving curriculum supervision have proved quite contentious and even acrimonious, sometimes leading to feuds between leadership and the rest of the staff and students. Quite often, teachers and students whose tasks and functions are mostly supervised by school and subject heads tend to complain about how such leaders have become so interested in inspecting and criticizing their work instead of concentrating on sourcing logistics to make work easier or more manageable. Also, it is common to hear the complaint that many school heads change the supervision process into a means of controlling or instructing staff, instead of a means of developing staff. Some heads of schools, subject specialists and sometimes officials from the Education Service, on the other hand, seem to perceive the staff and students as not working hard enough or as incompetent and for that matter needing constant 'close-marking' supervision. Some teachers, it is alleged, even go to the extent of feigning sickness, in addition to making other excuses, just to avoid being supervised by supervisors from within and outside of their schools. In other developments, some teachers whose positions require some supervision are alleged to behave in ways or make utterances which do not portray supervision as a supportive and collaborative exercise.

According to Garubo and Rothstein (1998), research indicates that lack of skills in expressing sentiments through feedback constitutes a factor in the resistance and antagonistic behaviour of both curriculum supervisors and teachers. They therefore suggest the development of better interpersonal relationships and open communication as the way forward to resolving problems and issues in

curriculum supervision. Whether such conditions exist in Ghanaian Senior High Schools provide the springboard for the current study.

The issues enumerated above point to a need to investigate the perceptions held by curriculum leaders and teachers about curriculum supervision within the school setting. Put in a question form, ‘How do heads of schools and subject departments, as well as teachers in Senior High Schools perceive curriculum supervision and how do such perceptions affect their attitude to work?’

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study is to create awareness about the perception of curriculum supervision held by various players in the education delivery system; especially school heads and heads of subject departments, as well as teachers of Senior High Schools whose functions include or are affected by curriculum supervision. The study also seeks to establish the various attitudes and approaches to curriculum supervision prevalent in Senior High Schools in the Assin North Municipality.

Research Questions

The study was guided by the following questions:

1. What do school heads, heads of subject departments and teachers consider as the purposes of effective curriculum supervision?
2. Which practices do school heads, heads of subject departments and teachers perceive to constitute curriculum supervision?
3. How do school heads, heads of subject departments and teachers think debriefing/feedback should be treated?
4. What factors/conditions do school heads, heads of subject departments and teachers think are essential for effective supervision?

5. What approaches to curriculum supervision are perceived to be prevalent in Senior High Schools in the Assin North Municipality?
6. Which aspects of school tasks should curriculum supervision cover?
7. What roles do supervisors and supervisees play in curriculum supervision?

Significance of the Study

It is envisaged that the findings of this study will furnish school leaders whose tasks or functions involve supervision with information on the purposes of curriculum supervision. It will also expose such leaders to the different shades of ideas and perceptions held about their work and the behaviour incidental to such perceptions.

The results will also generate broad ideas as to how to make curriculum supervision more relevant to attaining curriculum goals within the school setting.

The findings will further serve as an invaluable resource to those who will seek to organize orientations and workshops for heads of schools/subject departments upon their appointment, as well as general supportive supervision conferences for both supervisors and supervisees as proposed by Garubo and Rothstein (1998).

Again, the findings may inform the Supervisory and Inspectorate Divisions of the Ghana Education Service to fashion out a 'dialogic approach' to, and standard practice policies in curriculum supervision in the country.

The outcome will, in great measure serve as a reference point for further investigation or study into the perceptions and attitudes which underpin the practice of supervision in schools and other institutions in Ghana and elsewhere.

Delimitations of the Study

Curriculum supervision at the Senior High School level may involve the work of personnel and oversight agencies from within and without the school. However, the scope of this study is confined to the perceptions and viewpoints of heads of senior high schools, subject departments and teachers about curriculum supervision in schools. Though students' affairs constitute one of the "main areas that appear to thread their way through the supervised curricula..." (Glatthorn, Boschee and Whitehead, 2006, p. 232), their views and perceptions are not captured in this study.

Limitations of the Study

The self-reporting nature of the questionnaire in eliciting data is likely to have induced perceived socially acceptable responses from both leaders and teachers alike. There was therefore, the possibility of the respondents making some false declarations just to impress or please me. Also, only the questionnaire was used, even though available mechanisms from other instruments could have helped to check for some of these apparent false declarations, is a noteworthy limitation to the study.

Again, the procedure for sampling was non-probability, which did not apply randomization, hence marginally risking some error when generalizing the findings.

Organization of the Rest of the Study

Chapter two, which follows the present chapter, deals with the review of literature which is relevant to the study. It specifically looks at the evolution of curriculum supervision from within the general phenomenon of supervision, forms of supervision, functions of supervision, perceptual sets relating to

supervision, and curriculum leadership from which curriculum supervision emanates.

Chapter three presents the research methods and procedures employed in the study. It covers the research design, population, sample and sampling technique, instrumentation, data collection procedure, and data analysis procedure. Chapter four presents and discusses the findings from the analysis of data collected from the field. Chapter five summarizes the research process and findings. It also draws conclusions from the findings and makes recommendations for policy, practice and further research.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter reviews literature related to the topic of study. The review is intended to provide insight into the nature of the problem and current information on the topic. It is also to reveal how others have handled methodological and design issues in similar studies. The review covers first, the under-listed topics which together make up the conceptual framework for the study. Secondly, empirical studies related to the current study are also reviewed.

1. The concept 'curriculum'
2. Types of curriculum
3. The concept 'leadership'
4. Styles of leadership
5. Theories of leadership
6. The concept of 'supervision' as a leadership function
7. The concept of 'curriculum supervision'
8. Historical overview of curriculum supervision
9. Forms/approaches of curriculum supervision
10. Functions/purposes of curriculum supervision
11. Roles /responsibilities of curriculum supervisors

12. Challenges and controversies in curriculum supervision

13. The nature of perception

14. Empirical review

15. Summary of literature review

Overview of the conceptual framework

One concept which is very critical to education delivery in every society, yet variously misconstrued is the concept of curriculum. Perhaps the kinds of meanings and interpretations accorded it go a long way to determine its effective implementation and by extension supervision. Moreover, the understanding of the curriculum also greatly feeds into any attempt to significantly distinguish curriculum supervision from any other forms of supervision.

Perceptions held by both supervisors as curriculum leaders and supervisees can influence the choices and decisions made in relation to curriculum supervision processes. It is also assumed that leadership traits of school heads permeate their perception of what to do and how to perform their duties, including handling curriculum supervision.

Literature establishes that most curriculum supervisors or leaders tend to perceive and approach curriculum supervision differently from those teachers or instructors who are supervised. Re-orientation of these perceptions which actually guide thoughts and actions of both supervisors and supervisees, and making the effort to re-focus them onto acceptable purposes, functions and practices of curriculum supervision constitutes an important step towards effective and efficient supervision of the curriculum.

The concept curriculum

One's understanding of the curriculum will determine his/her approach to supervising it. Yet, the concept 'curriculum' has numerous definitions which can be slightly confusing. The literature shows that it means different things to different people, different educational institutions and different parts of educational systems. According to the Education Encyclopedia (2009), in empirical studies, definitions of curriculum scuttle the scale from those that would have the term represent everything that takes place in a class, to others that restrict its meanings to only topics defined as instructional requirements in the official policy of an educational system. Some definitions even limit the curriculum to only those topics actually taught by teachers.

In what is touted as the premier textbook in curriculum studies, Bobbitt (1918) explains the curriculum as the course of deeds and experiences through which children become the adults they should be for success in society. He also thinks of the curriculum to cover the entire scope of formative deed and experience in and out of school, including those unplanned and undirected, as well as intentionally directed experiences for the purposeful formation of adult members of society. Obviously, these postulates form the basis of Bobbitt's philosophy of the curriculum being a social engineering arena.

Since this pioneering attempt by Bobbitt in 1918, there has been several efforts at defining, describing and explaining what a curriculum is about in principle and practices, as well as what goes into determining what the curriculum should cover. Print (1993) describes what constitutes the most commonly held view of curriculum as depiction of subject matter or body of content to be taught to students. This commonly held view, however, would rather suit the description

of a syllabus or course outline which tends to be a list of content areas which will be assessed.

Marsh and Willis (2003) summarize the different view points from the literature as follows:

- 1) Curriculum is such 'permanent subjects as grammar, reading, logic, rhetoric, mathematics, and the greatest books of the western world that best embody essential knowledge.
- 2) Curriculum is those subjects that are most useful for living in contemporary society.
- 3) Curriculum is all planned learnings for which the school is responsible.
- 4) Curriculum is all experiences learners have under the guidance of the school.
- 5) Curriculum is the totality of learning experiences provided to students so that they can attain general skills and knowledge at a variety of learning sites.

To view the curriculum as permanent subjects that embody essential knowledge forms reflect espousing of pre-determined content which must be strictly followed. In effect, the curriculum is restricted to only few subjects which are deemed relevant for effective living in contemporary society. This reflects prescriptive ideology premised on idealists philosophy. For the purposes of social acceptability, idealist philosophy puts up definitions of the curriculum which express what 'should be' or 'ought to be', representing carefully selected content materials and modes of instruction which teachers must adopt to teach learners. This also makes the curriculum look like a product intended to be 'consumed' or

‘assimilated’ religiously, with very little or no regard for the individual learner’s actual experiences or aspirations on the programme.

In support of the above view, some contend that prescription can help in a positive way to minimize the acquisition of unethical tendencies and unintended negative outcomes of training and schooling under the ambit of the term curriculum. In a way, it also facilitates systematic instruction and assessment procedures for graduation and progression academically and professionally. The official aspects of the programme of study which are prescribed and systematically assessed or examined are therefore accorded the most value. After all, they may argue that a person becomes a professional after rigorous assessment procedures based on specifically prescribed courses of study and not just by any attitude or values which are acquired covertly without objective and monitored assessment procedures.

It then follows that the benchmarks set within the processes and purposes for evaluating curriculum effectiveness under such prescriptive curricular arrangements are strictly based on prescribed content. Little premium is therefore placed on the wide range of learners’ real experiences which may not fall within the content materials pre-determined by experts, no matter how substantial, tangible and realistic they may prove to be.

In other jurisdictions, curriculum thought is dominated by the kinds of arrangements and contribution that the school as an institution of learning makes towards the inculcation of worthwhile knowledge, skills and values. This then suggests that the real curriculum is moulded on the climate and ethos of individual schools within the same educational system. There is no denying the fact that the school system provides an environment within which the learner

encounters experiences within and beyond course content areas. The curriculum is therefore viewed as all planned activities which are consciously organized and systematically implemented under careful watch of instructors in the school. In other words, all conditions which yield learning by reason of the structure and organization, as well as peculiar practices of the school within and without the classroom, official timetable or the syllabus are deemed to have greater curricular effects. Practices and activities which may be described as extra-curricular or co-curricular are considered as important as those officially presented in documents. To buttress this, Print (1993) describes the curriculum as learning opportunities offered by the nature of the school organization. For instance, he states "...all the planned learning opportunities offered by the school organization to learners and the experiences learners encounter when the curriculum is implemented", (Print, 1993, p. 3). This includes those activities that educators have devised for learners which are invariably represented in the form of a written document

In another development, a consideration of the curriculum as all, or totality of learner/learning experiences accords with broad view or generalist perspective of curriculum development. Viewing the curriculum this way depicts all opportunities and avenues created by educational delivery systems through which learners attain knowledge forms, skills, values and attitudes which contribute to effective living, but not necessarily prescribed for certification. It therefore follows that, learners gain experiences and develop, not only through prescribed content, but also through procedures of instructions, modes of enquiry, personal and organized interactions within the social and physical environments of learner. Curriculum experience may, hence, be gained through the planning of field trips, supervised projects, industrial attachments and competitive field

games. In classroom scenarios, apart from the prescribed content itself, a wide range of techniques such as experimental procedures, role play, simulations, group work, etc are vital for total learner development

Again, one other viewpoint is the consideration of the curriculum as a process. The school plans and facilitates the curriculum as a process of providing personal meaning to learners, placing emphasis on personal growth and self-actualization through experiential learning (Print, 1993). An instance is one of the aims of the social work practicum which develops the student's self awareness and self confidence towards professional competence in the world of work.

Curriculum as Intentions

Curriculum theorists , planners , developers , evaluators as well as policy makers would always hold various view points on what knowledge is of most worth , as well as modes of transmission relevant for implementing curriculum. These result in expression of intentions and for that matter prescriptions of content and experiences stipulated in documents, syllabus, and textbooks which outline what should happen in a course or programme of study. This is similar to what Posner (1995) describe as the official curriculum. The purpose of such prescriptions is to give teachers a basis for planning lessons and evaluating learners, and for curriculum leaders a basis for supervising teachers. In the estimations of Smith and Lovat (2006), more often, such intentions are posited by someone, other than those who are supposed to implement them. Such idealist prescriptions emanate from rationalist assumptions which do not give much thought of what actually happens in classrooms. Given the fact that factors such as school climate, teachers' preparedness/competencies and learner characteristics may affect and influence what is taught, when it is taught, and how it is taught, it

happens that the plan or intention is greatly modified during implementation. Also, even what is taught and how it is taught may be different from what is learned, how it is learned and for which reason it is learned. This therefore means that, apart from the intentions of the planner being different from what is taught by the implementer, the implementer's intentions may also be different from that of the learner. These scenarios, therefore, leave gaps between officially prescribed intentions and what are usually taught and/or learned.

Types of curriculum

The Taught Curriculum

Posner (1995) posits that the taught curriculum consists of what teachers actually teach and how its importance is communicated to the learners in their effort to operationalize the curriculum. This is also termed as the 'operational curriculum'. The taught curriculum refers to the implicit, delivered or operational aspects of curricula which are actually delivered and presented by instructors of learning in schools. It is also called the 'actual curriculum' or the 'curriculum-in-use'. It comprises those items in textbooks, curriculum guides which are actually delivered where teacher-beliefs begin to alter the curriculum and instructional styles and strategies. This, I believe, depends mostly on teacher expectations of what learners ought to be taught, as well as teachers' pedagogical content knowledge, subject content knowledge and experiences.

The Received/Learned Curriculum

Closely related to the taught curriculum is the received or learned curriculum. This refers to both intended/prescribed and unintended/unprescribed opportunities actually utilized by learners through various interactions in the school. It refers to concepts, content and behaviours which are truly learned and

remembered by students. “The gap between what is taught and what is learned, both intended and unintended is large” Cuban (as cited in Jackson, 1992, p.223). There seems to exist various conceptions which inform the reason why learners will choose or heed to particular content materials as against others, an examination of which goes beyond the scope of this work.

The Activity Curriculum

The activity curriculum is also referred to as the project or experience curriculum. The activity curriculum seeks to translate learners’ interests and needs into real experiences rather than learners imbibing pre-determined subject matter with or without understanding them. The activity curriculum has been widely seen as a reactionary alternative to cater for lapses in subject-based curricula arrangements (Adentwi, 2005). Among features that give character to the activity curriculum is its focus on the expressed natural interests, developmental needs, capabilities and purpose of learners. Also, it is not pre-planned, but rather preparations are made to engender interests and free expression. The school’s duty therefore is to provide conducive environment for learning. The teacher assumes the role of a facilitator. Learning through problem solving is espoused as learners are encouraged to see problems encountered during learning as challenges which they need to overcome. They do this by employing real life skills emanating from ingenuity and creativity. Learners are therefore, encouraged to ‘learn to play the flute by playing the flute’. These arrangements are enhanced by flexibility in time tabling, grouping for projects and resourcefulness of facilitators (Adentwi, 2005).

It is worth noting that activity curriculum has philosophical underpinnings in Experimentalism which considers reality as what is actually experienced, truth

as what presently functions and goodness as what is accepted by public test. Experimentalists openly accept change and continually seek to discover new ways to expand and improve society. The school environment under such convictions, heavily emphasize social experiences and for that matter an experience or activity curriculum. Another philosophy which lends credence to the activity curriculum is Existentialism which views the world as one of personal subjectivity “where goodness, truth and reality are individually defined” (Wiles & Bondi, 1993, pp. 47-48).

Though not very popular and therefore uncommon to many educational systems of our time, the activity curriculum, whether in its extreme or mild application has ascribed strengths in the scheme of things. Under the activity curriculum, learning which emanates from the child’s experiences gives the child a sense of ownership of knowledge and skills. This means that since the child mostly learn by doing, he or she is likely to understand the process and reasoning behind certain realities and situations.

The Core Curriculum

The core curriculum places emphasis on social values and essential knowledge, skills and attitudes which are deemed to be basic requirements necessary for all, irrespective of where one’s interest of specialization lies. According to Tanner and Tanner (2007), such curricula are built on themes of social living and are required by all students. In effect, core curriculum is supposed to augment the preparedness of learners to be opened and broadminded to the acquisition of elective disciplines and eventual professional practice. It is a fact that, the practice of harmonizing basic disciplines which are fundamental for preparing for life has been an improvement over the secluded presentation of

specialized areas alone. However, in practice, it becomes a compulsory prescription for all learners and that alone can hinder articulation of some learners to higher grades where institutions are structured. In the Ghanaian system, for instance good passes in core subject areas are pre-requisites for graduation, certification and progression from the Senior High School to tertiary institutions.

The Subject Curriculum

In the subject curriculum, a valued content is selected and organized into specific fields in order to discipline learners so as to present ideas in more specific ways to prove more beneficial in tackling new problems of specialized research (Tanner & Tanner, 2007). Perhaps, as the most applied form of curriculum organization, the subject curriculum is planned into elective subjects and fields which yield specialization in future life. Mention can be made of Mathematics, English Language, General Science, Economics, History curricula. These fields do not require generalist instructors, but teachers who are specifically trained and disciplined in at least one particular subject, both in pedagogical craft and subject content knowledge related to the area of specialization.

Tanner and Tanner (2007), however, point to the fact that, though such an arrangement may yield mastery and in-depth acquisition and utilization of knowledge and skills in these subject areas, it may ignore their interest, thereby inhibiting versatility in knowledge acquisition, due to over specialization. Also learners are not well prepared to solve problems in other areas of endeavour, as the subject curriculum fails to develop habits of effective broad thinking.

The Integrated Curriculum

An integrated curriculum is one that transcends the boundaries imposed by traditional subjects. It is thought driven and involves the integration of content

with skills and processes. The integrated curriculum, in the words of Bishop (1985, p.95), is the “regrouping of ideas and knowledge between subjects and disciplines so as to provide a new and intellectually reputable curriculum”. It, therefore, requires accessing knowledge from diverse traditional subjects without labeling them as such. In addition, integrated curriculum adds problem-solving, real-world application and social consciousness to the learning process, making it a more comprehensive way of educating and of learning. Also, integrated curriculum finds justification in the argument that knowledge transmitted through institutionalized education has become so fragmented into the separated subjects; and that though these subjects represent the most efficient and economical manner of transmitting subject matter, they have introduced so much artificial thinking about the world and its environment (Adentwi, 2005).

In the specific case of the Ghanaian Educational system, the Social Studies curriculum at the basic and senior high school levels, avoid labeling knowledge and, more importantly, draws upon learners’ own life experiences and backgrounds. This makes learning real for the students and gives them some ‘stake’ in the learning. Theorists argue that skills, values and understandings are best taught and assessed within meaningful, ‘connected’ contexts (Murdoch, 1998). Designing curriculum in this way can provide opportunities for students to see or identify ‘big picture’ ideas by transferring knowledge across curriculum areas. Students can then achieve outcomes in meaningful contexts and reflect between their learning and aspects of the real world. Thus, different learning styles and divergent thinking can be catered for whilst encouraging students to control their own learning through group or independent activities and tasks.

The Hidden Curriculum

Print (1993) describes the hidden curriculum as the unplanned learning in which meanings are conveyed indirectly by the way language [bodily and verbally] is used, the interactions that occur in the classroom and assessment methods employed. To him, the hidden curriculum can have negative outcomes, where the indirect meanings conveyed are in conflict with explicit intentions. It is to be expected that some students, when taking a strategic approach to their studies are quick to determine what is examinable and therefore taken seriously. Thus, any opportunities that are not perceived to be examined are deemed superfluous and unlikely to be taken seriously.

In what seems to be a commonly accepted definition, Longstreet and Shane (1993) state, that "... the hidden curriculum, refers to the kinds of learnings children derive from the very nature and organizational design of the public school, as well as from the behaviours and attitudes of teachers and administrators" (p.46). They offer the following as probable areas from which such messages and lessons are derived:

- 1) Sequential room arrangements;
- 2) The cellular timed segments of formal instruction;
- 3) Students getting in and standing in line silently;
- 4) Students quietly raising their hands to be called upon;
- 5) Competition for grades, and so on.

It is my opinion that though elements learned through the hidden curriculum may not be examinable, there is the need for some level of supervision of that since both positive and negative values, attitudes and knowledge forms can be acquired through that. Gardner (as cited in Wilson, 2006) observed: "We learn

simply by the exposure of living. Much that passes for education is not education at all but ritual. The fact is that we are being educated when we know it least”.

The Extra Curriculum

Also known as co-curriculum or ‘allied’ curriculum, extra curriculum comprises all those planned experiences outside of the school subjects. According to Posner (1995), it contrasts with the official curriculum by virtue of its voluntary nature and its responsiveness to learners’ interests and aspirations. It is openly recognized as significant as the official curriculum in many respects, though, seemingly, less important than the official curriculum. Extra/co-curriculum may yield opportunities and experiences for knowledge, discipline, skills and talent development in areas such as sports, students’ club/societal activities, entertainment shows, inter/intra departmental/sectional/hall activities, student politics/leadership, and many others. Specifically, they may include learning of skills on the sports field, acting skills with the Drama Club, oratory with the Debaters Club, singing with a school choir among many others. According to Tamakloe (as cited in Adentwi, 2005) none of the school’s educational activities must be viewed as extra-curricular because they all ultimately help to shape the attitudes, skills, character and personalities of learners. They are therefore important as far as the idea of educating learners is concerned. These are experiences gained by learners through opportunities created by the school environment. In this regard, there exist many instances where people make a living as a result of experiences gained through ancillary activities, rather than taught and assessment-based prescribed courses of study.

The Null Curriculum

A very critical part of the curriculum which almost all the time, plausibly escapes attention is what is termed as the ‘null curriculum’. As complex as its description may be, the concept can be stated to mean those things which the schools do not teach, and may sometimes make the conscious effort to shield from learners. In other words, it is a curriculum that does not exist. It is the conviction of Eisner (1994) that those concerned with the consequences of school programmes and the roles of curriculum in shaping those consequences should be well advised to consider, not only the explicit and implicit curriculum of schools, but, also what schools do not teach. This is because what schools do not teach may be as important as what they do teach.

It appears from Eisner’s perspective that the null curriculum is simply that which falls off when people who theorize and make conscious decisions on what to include in the school curriculum exclude them from the overt. He argued that “ignorance is not simply a neutral void; it has important effects on the kinds of options one is able to consider, the alternatives that one can examine, and the perspectives from which one can view a situation or problems” (Eisner, 1994, p.97). Such omissions may affect certain topical areas, and even subject disciplines, since it is not very possible to include all content perceived to be worth studying into the curriculum. However, he seems to suggest that school personnel and perhaps planners of the curriculum are sending signals to students that certain content and processes are not worth studying.

Other concepts gaining currency in the scheme of the curriculum discourse include ‘inclusive curriculum’, ‘societal curriculum’, and ‘phantom curriculum’. An inclusive curriculum treats the knowledge and experiences of women, racial

groups and other minority groups just being as valid and relevant as the knowledge of dominant groups in mainstream academic discourse (Bailey, 1995).

The societal curriculum deals with the massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighbourhoods, church organizations, occupations, mass media and other socializing forces that 'educate' all of us throughout our lives. The phantom curriculum covers messages prevalent in, and through exposure to the media. Although these may appear peripheral to the curricula discourse, the understanding they yield may serve as useful information to the curriculum supervisor to enable him/her to know how to check their effect on observable curriculum.

Obviously, crucial to the curriculum is the definition of the course objectives (though not in all cases) that usually are expressed as learning outcomes and normally include the programme's assessment strategy.

The Concept 'Leadership'

Leadership in all human environments, including the school, has been held as a fascinating subject by many. The talk about leadership seem to conjure up a familiar scene of a powerful, heroic, triumphant individual or group with followers whose only option is to bow and conform. This is because leadership has always been associated with power, traditionally the power to dominate a group. But, today, this power is fast evaporating (McCrimmon, 2007). The widespread fascination with leadership should be linked with how very effectively its expressions are harnessed to benefit the group. It has, therefore, been described as the process of social influence in which one person or group of persons can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task (Wikipedia, 2010).

Stories of heroic leadership go back to several thousands of years with the Biblical Moses delivering thousands of Hebrews from Egypt or Alexander the Great building a great empire, and very recently, the African Champions such as Kwame Nkrumah and Nelson Mandela championing the course for the abolition of colonialism and apartheid respectively. It must be noted, however, that there were, and still are some who could be described as leaders, but who were not as militant as those already mentioned. Their leadership tasks are manifest in the area of economic activities, religion, healthcare, education delivery etc. Their approaches have been characterized by diplomacy, tactful appeal, subtle techniques and charisma management to influence colleagues and/or followers to establish and accomplish goals (Lamb & McKee, 2004).

Now, followers are more readily moved by the power of ideas and innovations. The awkward fact about good ideas is that no one can monopolize them. The bottom line is that leadership promotes a new direction for a group and it does not have to be associated with an executive position. Anyone with a good idea to champion can show leadership upwards and sideways. This then portrays leadership as an act, rather than a position. Researchers conducted over a hundred studies, proposing a number of characteristics that distinguished leaders from non-leaders: intelligence, dominance, adaptability, persistence, integrity, socioeconomic status, and self-confidence, just to name a few (Bass & Bass, 2008).

The specific instance of curriculum leadership is premised within fragile and delicate system that requires tremendous tactfulness, skill and virtue, especially, on the part of the school head or head of subject department (Morrison, 2002). The leader must hold, with high sense of consciousness, the

fact that his/her task entails working with people, through people and for people. S/he should therefore, based on a clear understanding of the rationale of the subject's inclusion in the school curriculum, develop a clear vision, which s/he shares and clarifies with members of his/her department or team. By having a vision, s/he demonstrates leadership and by attempting to make it work by involving other members, s/he demonstrates good management. Such a practice, according to Bradley (2004), creates a sense of shared ownership of the vision, as well as the subject among members. When members are convinced, rather than coerced into working, they do so in the interest of the subject department, learners and the entire educational enterprise. Following from this, the subject leader should endeavour to create a sense of responsibility by orientating members into a group of all leaders.

In the view of Peck (1997), members in a subject department harness the flow of leadership to make decisions and set a course of action. This will work very well for a subject department because members constitute a professional group of individuals who are skilled and knowledgeable and so may possess common characteristics as the leader. In that case, "Control is relinquished and traditional hierarchy is set aside" (Peck, 1997, p.72). The leader is, therefore, the first among equals. To him, nothing kills a group faster than the voice of a dictatorial boss playing God.

Today, there is a strong and passionate discourse regarding which styles or models of leadership are desirable in societies, organizations and even families. It is my view that a cursory look at some of the styles/models of leadership will help the discourse.

Styles of leadership

Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Burns, in 1978, attempted a distinction between ‘transactional’ leadership which is characterized by emphasis on procedure, contingent reward, management by exception, and then ‘transformational’ leadership characterized by charisma, personal relationships and creativity among others. It is then assumed that leadership is transformational as management is transactional.

The transformational leadership model has gained currency over the past decade. Though, initially, transformational leadership was put forth by Burns in 1978 in a non-educational setting, Sergiovanni (2000) and Leithwood, Jantzi and Steinbech (1999) have translated the theory effectively into educational leadership. Transformational leadership motivates team members to be effective and efficient with communication and reliance on chain of command as the basis for goal attainment (Burns, 2008). Transformational leadership is considered by Bass (1985) as a social exchange between leaders and followers. To him, it is transactional and has roots in charismatic leadership. A leader who perceives leadership as transactional will therefore approach supervision as a task which should yield motivation for the purposes of effective and efficient educational delivery or curriculum implementation.

Leithwood et al. (1999), for instance, have identified six dimensions of transformational leadership in schools which include building school vision and goals; intellectual stimulation; individualized support; symbolizing professional practices and values; demonstrating high performance expectations; and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions. In another development, Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) postulate four dimensions of

transactional leadership which are establishing effective staffing practices; providing instructional support; monitoring school activities and providing community focus. Clearly the six transformational leadership dimensions reflect leadership expectations, while the four transactional leadership dimensions reflect management expectations in schools

Distributive Leadership

In another development, what seem, to be assuming prevalence and growing empirical support is the conception of 'distributive leadership' in schools (Gronn, 2000; Spillane, et al. 2004). Distributive leadership is explained to mean a form of collective leadership in which teachers develop expertise by working collaboratively. To this end, leadership should not reside solely in one person at the top, but in every person at entry level who, in one way or the other, act as a leader.

This, however, does not negate the authority of the school head to lead. In a recent review Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2001) cited varied sources of leadership, and placed distributive leadership at the top of the list of what makes successful schools. In a similar milieu, Silns and Mulford (2002) found that where leadership sources are distributed throughout the school community, student outcomes are more likely to improve. It is however worth noting that the success or demise of distributive leadership is very much dependent upon the quality of relationships with other teachers and school management. Fallouts may include management feeling threatened by especially able teachers and therefore needlessly undermine their efforts and influence.

In another development, Miner (2005) has studied the impact of leadership styles on performance. In that seminal work, leaders exercised influence regarding

the type of group, decision-making, praise and criticism according to three styles, which are authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles.

Authoritarian Leadership

The authoritarian style was characterized by leaders who made decisions alone, demanded strict compliance to their orders and dictated each step taken, with future actions being uncertain to a large extent. Here, a leader may not necessarily be hostile, but, may not be approachable.

Democratic Leadership

Democratic style was characterized by collective decision making. Perspectives are gained from group discussions and technical advice of leaders. Praise and criticism are objective in such environments.

Laissez-faire Leadership

Laissez-faire style gave freedom to the group for policy determination without any participation from the leader. The result of the seminal work seemed to confirm that the democratic climate was preferred (Miner, 2005).

Visionary Leadership

Visionary leadership presents to, and convinces followers about the need for a new course which bothers on the survival and prosperity of the group's future. I, therefore, have the conviction that a curriculum leader may allow the corresponding styles of leadership adopted to determine how supervision as a leadership task will be perceived and carried out.

Today, irrespective of what one perceives of leadership as the basis for actions and attitudes in task performance, people talk more about visionary leadership, transformational leadership and functional leadership.

Theories of Leadership

Scholars of leadership continue to evolve several theories of leadership within different climates, cultures and conditions which most of the time inform the descriptions within the discourse. These theories involve traits, situational interaction, function, behaviour, power, vision and values, charisma, and intelligence among others.

Trait Theory

Traits theory for instance tries to describe the types of behaviour and tendencies associated with leader effectiveness. Pioneers of trait theory applied it to identify skills, talents and physical characteristics of men who rose to power. Heifetz (1994) links trait theory approach back to the 19th Century tradition of associating the history of society to that of the history of great men. It seems to me that trait theorists strongly hold the conviction that leadership is an art and therefore, leaders are born, but not made.

Behavioural/style Theory

In another development, McClelland (n.d) views leadership skills as being more of a pattern of motives, rather than set of traits. Being a behaviour and style theorist, he posited that successful and effective leaders will tend to have more need for power, less need for affiliation and high level of activity inhibition or self control. As a rebuttal to trait theory, behavioural and style theory emerged and followed the examination of the behaviour of successful leaders. This is to enable a determination of behaviour taxonomies and broad leadership styles (Spillane et al., 2004). Such theorists seem to consider leadership in the light of learned behaviour.

Situational/contingency Theory

Another theory which evolved as a refutation of the trait theory is the situational or contingency theory championed by Herbert Spencer in 1884 (Wikipedia, 2009). He is alleged to have also said that the times produce the person and not the other way round (Heifetz, 1994). Also, what an individual actually does when acting as a leader is in large part dependent upon characteristics of the situation in which he functions. A cursory scrutiny of this assessment, however, indicates that though the situational contingency theory was initially a rebuttal to the traits theory, it draws on elements of the traits theory in its build up. For instance, authoritarian leadership may be approved in periods of crises or state of emergency. Also democratic leadership may be required in situations where consensus building is required and laissez-faire leadership may be appreciated by the degree of freedom it provides. Hence, they conclude that specific leadership styles may work better under conditions which are contingent to the situation.

The Concept of ‘Supervision’ As A Leadership Function

Several interpretations are credited to the term supervision, just as it also assumes different practical realities in different organizations or institutions. However, in a more generic sense, the word is used to typify those activities carried out by supervisors to oversee the productivity and process of employees who report directly to the supervisor. To McNamara (2008), supervision is a management activity and supervisors have a management role in the organization. It is therefore not surprising that occasionally, writers interchange ‘leadership’ and ‘supervision’. It follows that both activities are closely related, and supervision requires leadership, though leadership may not necessarily have to

involve supervision. In order to attempt a definition which may cover its general elements, supervision can be looked at as a process of planned interactions with staff for the purpose of monitoring performance, sharing information, solving problems, professional development and goal attainment.

Waite and Fernandes (cited in Glanz & Behar-Horenstein, 2000) consider supervision as an interactive, rational process involving people; otherwise, to them, supervision becomes wholly an abstraction or a cliché. They emphasize that supervision, as an interactive process, is carried out by real human actors. However, though supervision is an interactive process involving a number of actors, leadership has often been the most critical element to developing a successful, effective and productive supervision programme. Generally, supervision has always required experience, direction, superior knowledge and skill, as well as cherished attitudes and values, which are most characteristic of leadership. Supervision then becomes a core function of leadership. Raggio, Murphy and Pirozzolo (2002) describe leadership as the process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. This relates leadership with the art of supervising by ‘cognitive coaching’ which will be explained later in detail within this chapter. They state that a leader is likely to be effective and successful provided s/he can exert positive influence on followers to elicit favourable, collaborative response to get a job done or objective achieved.

Keith (as cited in Kouzes & Posner 2007) defines leadership to be ultimately about creating a way for people to contribute to making something extraordinary happen. This definition seems to feature the inclusiveness of followers. It is my opinion that the kind of style a leader adopts is influenced by

what and how s/he perceives leadership and leadership tasks, including supervision. In the same vein, s/he will form attitudes and approaches which are underpinned by his/her perceptions of supervision. A leader who perceives supervision to be showmanship of power is likely to be autocratic in attitude. Similarly, followers with like expectations will expect their leader to exhibit an 'iron man' attitude before they follow him. Also, a leader who perceives his leadership status to be of low estate is likely to pose a laissez-faire attitude towards supervision, which leaves followers alone to act as they please. A leader whose perceptions of leadership are underpinned by equal participation, group think and liberal ideals is likely to pose a democratic attitude to goal achievement and supervision as well. However, an autocratic minded leader is likely to pursue supervision with an attitude of self-centeredness and fault finding.

The Concept 'Curriculum Supervision'

Supervision may be explained to mean an expert technical service which is primarily aimed at studying and improving cooperatively, all factors which affect institutional growth and development. Though McNamara (2008) agrees that there are several interpretations of the term supervision, he maintains that typically it is the activity carried out by supervisors to oversee the productivity and progress of employees who report directly to the supervisors.

On a more simplistic note Wikipedia (2009) describes supervision to mean the act of watching over the work or tasks of another who may lack full knowledge of the concept at hand. It, however, adds that supervision does not mean control of another, but guidance in a work, in a professional or personal context. This description does not only appear simplistic, but also represents a populist view of the concept.

Curriculum supervision constitutes a part of the broader concept of educational supervision. Educational supervision may take three forms. These are incidental supervision, partial supervision and professional supervision. Incidental supervision becomes functional when boards of education or school trustees assume the task of supervision which becomes, to them, a matter of incident to their core duties. Partial supervision may involve allowing the school head or subject head some respite from teaching so s/he could oversee the work of his/her staff and attend to other important duties as an executive officer. Professional supervision involves the works of officials of the educational departments at the state, regional and county or municipal levels, whose main schedules involve full-time inspection and supervision of schools/curricular activities within the school (Wikipedia, 2009).

In our specific circumstances in Ghana, Incidental supervision of the schools is undertaken by School Management Committees (S.M.Cs), Parent-Staff Associations (P.S.As) Local managers of Religious Educational Unit Schools, Boards of Governors and Councils of Institutions. Partial supervision of the curriculum is undertaken mainly by heads of schools and heads of Subject Departments. Professional supervision is undertaken by personnel from Inspectorate/supervisory departments within the school-district, regional and national offices of the Ghana Education Service for pre-tertiary institutions while the National Accreditation Board, National Council for Tertiary Education, and others supervise tertiary institutions/programmes alongside internal Quality Control and Assurance outfits.

To some, supervision within the school context should focus on playing essential roles in determining the fate and conduct of school leaders in choosing

school organizational models and learning materials for the purpose of effective teaching and learning, as well as evaluating the entire educational process. This therefore means that educational supervision should concern the improvement of conditions, both physical and socio-cultural which facilitate teaching and learning. Moreover, Garubo and Rothstein (1998) envisage a situation whereby a principal or assistant principal may be said to conduct general supervision, as distinct from the more specific, subject-based or curriculum supervision conducted by a high school departmental head.

Specifically, curriculum supervision takes the form of in-classroom observations, assisting teachers' professional and group development, evaluation of teachers and students' academic performance, research and revision of curriculum. It identifies, mainly, academic problems and works towards promoting academic achievement (Education Encyclopedia, 2009). This seeks to describe the whole concept of curriculum supervision as a multi-task concept geared towards improvement in educational delivery.

From this background comes a description of curriculum supervision as services which may be both technical and flexible towards the achievement of enabling conditions for effective and efficient curriculum delivery. It therefore stands to reason that rather than the usual narrow and limited aim of improving teachers in service, curriculum supervision should aim at improving the total teaching and learning process.

Also, the International Institute for Educational Planning (UNESCO, 2007) explains curriculum supervision to mean a part of an overall quality monitoring and improvement system, which includes other devices such as examinations and achievement test, and self-assessment practices by schools and

teachers. It was further stated that the concept supervision services should be viewed by, and understood as covering all the services whose main functions include: to inspect, control, evaluate and/or advise, assist and support school leaders and teachers. This plethora of services and tasks will definitely require skills, knowledge and other competencies of the supervisor who tries to work with the entire staff, specialists and administrators alike.

In a breath, there seems to be emerging what may be termed the reformists approach to curriculum supervision. This is in sync with the vision of UNESCO to reform school supervision for quality improvement. Many times, countries have attempted to reform their curriculum supervision services to improve educational quality. This desire for reform is inspired by disappointment with the effectiveness of supervision and by the recent trends towards more school autonomy (UNESCO, 2009).

These shades of opinions expressed in the literature seem to corroborate the conviction that curriculum supervision is primarily services provided through a number of tasks with the aim of improving all factors that go into facilitating growth and development in the teaching and learning process.

Historical Overview of Curriculum Supervision

The phenomenon of curriculum supervision evolved over a fairly long period of time and has been variously described simply as school supervision, school inspection, instructional supervision and curriculum monitoring. The interchangeable use of these terms derive from what Adentwi (2005) refers to as broad view definition of the word curriculum as what goes on in schools and other training institutions. Curriculum supervision therefore exists within school supervision, monitoring or even inspection. It must be emphasized that curriculum

supervision as a field of educational endeavour with clearly delineated roles and responsibilities has also evolved slowly as a distinct practice, always in relation to the institutional, academic, cultural and professional dynamics that have historically generated the complex agenda of schooling (Education Encyclopedia, 2009)

To De-Grauwe (2007), the origins of curriculum supervision date back to the birth of public education to forge a common language and culture. Curriculum supervision became the key tool to ensure that all education staff respected the same rules and regulations and followed a similar programme within the nation state. The first public inspection services in France were set up at the end of the 18th century by Napoleon's regime. Following after that, other European states followed suit in the 19th century and translated same into the colonies to assist in the control of the subjugated masses.

Many European countries set up their curriculum supervision systems which were known widely as inspectorates in the 19th century. England, for instance, had Her Majesty's Inspectorate (HMI) which was founded in 1834 and became the model for many developing countries (UNESCO, 2007).

In the colony of New England for instance, supervision of institutions began as a process of external inspection. One or more local citizens were appointed to inspect both what the teachers were teaching and what the students were learning. This means that inspection was to remain firmly enrooted in the practice of supervision (Education Encyclopedia, 2009).

In the case of British West Africa, including the Gold Coast (now Ghana), some arrangement of supervision in the name of school inspections evolved. According to Antwi (1992), this evolution saw the appointment of Rev. Metcalfe

Sunter in the year 1882 as inspector of schools for the entire British West Africa settlements. To Antwi (1992), this marked the first systematic effort by the colonial administration to regulate education within the colonies. He also states that this initial attempt by government to regulate and perhaps supervise the curriculum was given a boost in an Education ordinance of 1882 which also sought to model the educational system at the time on the English pattern. In effect, upon his appointment by Her Majesty, Rev. Sunter (then principal of Fourah Bay College) had jurisdiction across British West Africa and reported to the Queen until his death in 1892 in Lagos. It should be noted however that some sort of supervision managed by missionary elements within mission schools antedates the appointment of Rev. Sunter.

According to Pickard (n.d.) the American colonies recognised early enough the importance of education, but aside the establishment of colleges, seminaries and universities little was done in a general way towards fostering the interest of popular education. He alludes to the fact that the church organized schools and provided course of study and was dominant in civil affairs. During this period, a gradual process of evolution in matters of control and supervision of schools existed.

In the case of the United States of America, curriculum supervision as a formal activity was piloted by educational administrators within a system of schools in the late 1830s when the formation of the common school emerged (Education Encyclopedia, 2009). It explains further that during the first half of the 19th century, population growth in the major cities of the United States necessitated the formation of city school systems, within which superintendents initially inspected schools to ensure that teachers followed prescribed curriculum.

The aim of this practice was also to see that students were able to recite their lessons. However, the manipulation of schools soon made this an impossible task for superintendents and so the job was delegated to school principals. In the early decades of the 20th century, however, the forward march towards scientific management in both industrial and public administration had an influence on schools (Education Encyclopedia, 2009)

Significant to note is the fact that, much about the same time European educators such as Fredrick Froebel, Johann Herbert and Johann Pestalozzi as well as the America philosopher John Dewey were also affecting the schools with their child-centered experience-based curriculum theories. This state of affairs drew school supervisors between the demand to evaluate teachers scientifically and the simultaneous need to transform teaching from mechanistic repetition of teaching protocols to a diverse repertoire of instructional responses to students' natural curiosity and diverse levels of readiness. (Education Encyclopedia, 2009) There came to exist, therefore, a kind of tension between supervision as a uniform, scientific approach to instruction and supervision as a flexible process of dialogue between teacher and supervisor characterized by the shared, professional discretion of both for a long time. It is quite obvious then, that different perception came to be held about curriculum supervision and monitoring among curriculum leaders in terms of its purposes and acceptable practices.

However, since then, many changes have occurred and in all countries curriculum supervision services, over space and time, have become complex and intricate systems, playing different roles and assuming different descriptions (UNESCO, 2007). There seem though to be lots of developments in the field of curriculum supervision. Today, what has now become closely identified with

various forms of clinical supervision mostly blends elements of objectives and scientific classroom observation, with aspects of collegial coaching, rational planning and a flexible enquiry-based concern with student learning (Education Encyclopedia, 2009). A closer look will be taken at clinical supervision together with other models or approaches later.

In recent times, many countries have attempted to reform their curriculum supervision services to improve educational quality. This desire for reform is more often than not inspired by disappointment or dissatisfaction with the effectiveness of supervision and by the recent trend towards more school autonomy. According to UNESCO (2007) therefore, the ability of schools to use their greater autonomy and freedom effectively and responsibly will largely depend on the support services on which many can rely, while supervision may be needed to guide them in their decision-making and use of resources. Whichever way one looks at the issues involved in the reform, the fact remains that there have been mixed successes whose overall analyses allows for profound insight into what can be achieved in specific contexts.

Again, it is worthy of note that, in their specific efforts to reform and innovate curriculum supervision, many countries in recent years have increasingly relied on internal mechanisms of control and support by actors at the school site level (i.e. principals, subject leaders, community members etc).

Forms of Curriculum Supervision

Glatthorn et al (2006) categorize curriculum supervision into supervising ‘the taught curriculum’ and supervising ‘the supported curriculum’. The taught curriculum is thought of to include those activities which relate to classroom interactions that directly yield skills, knowledge forms and attitudes for which

learners are assessed and graded. The supported curriculum on the other hand, deals with instructional materials, logistics, as well as time and personnel allocations for effective educational delivery. To explain this further, Glatthorn et al. (2006) define the supported curriculum to include “all the resources provided to ensure the effective implementation of the curriculum: the time allocated to the curriculum, the personnel assigned to plan and implement the curriculum and the instructional materials required for the curriculum” (p. 246). It is, however, important to note that more often than not, the focus of curriculum supervision emphasized in the literature is mostly on the ‘taught curriculum’.

Brooks, Solloway and Allen (2007) contend that the gulf between educational leadership theory and contemporary curriculum scholarship is becoming increasingly problematic now that principals have been legally mandated to add curriculum monitoring to their duties as instructional leaders. It is in line with this that Sergiovanni, (2000) suggest the creation of a supervisory system with multiple processes of supervision which include summative evaluation. This was in recognition of the time limitations facing practicing supervisors and the passion for the promotion of teacher effectiveness. Their proposal was in favour of a system or model which does not require the direct involvement of a formal supervisor. The system of supervision might rather cycle or revolve teachers with professional status through a three to five year period within which a formal evaluation will be administered to them once as well as other processes of evaluation such as self evaluation, peer supervision, curriculum development, action research, school renewal projects etc in subsequent years. They, however, emphasized the evidence of professional growth within the once-a-cycle format evaluative period.

Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1993) attempted a working definition of another form of curriculum supervision which has caught up with many scholars. Clinical curriculum supervision, they say, is that aspect of instructional supervision which draws upon data from direct firsthand observation of actual teaching, or other professional events, and involves face-to-face and other associated interactions between the observer(s) and the person(s) observed in the course of analyzing the observed professional behaviours and activities and seeking to define and/or develop next steps towards improved performance. In this, a point critical enough for our attention is the benefit of direct observation and collection of data for administrative and professional practice enhancement.

It is worthy of note that clinical supervision which seems to have gained some capital in recent discussions of curriculum supervision has evolved from medical experience and has been popularized in teacher education, especially in North America. Cogan (1973) affirms that the use of the word clinical has invoked some resistance, yet its applications of direct observation are well received. It is further described to focus mostly on the professional development of the supervisee's skills within the institution. To Holloway (1995) clinical supervision emphasizes the educational and supportive functions of the supervisory role. This, therefore, gives a semblance of characteristic of both taught and supported curriculum supervision. In effect, clinical supervision takes place between two individuals, one of them designated as the supervisor and the other as the supervisee. The two, Holloway (1995) believes, must meet regularly to discuss clinical and professional issues as may affect the professional growth and development of the supervisee.

Approaches to curriculum supervision

Glatthorn, et al. (2006) again examine a number of current approaches to supervision of the taught curriculum available to curriculum leaders. These include “Hunter’s Essential Elements Approach”, “Glickman’s Developmental Supervision”, “Costa and Garmston’s Cognitive Coaching” and “Glatthorn’s Differentiated Supervision” (pp. 230-245).

Hunter’s model

Hunter’s model seeks to focus supervisors’ attention on what teachers should pay attention to in a good lesson design. This includes developing in students anticipatory sets so they can focus on what will be learned. Also, setting of objectives and purposes in meaningful and realistic terms, as well as facilitating inputs and modeling through information and practical demonstration, guided practice and independent practice.

Glickman’s Developmental Supervision

Glickman’s developmental supervision model aims at helping teachers to increase their conceptual level of development. “This thought-oriented” approach permeates the four ways through which supervisors can help teachers grow by offering direct assistance (which is usually called ‘clinical supervision’); by providing in-service education; by working with teachers in curriculum development; and by helping them carry out action research” (Glatthorn et al., 2006, p. 231).

Costa and Garmston’s Cognitive Coaching

Costa and Garmston’s ‘cognitive coaching’ seem to draw basically on clinical supervision which highlights creation and management of trusting relationships, facilitation of teacher learning by restructuring teacher thinking and

eventually the development of teacher autonomy. To Glatthorn et al. (2006), this requires that supervisors listen actively, question insightfully, and respond congruently.

Glatthorn's Differentiated Supervision

Glatthorn's differentiated supervision model is also a developmental model which seeks to reconceptualize the supervisory function and broadens the view of curriculum leaders on other aspects of the taught curriculum beyond the coverage of clinical supervision. Other areas of concern to him include staff development, individual development, informal observations, rating and staff motivation which are quite critical to effective curriculum supervision. He hints, for instance, that "the role of the principal has grown from that of a manager to a change agent, an administrative-organizational specialist" (Glatthorn et al., 2006, p. 233).

Functions/purposes of Curriculum Supervision

Educational systems and institutional frameworks differ for sure. Nevertheless, with all of their differences, there should be singleness of an ultimate purpose to engender a sound and functional curriculum delivery. However, there is an obvious lack of professional unity among supervisors and supervisees on acceptable purposes of curriculum supervision, as well as its core functions. According to Holloway (1995), the five functions that supervisors, generally engage in, while interacting with supervisees include:

- 1) Monitoring and evaluation
- 2) Instructing and advising
- 3) Modeling

- 4) Consulting
- 5) Supporting and sharing.

She explains further that “The professional responsibility of the supervisor is to oversee the supervisees’ work and provide a formative and summative evaluation” (p. 33), hence, the monitoring and evaluative roles of supervisors. In the case of instructing and advising, communication which is largely controlled by the supervisor emphasizes the hierarchy of the relationship and is marked by considerable interpersonal distance. Also when participants are more equally matched in perceived expert power, decreased amount of advising might result.

Holloway (1995) postulates further that the supervisor should function as a model of professional behaviour and practice, both implicitly in the supervisory relationship and explicitly by role-playing for the supervisee. This is given credence by bi-directional communication thereby reducing interpersonal distance and making exercise of power a collaborative process. In her estimations, consulting facilitates problem solving of clinical and professional conduct as information and opinion of the supervisee(s) are sought. This, however, requires the trust and respect of the supervisee(s) in order to engage in a more collaborative rather than antagonistic relationship. Again, supporting and sharing functions of the supervisor require empathic attention, encouragement and constructive confrontation with the supervisee(s). To her, “supervisors often support trainees at a deep interpersonal level by sharing their own perceptions of trainees actions, emotions and attitudes” (Holloway, 1995, p. 37).

On his part, John Dawson (as cited in Kadushin, 1992) identified the functions of supervision thus:

- 1) Administrative functions - the promotion and maintenance of good standards of work, co-ordination of practice with policies of administration, the assurance of an efficient and smooth-running office;
- 2) Educational functions - the educational development of each individual worker on the staff in a manner calculated to evoke her fully to realize her possibilities of usefulness; and
- 3) Supportive functions - the maintenance of harmonious working relationships, the cultivation of esprit-de-corps.

In similar vein, Hawkins and Shohet (1989) describe what they perceive to be the primary focus of supervision which also represents purposes of curriculum supervision. They catalogue them broadly under educational purposes and administrative/supportive purposes.

Within educational purposes of curriculum supervision lie the provision of regular space for supervisees to reflect upon the content and process of their work. There is also the development of understanding and skills, receiving information and other perspective concerning the teacher's work, as well as giving feedback. This is to ensure that the teacher is validated and supported both as a person and as a teacher, and making sure that as a person and as a worker, the teacher is not left to carry unnecessary difficulties, problems and projections alone.

On administrative/supportive purposes, curriculum supervision enables space to explore and express personal distress, re-stimulation, transference or counter-transference that may be brought up by the work. It is, again, to allow for planning and utilization of the personal and professional resources of teachers

better. It also calls for being pro-active, rather than re-active and to ensure quality of work.

Specific references to functions/purposes of curriculum supervision therefore include improvement in classroom teaching and learning, assisting teachers in professional and group development, evaluation of teachers' work output, research and revision of the curriculum. It is also meant for maintaining standards or benchmarks, meeting delivery targets within timeframes, as well as checking recalcitrance in teachers and learners.

Roles /responsibilities of curriculum supervisors

Different countries organize their supervision service in different ways depending on role expectations of supervisors such as regular advice and support to teachers and external control of schools (UNESCO, 2007). It is just logical that the structure is organized in sync with a country's educational management studies and lines of authority. That is the national, regional/city-state, school district and institutional levels of administrative controls. Interests, and for that matter intensity of supervision by personnel at each level may however differ greatly from country to country.

The current period of sweeping changes in curriculum reforms within the context of post-modern educational delivery is necessitating corresponding changes in the roles of curriculum supervisors and supervisees. These roles have assumed more complex dimensions, perhaps, because the curriculum of today and its process have become much more complex.

Curriculum supervision is an activity which constitutes a part of several roles and may overtly or covertly manifest in portions of the tasks of various stakeholders such as principals, assistant principals and leaders of academic

departments. Other professional personnel involved include cluster coordinators, mentors, peer coaches/supervisors, school district office administrators/supervisors etc. Unfortunately, these professionals, more often than not, carry on their supervisory work without having any professional preparation then (Education Encyclopedia, 2009).

Within and around the school, several players can support teaching and control what goes on in the school. According to UNESCO (2007) principals, senior teachers, parent representatives and school board members are, for example, in such positions related to an aspect of curriculum supervision. Again, in what was categorized into core functions of supervisors, UNESCO (2007) states that generally, they are: supervision staff control and evaluate, give support and advice and act as liaison agents in institutions. These, they say are quite different, yet complementary in function.

Also, different ways to reach the heart of curriculum programming and effecting significant educational change lies with curriculum leaders as well as school heads. Principals and other curriculum leaders have to know how to write and direct curriculum, as well as possessing the ability to locate and obtain needed support materials (Glatthorn, et al., 2006).

According to the Education Encyclopedia (2009) for instance, principals may not only supervise the work of teachers, but also monitor the work of counselors, secretaries, librarians, health personnel and others, alongside the work and behaviour of students. It is worth noting that this work requires much more tactfulness, sensitivity, diplomacy and humanism to be effective. In this regard, a conscious effort should be made to demonstrate trust, care, support, and comparison with supervisees.

In a six-point catalogue, the Education Encyclopedia (2009) states what is termed specific responsibility of the supervisor:

- 1) Mentoring or providing for mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession.
- 2) Bringing individual teachers up to minimum standards of effective teaching (quality assurance and maintenance functions of supervision).
- 3) Improving individual teachers' competencies, no matter how proficient they are deemed to be.
- 4) Working with groups of teachers in a collaborative effort to improve student learning.
- 5) Working with groups of teachers to adapt the local curriculum to the needs and abilities of diverse groups of students, while at the same time bringing the local curriculum in line with state and national standards.
- 6) Relating teachers' efforts to improve their teaching to the larger goals of school-wide improvement in the service of quality learning for all children.

Curriculum supervision therefore involves in-class observation of teaching and learning, assisting teachers, professional and group development, evaluation of teachers, research and revision of the curriculum. In effect, these responsibilities require much complex, collaboration and developmental effort with teachers, instead of the hitherto more strictly inspectorial tasks.

Challenges and controversies in curriculum supervision

The history of curriculum supervision seems to be inundated with controversy, power struggle, and subservience to administrative convenience, which have resulted in some form of resistance from teachers who view

supervisors as system executioners. In an abstract to a publication, Brooks, Solloway and Allen (2007) posit that the gulf between educational leadership and contemporary curriculum scholarship is not only gloomy, but also, it is becoming increasingly problematic, now that principals have been legally mandated to add curriculum monitoring to their duties as instructional leaders. They contend that lacking familiarity with curriculum theory and practice, many overburdened administrators are turning to Management by Walking Around (MBWA) as a simple way of dealing with their burgeoning list of responsibilities. In my opinion, the challenges that curriculum leaders may face place a demand on them to handle supervision tasks based on the perceptions of their authority and roles as against the position of the supervisee. The support, collaboration and learning opportunities yielded by supervision may therefore be limited. It is however the belief of Brooks et al. (2007) that this should provide one example of the ways that dialogue between fields of curriculum studies and educational leadership may augment possibilities for lasting and positive reform of instructional supervision.

Another trend, posited by Glanz and Neville (1997), has been towards a significant involvement of teachers in peer supervision and programme development. In the literature, these developments are often included in the larger theme of teacher leadership. Along with this trend comes an increasing differentiation in the available options by which teacher supervision may be conducted, thus leaving the more formal assessment for experienced teachers to once every four or five years.

According to Garubo and Rothstein (1998), recent research indicates that lack of skills in expressing feelings constitutes a factor in the resistance and antagonistic behaviour of both curriculum supervisors and teachers. They

therefore suggest the development of better interpersonal relationships and open communication as the way forward to resolving problems and issues in curriculum supervision. They further state that ‘Lack of trust is very apparent in public schools, where, in general, relationships between administrators and teachers are very poor’ (Garubo & Rothstein, 1998). The Education Encyclopedia (2009), states that there are varieties of issues in the field of supervision that need resolution, or at least significant attention. Specifically the politics of school renewal tend to lend a punitive, judgmental edge to supervision at the state level, and to some degree at the school district level and that impression poisons supervision at the school level.

Very crucial to the discourse is the paradigm debate between those supervisors who accept a functionalist, decontextualized, and over-simplified realist view of knowledge as something to be delivered, and those who approach knowledge as a phenomenon to be actively constructed and performed by learners in realistic contexts (Education Encyclopedia, 2009). This, in my opinion, greatly influences the formation of perceptions for quality education delivery.

Should curriculum supervision as a field of professional and academic enquiry and of relatively unified normative principles continue to exist as a discernible field? In response to this question, the Education Encyclopedia (2009) stipulates that many scholars and practitioners have suggested that supervisory roles and responsibilities should be subsumed under various other administrative and professional roles. In this case, principals for instance, acting as instructional leaders just include a concern for quality curriculum instruction under the rubric of instructional leadership so as to forego the use of the term supervision, for terms like monitoring, coaching, professional development, and curriculum

development. Perhaps the clash of varied ideas, perspectives and convictions about the nature of curriculum leadership and supervision are what has kept the field of curriculum supervision in a state of dynamic development. However, according to the Education Encyclopedia (2009), a lack of attention to the implications of these issues will most certainly cause the field to atrophy and drift to the irrelevant fringes of the educational enterprise.

The nature of perception

Lending credence to the critical nature of the supervisor's perception to the determination of supervision effectiveness, Holloway (1995) states that "articulating the layers of thinking, understanding, conceptualizing and applying is the task of the supervisor" (p. 2). The concept of perception is therefore considered in this review as the gradual process of evolution in matters of control, supervision and school support.

Perception refers to the way we try to understand the world around us. The process of perception is essentially subjective in nature, as it is never an exact recording of the event or the situation. Perception is the process by which we organize and interpret our sensory impressions in order to give meaning to the environment. As pointed out, a situation may be the same but the interpretation of that situation by two individuals may be immensely different. Generally, perception is the set of processes by which an individual becomes aware of and interprets information about the environment.

According to Bello (2009) perception is the process of attaining awareness or understanding of sensory information. Perception is precisely the process of organizing and interpreting the raw data obtained through the senses. Bello's (2009) definition was based on the theory of organism-environment system.

According to the theory, mental activity is activity of the whole organism-environment system, and the traditional psychological concepts (like perception) describe only different aspects of organisation of this system as a whole.

To Jarvilehto (1999), knowledge is the form of existence of the organism-environment system and new knowledge is created by perception when new parts of environment join to the system while changing the structure of the system. It therefore remains a fact that, without the ability to mentally organize and interpret sensations from the environment, life would seem meaningless jumble of colours, shape and sound (Bello, 2009).

Bello (2009), again, points out that knowledge and experience are extremely important for perception. This is because, to him, the human mind can only contemplate that which it has been exposed to. The connection between perception and understanding of our environment is much more important in our childhood than other time of our life, because it is at this point that the two (perception and understanding) undergo the most critical changes. Perception skills are in fact the foundation of most academic learning; if these are underdeveloped the child might have difficulties with reading, numeracy and writing. In support, Kotchobey (2008) wrote that “The function of perception is providing the mind (neurocognitive version: the brain) with raw data for reasoning and thought” (p.1).

In philosophy, psychology and the cognitive sciences, perception is conceived as the process of attaining awareness or understanding of sensory processes. William (2007) describes perception as a task far more complex than was imagined in the 1950s and 1960s when it was predicted that building perceiving machines would take about a decade, a goal which is still very far from

function. This goes to suggest that perception as a psychological construct is not very easy to explain or demonstrate materially or physically.

In philosophy, psychology and the cognitive sciences, perception is conceived as the process of attaining awareness or understanding of sensory processes. William (2007) describes perception as a task far more complex than was imagined in the 1950s and 1960s when it was predicted that building perceiving machines would take about a decade, a goal which is still very far from function. This goes to suggest that perception as a psychological construct is not very easy to explain or demonstrate materially or physically.

According to Chalmers (1997) consideration may be given to two types of consciousness regarding perception: phenomenal or observable (physical) and psychological. He explained further that on the average, phenomenal consciousness is thought to be predominantly absent without sight, and this he demonstrated by opening and closing of the eyes. Through the full or rich sensation present in sight, nothing by comparison is present while the eyes are closed. Chalmers (1997) therefore concluded that using this percept, it is understood that in the vast majority of cases, logical solutions are reached through simple human sensation.

The MSN Encarta Encyclopedia (2009) explains perception as the process by which organisms interpret and organize sensation to produce a meaningful experience of the world. The word comes from the Latin word *perceptio* which means ‘receiving, collecting, action of taking possession, apprehension with the mind or senses’. Sensation usually refers to the immediate, relatively unprocessed result of stimulation or sensory receptors in the eyes, ears, nose, tongue or skin. Perception on the other hand better describes one’s ultimate experience of the

world and typically involves further processing of sensory inputs (MSN Encarta Encyclopedia, 2009).

In practice therefore, sensation and perception are virtually impossible to isolate since they are part of one continuous process. In reality however, sensation can be a passive phenomena of bringing information into the entire body and brain while perception can be very active process of selecting, organizing and interpreting information that reaches the brain through the senses.

Re-examining the perception of humans in relation to tasks continuously and routinely performed as the researcher seeks to do in terms of curriculum supervision by curriculum leaders becomes quite relevant since according to Merleau-Pouty and Smith (2002), the process of perception routinely takes after what humans see. When people view something with a preconceived concept about it, they tend to take those concepts and see them whether or not they are there. To them, in view of this, a person's knowledge creates his or her reality as much as the truth, because the human mind can only contemplate that to which it has been exposed. This assertion appears to be in harmony with empiricists convictions that "knowledge of the world about us can be derived only from the evidence that the world [human environment] offers us through the use of our senses" Kelly (2004, p. 26). This however does not preclude the fact that humans have difficulty understanding new information, without the inherent bias of their previous knowledge (Merleau-Pouty & Smith, 2002). They assert further that when objects are viewed without initial understanding, the mind will try to reach for something that it already recognizes, in order to process what it is viewing. To them, preconceptions can influence how the world is perceived. For example, classic psychological experiment showed slower reaction times and less accurate

answers when a deck of playing cards reversed the colour of the suit symbol for some cards (e.g. red spades and black hearts). In a similar milieu, Krulwich (2009) alludes to evidence that the brain in some ways operates on a slight delay to allow nerve impulses from distant parts of the body to be integrated into simultaneous signals.

In a related development, Allports (as cited in Simply Psychology 2009) defines perceptual sets as a ‘perceptual bias or predisposition or readiness to perceive particular features of a stimulus’. This is an indication that humans may not perceive the way they do out of the blue. There seem to be factors or attributions underpinning the nature and process of perceiving. Vernon (also cited in Simply Psychology, 2009) describes perceptual set as a tendency to perceive or notice some aspects of the available sensory data and ignore others. According to him, perceptual set works in two ways:

- 1) The perceiver has certain expectations and focuses attention on particular aspects of the sensory data. This he calls a *Selector*.
- 2) The perceiver knows how to classify, understand and name selected data and what inferences to draw from it. This he calls an *Interpreter*.

Factors influencing perception

For adequate perception to occur, the sense organs must be receptive to the stimuli in the environment. Our five senses flood the brain with a constant stream of input, too rich and rapid to be processed in its entirety. The mind has to filter out most of the sensory input and focus attention on only a small fragment.

The literature is replete with numerous research evidence by many which state that factors or variables which influence perceptual sets and for that matter perception in the long run include expectations, emotions, motivation and culture

among others (Simply Psychology, 2009). It is also a fact that, one's temperament, socio-economic status, age, religion and political considerations may also be variables worth considering as factors that influence perceptual sets. It is my conviction at this point that the perception which curriculum leaders form about curriculum supervision tasks and the perceptions they have about the curriculum itself may, to a large extent, influence or determine their zeal, approach and effectiveness in going about their supervision tasks.

Past experience according to Ashkenazi (2006) plays a crucial role in this filtering process in two different ways. First, it sharpens perception by offering contextual cueing, that is to say, attention is primarily directed to patterns of details that proved to be significant in the past. Ashkenazi (2006) explained that "when crossing a street, we are more likely to notice motion on the road and the sound of a car engine than movement on the sidewalk and the chirping of birds" (p. 4). The second is that it facilitates awareness by 'chunking' information. That is grouping the diverse details of perception into familiar units that carry additional meanings, and then processing relations between generalized meaningful units rather than between specific details (the moving collection of metal, glass and rubber is identified collectively as a car, which means a vehicle with the purpose of transportation but also with the capacity to kill careless street-crossers). In this filtration and meaning construction process, past experience can take the shape of prior beliefs, expectations, conceptions, language and culture, all of which exert a strong influence on how we perceive the world.

According to Bello (2009) the role of past experience in perception has been proven with work of two researchers with men who were blind for a long time due to cataracts and have their eyes restored. Though they had their vision

restored they were often confused by the visual input and unable to see the world accurately. This means that without visual experience, the visual system does not develop properly. Hence perception involves more than biological processes of sensation, as a child continues to grow, his sensations are associated with one another and thus meanings are attached to them. For instance, the sound of the word “Daddy” becomes connected with the sight of the father, thereby giving meaning to the term for the child. This suggests that one’s experience has a part to play in one’s way of perceiving objects and his world. Experience sharpens perception by offering contextual cueing that is directing attention primarily to patterns of details that proved to be significant in the past. Also it facilitates awareness by ‘Chunking’ information grouping the diverse details of perception into familiar units that carry additional meanings.

In her presentation on teachers’ perceptions of principals’ job satisfaction, Lacey (n.d) alludes that in a study; teachers made judgment on the appeal or otherwise of leadership positions from their perceptions of the visible roles played by principals and assistant principals. The research found that teachers did not see principals as having high level of job satisfaction and this had negative impact on respondents own leadership aspirations.

The fact remains that, more experience one has, the more details one can perceive and the more comprehensive one’s awareness of his/her situation. As past experiences influence one’s perception, likewise perception of details increases individuals’ life experiences.

Empirical review

Donkor (1999) studied the ‘Perception of teachers and administrators on the effectiveness of supervision in Basic Schools in Krachi District of Ghana. The

objective of the study was to find out the extent to which effective supervision existed in Basic Schools in Krachi District. The study was a survey which covered five out of the seven circuits in the Krachi District. A sample of 176 respondents made up of 127 classroom teachers and 49 administrators drawn from 36 Basic Schools in the 1997/98 school year were used for the study.

Statistical computations, employing frequencies and percentages were used to analyze data. The major finding is that supervision was inadequate and ineffective. This confirmed most local news paper reports on the view of some educationists, especially Dolphyne (1998) that the poor performance of pupils in these Basic Schools was due mostly to lack of effective supervision.

Also, Agbetoh (2006) studied the trends of supervision in four Senior High Schools in the Kpando District of the Volta Region of Ghana. The purpose of the study was essentially to ascertain which types of supervision are prevalent in the Senior High Schools in the District. It was also to establish whether or not those responsible for supervision in the schools are up to the task, and doing what was expected of them.

In all, 266 respondents, including personnel from the district offices of the GES, headmasters, teachers and students were involved. The data was collected through guided interviews and questionnaire. Simple percentages were calculated for the summary of the various responses.

The result indicates that it is internal supervision that is emphasized and external supervision is carried out once in a while. Apart from senior housemasters, the performance of all other personnel responsible for the supervision, including headmasters was deemed unsatisfactory. Agbetoh (2006) recommended that whiles internal supervision must continue to be encouraged

and made better, external supervision must be stepped up in the schools. This means training more people and providing needed resources at both the district and regional offices of the GES for this purpose. Regular in-service training programmes and workshops must be organized to enable personalities responsible for supervision to be equal to the task.

Gyamsa (2000) studied teachers' and students' perception on headmasters' leadership effectiveness in Senior Secondary Schools in the Akuapim North District of the Eastern Region of Ghana. This study was occasioned by the seemingly big difference in academic performance of students from various Senior Secondary Schools, and the desire of some teachers to work in some particular schools. These, to some extent, indicated the existence of some problems confronting the Senior Secondary sector, and among the problems were one related to leadership effectiveness of heads of institution.

The purpose of the study was to find out whether leaders of second cycle schools exhibit any peculiar characteristics that constituted a marked departure from what was revealed by the literature on leadership effectiveness.

Questionnaires were administered to teachers and students drawn from six Senior Secondary Schools from the Akuapim North District in the Eastern Region of Ghana.

A prime revelation of the study was the absence of the requisite managerial and administrative skills to ensure leadership effectiveness in schools. Most head teachers were therefore perceived to be ineffective on the job. To a greater extent, it was the considered opinion of the respondents that education was one of the basic vehicles for equipping one with requisite skills. The revelation occasioned the recommendation that the Ministry of Education, Ghana Education

Service and other concerned bodies should ensure that our Senior Secondary Schools are manned by people who possess the requisite educational background and have the necessary traits and skills.

In a peer-reviewed case study research report, Hsiao, Chen and Yang (2008) attempted to comprehend the traits and behaviours of vocational high school principals in implementing curriculum reform. In-depth interviews with experienced principals of three vocational high schools sought to identify the leadership roles and tasks that led to successful curriculum reform for vocational high school programs. Key interview findings are that curriculum leadership roles of vocational high school principals can be classified into advocate, navigator, coordinator, consolidator, mentor, caretaker, monitor, and feedback provider. The curriculum leadership tasks for principals can be categorized into shaping school vision, constructing organizational operation, providing and integrating resources, facilitating coordination and communication, leading curriculum design, cultivating curriculum specialization among staff, building organizational culture, solving implementation problems, conducting supervision, and promoting curriculum evaluation.

Summary of Literature Review

This chapter has looked at concepts which are keys to the principles and practices of curriculum supervision. These concepts include the curriculum, leadership, supervision, forms, functions, roles of supervisors and challenges of curriculum supervision. This chapter also considered the nature of perceptions and some factors that influence perceptions. A few insightful observations have been made.

The first is that the several convictions held about the curriculum leads to its considerations as permanent subjects packaged into a 'product' to be consumed by learners, learning opportunities, learner experiences, a process, and also as programmes of study. This state of affairs have paved way for debates regarding which aspects of school curricular arrangements should be emphasized in terms of supervision. It seems quite obvious, though, that for the purposes of assessment, certification, graduation, and progression into fields of higher learning, the pre-determined contents, within permanent subjects receive much attention.

The second observation is that leadership today is thought of to be a task involving social influence in which aid and support of persons are enlisted to accomplish tasks. Curriculum leadership is, therefore, overseeing curriculum implementation and assessment in which teachers are generally convinced, rather than coerced into working. It was revealed, however, that irrespective of what a curriculum leader perceives of leadership and his/her approach to curriculum supervision, s/he should view the purpose for curriculum supervision to be based on monitoring performance and solving problems during curriculum implementation.

Also, there seemed to be a consensus on the involvement of the supervisee in supervision decisions in order to improve performance in education delivery. Both supervisors and supervisees have to collaborate in a manner that engenders mutual respect, collegiality and singleness of purpose. The need therefore, to have professional orientation in preparation for effective curriculum supervision tasks, is often overlooked. This leads to feuds and controversies which greatly hampers the supervision process.

It is quite clear that the power of pre-conceived mindsets and impressions which constitute the perceptions of curriculum supervisors in many ways influence their attitudes, and approaches to supervising the curriculum. The expectations that curriculum leaders and teachers, as well as students may have of the curriculum and how it should be implemented will, to large extent affect curriculum supervision.

It is worth noting that these observations have tremendous implications for the conduct of this study. The review buttressed the need for the study of the perception of curriculum supervision among curriculum leaders by assisting in understanding and stating the problem in unambiguous terms. It therefore helped to clarify the purpose of the study, by which also general and specific research questions were stated to guide the study.

Again, the review greatly enhanced the choice and organization of appropriate research design and data collection. The determination of population, sample and sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection and analyses procedure are all aided by the review, especially methodological issues raised by previous researchers in similar studies.

Further, this review set the tone for the statement of results from the data collected and the discussion of findings. The review which revealed the state of affairs on the issues in study became the benchmark by which responses to the research questions were examined. It therefore facilitated the scrutiny of findings, as against theoretical positions and state of the art practices.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the research design, and describes the population, sample and sampling procedure, the instruments for data collection, limitation, validation and refinement of instruments, data collection procedure, coding and data analyses procedure.

Research design

The research design considered appropriate for this study is a descriptive survey. Descriptive research is non-experimental, in that it concerns itself with relationships between non-manipulated variables in natural, rather than artificial settings. This is also because the phenomenon or condition(s) already occur(s) or exist(s) and for that matter relevant variables are merely selected and observed for analyses of their status. It may, however, involve hypothesis formulation and testing, as well as logical methods of inductive and deductive reasoning in order to arrive at a generalization.

Again, in order to permit future replication, variables and procedures employed in descriptive studies are described as comprehensively and accurately as possible. It also follows that, in order to estimate and minimize errors, randomization is applied in sampling procedures. This, according to Best & Khan (1989), affords the opportunity to select a sample from the population being studied and then generalized from the sample of the study.

In addition, descriptive survey seeks to find answers to questions through the analysis of relationships between and/or among variables (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). This type of research design therefore, seeks to inquire into the status-quo of phenomena without any serious manipulation and control of variables. Much effort is directed towards attempting to measure what exists, without necessarily questioning why that is.

More so, descriptive survey is highly regarded by policy makers in the social sciences, where large populations are dealt with mainly using questionnaires. Data gathered by way of descriptive survey in educational research represent field conditions.

This study, therefore, employed a descriptive survey to determine the nature of perceptions held by both school leaders and teachers concerning curriculum supervision.

Population

The population for the study is the membership of the academic staff of Senior High Schools in the Assin North Municipality. These include heads of institutions, heads of subject departments and teachers within the departments. The heads of both institutions and subject departments constitute frontline supervisors on location, who are normally allowed some respite from taking on too many instructional contact periods so they can oversee the tasks/schedules of teachers among other administrative duties in Senior High Schools. The issue of curriculum supervision is therefore critical to both leaders and teachers within institutions.

The accessible population, which also happened to be the same as the target population, includes all heads, their assistants, heads of subject departments

and all teachers in the five Senior High Schools within the Assin North Municipality. The main reason for this is that the total number of the target population was just about the size of the anticipated sample. This will make the survey much more manageable in terms of instrument administration and meticulous data analysis.

Sample and sampling procedure

A sample size of 51 curriculum leaders, comprising headmasters, assistant headmasters/mistresses, and heads of subject departments was selected. This first category of sample was selected through purposive sampling technique. This was preferred to other forms, though it is a non-probability technique because the I needed to access curriculum leaders who fit a particular profile that will best serve the purpose of the survey. Subjects constituting this sample are therefore selected because of some obvious characteristics (Patton, 2002). Moreover, the entire curriculum leadership within the selected schools was used without further sampling because their total number was quite manageable for the purposes of a descriptive survey (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000).

The second category of sample is constituted by 168 teachers from the selected schools. This is the total number of teachers in the five schools. Since this number can be conveniently handled in a survey, I decided to adopt a census technique. All teachers whose curricular schedules are supervised within the selected schools are involved.

Instruments

In consonance with the purpose of the study and issues raised in the research questions, two categories of the questionnaire were used. One set for curriculum leaders and the other for teachers were prepared to collect data for the

study. Each of the two sets of questionnaires had eight sections (A – H). Items under section ‘A’ sought to obtain information on the personal profile and experience of respondents within the Ghana Education Service.

Section ‘B’ sought to elicit information on respondents’ perception on the purposes of curriculum supervision. Section C was designed to obtain data on curriculum supervision practices. Section D elicited information on the nature of feedback or debriefing in curriculum supervision. Section E presented statements on conditions that promote effective curriculum supervision. Section F elicited data on the approaches to curriculum supervision which are prevalent in respondents’ respective schools. Section G elicited data on respondents’ perception of the scope of curriculum supervision. Section H elicited data on respondents’ perception of the roles of supervisors and supervisees in curriculum supervision.

In all, the questionnaires for leaders had fifty six items, while that for the teachers had fifty two items. The substantive items on curriculum supervision within sections B to H were the same for both leaders and teachers which were all close-ended, likert-type scale items. However, items in section A, on background data were slightly different for leaders and teachers. Leaders had nine items, three of which were open-ended. On the other hand, teachers had five items, two of which were open-ended (See Appendices A and B).

Review, validation and refinement of instruments

After embarking on a thorough review of relevant literature related to the topic and also carefully considering the purpose, as well as the research questions, the questionnaire was prepared and presented to the researcher’s supervisors and

other colleagues for their comments and suggestions for the purpose of refinement.

After painstaking scrutiny of the instrument, some comments, criticisms and suggestions were made which helped to refine the instrument. A pilot study was conducted at Aburaman Senior High School, Abura Dunkwa to test the reliability of the instrument. The reliability of the questionnaire was determined through the use of the split-half reliability method. This yielded a split-half reliability coefficient of .894, indicating the internal consistency of the items on the questionnaire.

Data collection procedure

After the validation of the questionnaire through consultations with the researcher's supervisors, as well as pilot-testing, copies of the two categories of questionnaires were administered to 51 school leaders and 168 teachers from the five Senior High Schools in the Assin North Municipality. The researcher personally went to the selected schools, and aided by an introductory letter from his head of department, secured permission to administer the questionnaires. The researcher arranged with respondents and started retrieving the instrument one week after it was administered. In all, 44 out of the 51 school leaders who accepted to take part returned the completed copies of the questionnaire, giving a high return rate of 86.3%. Also, 120 out of 148 completed copies of the questionnaire were retrieved from teachers who accepted to take part, giving an appreciable return rate of 71.4%. The retrieval period, however spanned over one month after the one week of grace period.

Coding and data analysis procedure

Responses to the items on the questionnaire were coded and then transferred to a broad sheet, aided by their serial numbers. The item on the questionnaire for leaders with Yes and No response was coded thus:

Yes - 1

No - 2

The Likert-type scale type with very relevant, relevant, undecided, less relevant and not relevant was coded thus:

Very Relevant 1

Relevant 2

Undecided 3

Less Relevant 4

Not Relevant 5

Those items with strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree and strongly disagree options were coded in this manner;

Strongly Agree 1

Agree 2

Undecided 3

Disagree 4

Strongly Disagree 5

Items with very often, often, rarely and not at all responses were coded thus:

Very Often 1

Often 2

Rarely 3

Not At All 4

Mainly, descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data collected. Frequency and percentages in tables were adopted to present various perceptions held by curriculum leaders and teachers on curriculum supervision. This was done with the help of Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS version 16) spreadsheet.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Overview

This study was conducted purposely to find out the extent to which curriculum leaders and teachers perceive curriculum supervision in senior high schools. In order to achieve the purpose of this study, data was collected on eight key issues. This chapter, therefore, presents and discusses the results and discussion under eight sections as follows:

1. demographic characteristics of respondents
2. purposes of effective curriculum supervision
3. curriculum supervision practices
4. debriefing/feedback in curriculum supervision
5. factors/conditions essential for effective curriculum supervision
6. approaches to curriculum supervision prevalent in the selected Senior High Schools
7. the scope of curriculum supervision
8. roles of supervisors and supervisees in curriculum supervision.

The first section presents the demographic characteristics of respondents used for the study. This is informed by the fact that data relating to qualifications, rank in the work establishment, work experience, pre-service and in-service orientations, leadership positions and gender characteristics, among others, have strong bearing on their perceptions and for that matter their approach to issues of

curriculum supervision.

Gender distribution of curriculum leaders and teachers

The curriculum leaders and teachers were asked to indicate their gender. Their responses have been presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Gender distribution of respondents

	Curriculum Leaders		Teachers	
	No	%	No	%
Male	32	73	100	83
Female	6	14	18	15
No response	6	13	2	2
Total	44	100	120	100

Table 1 indicates that out of the 38 curriculum leaders who responded to this particular item, 32 (73%) were males while six representing 14% were female. On the part of teachers, 100 (83%) were males and 18 (15%) were females. This gender disparity could be attributed to the fact that the male-female population in the selected schools was not balanced. Although the males outnumber the females, it would have no effect on the study since gender is not my major interest.

Rank in the Ghana Education Service

The ranks of the respondents in the GES were of interest to me. The curriculum leaders and teachers were therefore asked to indicate their position in the GES. The outcome is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Rank in the Ghana Education Service

	Curriculum Leaders		Teachers	
	No	%	No	%
Senior Superintendent I	6	14	23	19
Principal Superintendent	20	46	64	53
Assistant Director II	3	7	1	1
Assistant Director I	3	7	3	2
Deputy Director	–	–	–	–
Director II	–	–	–	–
Director	–	–	–	–
No response	12	26	29	25
Total	44	100	120	100

Table 2 shows that six curriculum leaders representing 14% of curriculum leaders who responded to this item were of the rank of Senior Superintendent, 20 (46%) were Principal Superintendent, 3 (7%) were Assistant Director II and 3 (7%) were Assistant Director I. As many as 12 (27%) curriculum leaders did not indicate their rank in the Ghana Education Service.

On the part of the teachers, Table 2 reveals that 23 (19%) of teachers who responded indicated they were Senior Superintendent, 64 (53%) were Principal Superintendent, one representing one per cent was an Assistant Director II and 3 (3%) were Assistant Director. Table 2 reveals further that as many as 29 (25%) respondent did not indicate their rank in the service

Highest academic qualification

The data collected from the curriculum leaders and teachers were also analyzed to find out their highest academic or professional qualification. The information is presented in Table 3.

Table 3: Highest academic qualification

	Curriculum		Leaders	Teachers	
	No	%		No	%
Master's Degree	3	7		–	–
Post Graduate Diploma	1	2		4	3
Post Graduate Certificate	1	2		–	–
Bachelor's Degree	32	73		91	76
Diploma	6	14		20	17
Any other	–	–		–	–
No response	1	2		115	4
Total	44	100		120	100

The data in Tables 3 and 4 show the academic and professional qualifications of curriculum leaders and teachers respectively. On academic qualification, the data holds that majority of curriculum leaders who responded, that is 32 (73%) are Bachelor's Degree Holders, while teachers also had a majority of 91 (76%) being Bachelor's Degree holders.

Highest professional qualification

This section solicited the professional qualification of all curriculum leaders and teachers. They were therefore asked to indicate their highest professional qualification. Table 3 represents the outcome of the responses.

On professional qualification, 22 (50%) of curriculum leaders held Bachelor of Education while 65 (54%) of teachers held Bachelor of Education. As many as 33 (28) teachers did not indicate their highest professional qualification.

Table 4: Highest professional qualification

	Curriculum Leaders		Teachers	
	No	%	No	%
M. Phil. / M.Ed.	2	5	4	3
Bachelor of Education.	22	50	65	54
Post Graduate Diploma in Education	3	7	3	3
Post Graduate Certificate in Education	1	3	1	1
Diploma in Education Teachers, Certificate 'A'	6	14	8	7
Any other	3	7	6	5
No response	–	–	–	–
	7	14	33	27
Total	44	100	120	100

Number of years spent in the Ghana Education Service

I was interested in finding out the number of years spent by the curriculum leaders and teachers in the GES. They were therefore asked to indicate it in a range of years provided for them. The outcome of their responses has been shown in Table 5.

The data on number of years of teaching experience reveals that 12 (28%) curriculum leaders who responded have spent 11 – 15 years, 11 (25%) have spent 6 – 10 years, eight (18.2%) have spent between 16 - 20 years, six (14) have spent over 20years, while 6 (14%) of curriculum leaders are barely 5 years in the service. On the part of teachers, 34 (28.3%) have spent between 1 to 5 years, 24 (20.0%) have spent 6 – 10 years, 21 (17.5%) have spent 11 – 15 years while 14 (12.8%) have spent 16 - 20 years.

Table 5: Number of years spent in the Ghana Education Service

	Curriculum Leaders		Teachers	
	No	%	No	%
1-5 years	6	14	34	28
6-10 years	11	25	24	20
11-15 years	12	27	21	18
16-20 years	8	18	14	13
21 years and above	6	14	16	13
No response	1	2	11	8
Total	44	100	120	100

Current curriculum leadership position

This section dealt with the position held by the curriculum leaders. Table 6 presents the outcome of the various positions held by the curriculum leaders.

Table 6: Current curriculum leadership position

	No	%
Headmaster/Mistress	5	11
Assistant Headmaster/Mistress	7	16
Head of Department	26	59
No response	6	14
Total	44	100

The data on curriculum leadership positions indicate that 5 (11.4%) respondent are Heads of School, 7 (15.9%) Assistant heads while 26 (59.1%) are Heads of Departments.

Years of experience in curriculum leadership

This section covered the years of experience in curriculum leadership. The outcome of the responses obtained from the respondents has been provided in Table 7.

Table 7: Years of experience in curriculum leadership

Curriculum Leaders	No	%
1-5	22	50
6-10	9	21
11-15	1	2
16-20	11	25
21 and above	–	–
No response	1	2
Total	44	100

The data in Table 7 indicates that majority of leaders, that is 22 (50.0%) have been curriculum leaders under 5 years.

Any orientation on leadership before assuming current leadership position

The curriculum leaders were asked to indicate whether or not they had been taken through any orientation on leadership before assuming their current leadership positions. Table 8 shows the outcome of their responses.

Table 8 reveals that 23 (52%) of the leaders had no orientation at all on curriculum leadership before assuming their leadership positions. This confirms the assertion of the Education Encyclopedia (2009) that unfortunately, curriculum leaders and other professionals, more often than not, carry on their supervisory work without having any professional preparation for it, finding by trial and error what seems to work for them.

Table 8: Any orientation on leadership before assuming current leadership position

Curriculum Leaders	No	%
Yes	13	30
No	23	52
No response	8	18
Total	44	100

Number of in-service courses in curriculum leadership attended

This section was reserved for finding out the number of in-service courses the curriculum leaders had attended. Table 9 indicates the outcome of the responses obtained from the respondents.

Table 9: Number of in-service courses in curriculum leadership attended

Curriculum Leaders	No	%
Nil	11	25
1	13	29
2	2	5
3	3	7
4 or more	12	27
No response	3	7
Total	44	100

Research question one

What do curriculum leaders and teachers consider as the purposes of effective curriculum supervision?

The purposes of curriculum supervision differ from one supervisor to another. This section was meant to solicit from the respondents the purposes of effective curriculum supervision. They therefore had to respond thus: Very

Relevant (VR), Relevant (R), Undecided (U), Less Relevant (LR) or Not Relevant (NR). The outcome is shown on Table 10.

Table 10 indicates that there was agreement between curriculum leaders and teachers with regard to the purpose of curriculum supervision. Forty-four representing 100% of curriculum leaders thought curriculum supervision was relevant for the purpose of monitoring performance. This was not different from the views of the teachers. One hundred and sixteen (96%) teachers representing 97% thought it was relevant for the purposes of monitoring performance. In support of this, Holloway (1995) stated that one basic purpose of curriculum supervision is monitoring performance.

Table 10 also reveals that both curriculum leaders and teachers shared common views with regard to “sharing information” as a purpose of curriculum supervision. This represents 44 (100%) of curriculum leaders and 109 (91%) of teachers. This confirms the view of Holloway (1995) who cited a number of purposes of curriculum supervision including sharing information. She went on to state that communication which is largely controlled by the supervisor emphasizes the hierarchy of the relationship and is marked by considerable interpersonal distance.

It is further indicated in Table 10 that curriculum leaders and teachers believed that the purposes of curriculum supervision also included: solving problems, 44 (100%) of curriculum leaders and 114 (94%) of teachers; professional development, 44 (100%) of curriculum leaders and 103 (88%) of teachers.

Table 10: Purpose of curriculum supervision

	Curriculum Leaders										Teachers									
	VR		R		U		LR		NR		VR		R		U		LR		NR	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1) Monitoring performance.	27	61	17	39	-	-	-	-	-	-	68	56	48	40	1	1	2	2	1	1
2) Sharing information.	25	57	19	43	-	-	-	-	-	-	53	44	56	47	6	5	5	4	-	-
3) Solving problems.	28	64	16	36	-	-	-	-	-	-	52	43	62	51	3	3	2	2	1	1
4) Professional development.	22	50	22	50	-	-	-	-	-	-	48	41	55	47	6	5	8	7	-	-
5) Contributing to teacher professional growth.	29	66	13	30	-	-	2	4	-	-	47	40	55	46	4	3	11	9	2	2
6) Checking the conduct of recalcitrant teachers.	23	52	15	34	1	2	5	12	-	-	44	38	51	44	4	3	11	9	7	6
7) Assessing competence of teachers.	20	45	21	48	2	5	1	2	-	-	44	38	54	46	5	4	12	10	2	2
8) Offering support services to subordinates.	23	53	11	25	5	11	5	11	-	-	30	25	64	53	9	8	10	8	7	6
9) Ensuring strict compliance with rules.	18	48	17	46	1	3	1	3	-	-	30	25	49	41	15	13	17	14	8	7
10) Maintaining harmonious working relationships.	23	52	17	38	2	5	2	5	-	-	43	36	53	45	11	9	8	7	4	3
11) Detecting weaknesses of teachers.	19	47	16	40	2	5	2	5	1	3	20	17	57	48	9	7	19	16	14	12

VR = Very Relevant, R = Relevant, U = Undecided, LR = Less Relevant, NR = Not Relevant

Glatthorn, et al. (2006) supported the outcome of Table 10 when they stated that other areas of concern to the curriculum supervisor include staff development, individual development, informal observations, rating and staff motivation which are quite critical to effective curriculum supervision. With regard to solving problems, the International Journal of Educational Development (2008) cited building organizational culture, solving implementation problems as other purpose of curriculum supervision.

Other outcomes of Table 10 included: contributing to teacher professional growth, 42 (96%) of curriculum leaders and 102 (86%) of teachers; checking the conduct of recalcitrant teachers, 38(86%) of curriculum leaders and 95 (79%), as well as assessing competence of teachers, 41 (93%) of curriculum leaders and 98 (84%) of teachers. These are in line with the views of Dawson (as cited in Kadushin, 1992). According to Dawson, the functions/purposes of curriculum supervision include improvement in classroom teaching and learning, assisting teachers in professional and group development, evaluation of teachers' work output, research and revision of the curriculum. On their part, Hawkins and Shohet (1989) stated that curriculum supervision is also meant for maintaining standards or benchmarks, meeting delivery targets within timeframes, as well as checking recalcitrance in teachers and learners.

Table 10 finally reveals that both curriculum leaders and teachers believed that other purposes of curriculum supervision included: offering support services to subordinates 34 (78%) of curriculum leaders and 94 (78%) of teachers; ensuring strict compliance with rules, 35 (94%) of curriculum leaders and 79 (66%) of teachers; maintaining harmonious working relationships, 40 (90%) of curriculum leaders and 96 (81%) of teachers; and detecting weaknesses

of teachers, 35 (87%) of curriculum leaders and 77 (65%). These views are in support of the views of Dawson (as cited in Kadushin, 1992) that the maintenance of harmonious working relationships and the cultivation of esprit de corps are major functions of curriculum development.

Research question two

Which practices do curriculum leaders and teachers perceive to constitute curriculum supervision?

On the issues of curriculum supervision practices, statements were proposed to which both curriculum leaders and teachers had to respond: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), stay Undecided (U), Disagree (D) or Strongly Disagree (SD). The responses have been indicated in Table 11.

Table 11 shows that 38 (87%) of curriculum leaders believed that curriculum supervision schedules should be planned together by both the leader and the led. This was not different from the views of the teachers. While 101 (84%) agreed, 16 (13%) disagreed. This is in line with the views of Glanz and Neville (1997), which has been toward a significant involvement of teachers in peer supervision and program development. In the literature, these developments are often included in the larger theme of teacher leadership. This also conforms to democratic [leadership] climate which is characterized by collective decision making. Perspectives are gained from group discussions and technical advice of leaders. Praise and criticism are, therefore, objectives in such environments.

The outcome of Table 11 also reveals that 35 (80%) of curriculum leaders agreed that the procedure to be used by the supervisor should be discussed with, and agreed upon by the supervisee. The teachers also shared similar views with the curriculum leaders. This represents 91 (76%) of the

teachers although 23 (19%) disagreed. Both curriculum leaders and teachers also supported the view that curriculum supervision should involve unannounced classroom visits. They held that when such visits are made, the real practices in the classroom would be revealed. This represents 29 (66%) and 62 (55%) of curriculum leaders and teachers respectively. This supports the views of Glatthorn et al. (2006), that such informal observations can serve several purposes. For instance, it is a useful way of making the curriculum supervisor more visible, thus reducing the isolation that most teachers feel. They contend further that it can result in catching the teacher, either doing something right/praiseworthy or something needing correction/reprimand.

With regard to informal observations being frequent and numerous in curriculum supervision 33 (75%) of curriculum leaders and 77 (64%) of teachers were in support. This implies that in order to ensure effective curriculum supervision, curriculum supervisors need to undertake regular informal observation. The respondents also held that informal observation should be the ideal tool for conducting curriculum supervision. This represents 31 (71%) of curriculum leaders and 69 (58%) of teachers. This is in sync with the opinion of some successful principals and supervisors which is re-echoed by Glatthorn et al. (2006), that informal observation should be frequent and numerous, without necessarily interrupting lessons.

Table 11: Curriculum supervision practices

	Curriculum Leaders										Teachers									
	SA		A		U		D		SD		SA		A		U		D		SD	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1) Curriculum supervision schedules should be planned together by both the leader and the led.	17	39	21	48	1	2	5	11	_	_	47	39	54	45	3	3	16	13	-	-
2) The procedure to be used by the supervisor should be discussed with, and agreed upon by the supervisee.	14	32	21	48	1	2	8	18	_	_	41	34	50	42	6	5	18	15	5	4
3) Informal observation should be the ideal tool for conducting curriculum supervision.	7	16	24	55	1	2	9	20	3	7	21	18	48	40	19	16	29	24	2	2
4) Informal observations should be frequent and numerous in order to make the desired impact.	14	32	19	43	3	7	8	18	_	_	28	23	49	41	17	14	21	18	5	4
5) Curriculum supervision should be mostly unannounced classroom visits.	13	30	16	36	1	2	13	30	1	3	23	20	39	35	12	11	34	30	4	4
6) Effective curriculum supervision tasks require special orientation.	20	46	22	50	1	2	1	2	_	_	47	39	63	53	9	7	1	1	-	-

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, U = Undecided, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

Table 11 finally reveals that respondents believed that in order to ensure effective curriculum supervision, supervisors should be given orientation on what they should supervise and how to supervise those aspects of the curriculum. This represents 42 (96%) of curriculum leaders and 110 (92%) of teachers. In a similar view, Garubo and Rothstein (1998), state that supervisors have to commit themselves to a lifelong learning experience if they are to deliver to teachers (and students) the help they need in identifying and solving their own problems. They will have to gain a greater self-awareness and an ability to use them in more conscious ways. Supervisors will have to develop better interpersonal relationships with those they serve, helping them to see that problem solving can only work well in a friendly, trusting school environment.

Research question three

How do curriculum leaders and teachers think debriefing/feedback should be treated?

Research question three was formulated to seek from the respondents how they thought debriefing or feedback from curriculum supervision should be treated. The outcome of their responses has been presented in Table 12.

Table 12 reveals the extent to which curriculum leaders agree or otherwise on the issues of feedback in curriculum supervision. Significantly, 41 (93%) agree that immediate feedback is most important for effective curriculum supervision while two, representing five per cent disagree.

Table 12: Debriefing/feedback in curriculum supervision

	Curriculum Leaders					Teachers														
	SA	A	U	D	SD	SA	A	U	D	SD										
	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %	N %										
1) Immediate feedback is most important for effective curriculum supervision.	23	52	18	41	1	2	2	5	_	_	55	46	53	44	5	4	5	4	2	2
2) Feedback should always be at the personal level.	9	23	21	52	2	5	8	20	_	_	25	21	57	47	14	12	20	17	4	3
3) Occasionally, feedback should be through supervision conferencing.	12	27	25	57	5	11	2	5	_	_	29	24	63	52	12	10	13	11	3	3
4) All feedback on curriculum supervision should be a dialogic interaction between the supervisor(s) and the supervisee(s).	20	45	23	52	_	_	1	3	_	_	45	38	58	48	5	4	12	10	_	_
5) Both supervisors and supervisees should keep records of all formal, as well as informal supervision sessions.	20	45	22	50	2	5	-	-	-	-	58	48	53	44	5	4	2	2	2	2

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, U = Undecided, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

In a similar vein, 108 (90%) of the teachers supported the view while seven representing six per cent disagreed. This implies that the view of the majority is in line with that of Glatthorn, et al. (2006), that when feedback is immediate, then the observer's smile, as a gesture of approval may be motivating enough to spur the observed on. It also follows that where there are concerns, clarifications are sought to inform and guide future actions.

Again, Table 12 indicates that 30, representing 75 per cent of curriculum leaders agreed that feedback should always be at personal level. This was against the views of eight (8%) who disagreed. On the part of the teachers 82 (68%) indicated their support, while 24 (20%) disagreed.

It is further revealed in Table 12 that while 37 (84%) of curriculum leaders agreed that, occasionally, feedback should be through supervision conferencing, two (5%) disagreed. This was not contrary to the views of the teachers. While 92 (76%) were in support of the view that occasionally, feedback should be through supervision conferencing, 16 (14%) disagreed.

Also, the curriculum leaders are almost unanimous on the issue that all feedback should be by a dialogue between supervisors and supervisees. On that, 43 (97%) agreed, with only one (3%) who disagreed. This was not different from the views of the teachers. While 103 (86%) agreed, 12 (10%) disagreed.

Both curriculum leaders and teachers shared similar views on the issue of record keeping of supervisors and supervisees on both formal and informal supervision sessions. This represents 42 (95%) of curriculum leaders and 111 (92%) of teachers. However, none of the curriculum leaders disagreed but four (4%) teachers disagreed.

Research question four

What do curriculum leaders and teachers think are essential for effective supervision?

The respondents were required to indicate the conditions that promoted effective curriculum supervision. Research question four was formulated to solicit responses in this direction. Table 13 presents the outcome of responses.

The results in Table 13 show the extent of agreement on conditions which promote effective curriculum supervision among curriculum leaders. The result indicates that 20 (45%) of curriculum leaders agreed that when subordinates are granted autonomy, it leads to responsible conduct, having need for little supervision. However, 19 (44%) disagreed on the same condition. In a similar milieu, 62 (51%) of teachers agreed while 39 (32%) disagreed that autonomy of subordinates leads to responsible conduct, needing less supervision.

As to whether persuasion and dialogue normally elicits cooperation in curriculum supervision, 38 (86%) of curriculum leaders and 106 (88%) of teachers agreed. This was different from the views of six (14%) of curriculum leaders and five (4%) of teachers who disagreed. The majority view stands in line with that of Garubo and Rothstein (1998) who think that if a supervisor and teacher work well together in conferences, some evidence of improved relations between them, and between teachers and students should be apparent to observers. For instance, the fears of teachers, or the suspiciousness between them and supervisors, may diminish considerably.

Table 13: Conditions which promote effective curriculum supervision

	Curriculum Leaders										Teachers									
	SA		A		U		D		SD		SA		A		U		D		SD	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1) Autonomy of sub-ordinates leads to responsible conduct, needing little supervision.	8	18	12	27	5	11	17	39	2	5	18	15	44	36	19	16	38	31	1	1
2) Persuasion and dialogue normally elicit cooperation in curriculum supervision.	14	32	24	54	-	-	3	7	3	7	41	34	65	54	9	8	5	4	-	-
3) Sanctions ensure compliance in curriculum supervision.	10	22	15	34	6	14	11	25	2	5	23	19	44	37	14	12	33	27	6	5
4) Motivated staff requires less supervision and are willing to accomplish tasks.	27	57	13	30	-	-	5	11	1	2	53	44	36	30	7	6	21	17	3	3
5) Mutual trust creates conditions for self-direction and self-confidence in supervisees.	21	48	19	43	-	-	4	9	-	-	53	44	57	48	4	3	6	5	-	-
6) Staff supervision as a means of developing and controlling the quality of service, should consider the needs and rights of supervisees.	17	38	23	52	2	5	2	5	-	-	51	42	53	44	12	10	2	2	2	2

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, U = Undecided, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

The outcome of Table 13 further shows that 25 (56%) of curriculum leaders agreed that sanctions ensure compliance in curriculum supervision. On the same issue, 13 (30%) however disagree. On the part of the teachers, whereas 67 (56%) agreed, 39 (32%) disagreed to the view that sanctions ensure compliance in curriculum supervision.

Also, Table 13 indicates that while 40 (87%) of the curriculum leaders agree that motivated staff require less supervision and are willing to accomplish tasks, 6 (13%) disagreed. The teachers on the other hand had similar views. While 89 (74%) were in support, 24 (20%) disagreed. This is supported by the view of Glatthorn et al. (2006), that not only do motivated staff requires less supervision, but also they accept teaching goals as personal goals, work with a sense of confidence and loyalty to education delivery as a whole.

Significantly, 40 (91%) of curriculum leaders agreed that mutual trust creates conditions for self-direction and self-confidence in supervisees. This was against the views of four (9%) who disagreed. In a similar milieu, 110 (92%) of teachers agreed that mutual trust creates conditions for self-direction and self-confidence in supervisees. On the same issue six representing five per cent disagreed. In support of this, Cogan (1973) insisted on a collegial relationship focused on the teacher's interest in improving student learning, and on a non-judgmental observation and inquiry process. Also, Garubo and Rothstein (1998) posit that supervisors have to learn to trust the eyes and ears of teachers, while teachers have to trust that supervisors will use the information gathered to help teachers help themselves. The results will often be seen in more friendly, collegial relations between supervisors and teachers and a better understanding of classroom behaviour.

With regard to staff supervision as a means of developing and controlling the quality of service, which considers the needs and rights of supervisees, 103 (87%) were in support while four representing four per cent disagreed. This means that the view of majority of the respondents is in line with the convictions of Holloway (1995), that supporting and sharing functions of the supervisor require empathic attention, encouragement and constructive confrontation with the supervisee(s), and also, often supporting trainees at a deep interpersonal level by sharing their own perceptions, actions, emotions and attitudes.

Research question five

What approaches to curriculum supervision are perceived to be prevalent in Senior High Schools in the Assin North Municipality?

There are different approaches to curriculum supervision. These approaches have come about as a result of the different supervision styles of each advocate. In order to find out the common approaches employed by curriculum supervisors in the study area, research question five was formulated. The outcome is shown in Table 14.

The outcome of Table 14 indicates some of the approaches to curriculum supervision which are prevalent in the selected schools. Collectively, 26 (59%) curriculum leaders indicated that unannounced visits to the classrooms are often carried out.

Table 14: Curriculum supervision approaches prevalent in the selected schools

	Curriculum Leaders								Teachers							
	VO		O		R		NA		VO		O		R		NA	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1) Unannounced visits to the classroom.	7	16	19	43	15	34	3	7	12	10	61	51	34	28	13	11
2) Curriculum supervision which follows strictly stipulated uniform rules.	6	14	18	41	14	32	6	14	26	22	41	34	36	30	17	14
3) Selective curriculum supervision process applied in relation to individual teacher's needs/challenges.	9	21	17	39	14	32	4	9	20	17	46	38	37	31	17	14
4) Clinical supervision, as an intensive curriculum supervision approach meant for total staff development.	9	21	18	41	9	21	8	18	22	18	52	43	29	24	17	14
5) Curriculum supervision only applied to inexperienced teachers.	8	18	13	30	12	27	11	25	22	18	19	16	25	21	54	45

VO = Very Often, O = Often, R = Regular, NA = Not At All

On the contrary 18 (41%) indicated that unannounced visits to the classroom are Not at all done. On this issue, the curriculum leaders shared common views with the teachers. This represents 73 (61%). However, 47 (39%) indicated that unannounced visits are not done at all. This state of affairs, indicates why many of the standard text books on supervision disparage such visit by insisting that observations should be full length, preceded by a conference (Glatthorn, et al., 2006).

On the issue of following strictly stipulated uniform rules in curriculum supervision, the responses of curriculum leaders were similar to that of the teachers. This is indicated by 24 (55%) of curriculum leaders and 67 (56%) of teachers agreeing that it occurs often. This was contrary to the views of 20 (46%) and 53 (44%) of curriculum leaders and teachers respectively. Contrary to what respondents say prevail often in their schools, post-modernists opine that strictly stipulated uniform rules in curriculum supervision can be problematic. To them, the hidden dangers in rational-technical thinking are that it reduces supervision to a rigidly defined set of behaviours and responses, and places the supervisor in a position to authoritatively diagnose teachers' pedagogical problems and impose particular solutions (Glanz, 2000). Also Glickman (as cited in Glatthorn et al., 2006) recognizes the fact that teachers are different and require different approaches to curriculum supervision.

Selective curriculum supervision process applied in relation to individual teachers' needs or challenges are as follows: 26 (60%) of curriculum leaders indicated 'Often', while 18 (41%) indicated 'Not at all'. On the part of teachers, Table 14 reveals that 66 (55%) said selective curriculum supervision process applied in relation to individual teacher's needs or challenges occur often, while

54 (45%) indicated 'not at all'. In similar milieu, Glatthorn (as cited in Glatthorn, et al., 2006) proposes a differentiated professional development model of supervision, in relation to individual teachers' needs and experiences. The majority response for both curriculum leaders and teachers on this matter, however, is inconsistent with the previous majority view that curriculum supervision follows strictly stipulated uniform rules in their schools.

Also, Table 14 reveals that while 21 (48%) of curriculum leaders indicated that curriculum supervision only applies to inexperienced teachers, 23 (52%) said they do not do so, at all. This was not different from that of the teachers. Forty-one (34%) indicated 'often' while 79 (66%) indicated not at all. This implies that majority of the respondents can confirm that curriculum supervision is rarely applied to the inexperienced teacher. This is in contrast to the view of Garubo and Rothstein (1998) that, newcomers need and deserve educational and psychological support for control functions of the ego. They are going through socialization experiences that will fashion them into experienced professionals. They further opine that, in the beginning, new teachers are transferring their identities from student to professional educator. The ego is deeply involved in these socializing experiences. The cognition function needs strong support, if it is to perceive and understand the events of classroom life correctly. Exactly what will happen to the individual teacher cannot be predicted, but certain changes can be foreseen.

With regard to clinical supervision as an intensive curriculum supervision approach meant for total staff development, Table 14 indicates that 27 (62%) of curriculum leaders said they 'often' apply clinical supervision, while 17 (39%) indicated that they did not apply it at all. Again, Table 14 shows that 74 (61%) of

teachers indicated that they apply clinical supervision often, while 46 (38%) indicated that they do not apply it at all. This is in support of the views of Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski (1993). Goldhammer, Anderson and Krajewski in their attempt to come out with a working definition of another form of curriculum supervision indicated that many scholars employ clinical curriculum supervision as a means of supervising the curriculum. In a similar view, Holloway (1995) stated, clinical supervision emphasizes the educational and supportive functions of the supervisory role. This, therefore, gives a semblance of characteristic of both taught and supported curriculum supervision.

Research question six

Which aspects of school tasks should curriculum supervision cover?

The result in Table 15 shows what curriculum leaders consider to be the scope of curriculum supervision.

Table 15 reveals that 17 (39%) of curriculum leaders agreed that curriculum supervision should be limited to class interactions, while 25 (57%) disagreed. On the part of the teachers, Table 15 indicates that while 49 (41%) agreed, 60 (50%) were not in support.

On the part of both curriculum leaders and teachers, the majority falls in line with that of Glickman's Developmental Supervision module (Glickman, 2003, as cited in Glatthorn, et al., 2006). This prescription of a thought-oriented approach emphasizes direct assistance, in-service education, teachers participating in curriculum development, as well as embarking upon action research to facilitate teacher growth. Hence limiting curriculum supervision to class interactions alone is a narrow viewed approach.

Table 15: The scope of curriculum supervision

	Curriculum Leaders										Teachers									
	SA		A		U		D		SD		SA		A		U		D		SD	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1) Curriculum supervision should be limited to class interactions.	6	14	11	25	2	4	22	50	3	7	23	19	26	22	11	9	44	37	16	13
2) Teacher support services must be the concern of curriculum supervisors.	17	39	20	45	2	5	5	11	-	-	39	33	57	49	8	7	10	8	3	3
3) The provision of teacher support and logistical resources greatly enhance curriculum supervision.	27	63	12	28	3	7	1	2	-	-	64	53	44	37	10	8	1	1	1	1
4) The development of thought patterns of teachers should be the focus of curriculum supervision.	11	25	24	55	4	9	5	11	-	-	26	22	64	53	18	15	10	8	2	2
5) Monitoring the work of counsellors, librarians, secretaries, bus drivers and other staff who work in the school is part of curriculum supervision.	11	26	21	50	5	12	2	5	3	7	31	26	56	47	10	8	13	11	10	8
6) Supervising the work and the behaviour of students in the school is core to curriculum supervision.	17	39	21	48	5	11	1	2	-	-	48	40	50	42	10	8	12	10	-	-

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, U = Undecided, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

Again, both curriculum leaders and teachers were in agreement with regard to teacher support services being the concern of curriculum supervisors. Table 15 indicates that 37 (84%) of curriculum leaders and 96 (82%) of teachers agreed. These were contrary to the views of five representing eleven per cent of curriculum leaders and 13 (11%) of teachers. In harmony with the majority views of both curriculum leaders and teachers, the Education Encyclopedia (2009) postulates that supporting individual teachers to come up to minimum standards of effective teaching results in quality assurance and maintenance functions of curriculum supervision.

Table 15 also shows that 39 (91%) of curriculum leaders and 108 (90%) of teachers agreed that the provision of teacher support and logistical resources greatly enhance curriculum supervision. On the same issue, one respondent representing two per cent of curriculum leaders and two representing two per cent of teachers disagreed. This agrees very well with the concept of supervising supported curriculum espoused in Glatthorn, et al. (2006). The supported curriculum, they explain, include all the resources provided to ensure the effective implementation of the curriculum. It is, therefore, just in order that instructional time resource and materials required for smooth curriculum implementation and evaluation should concern curriculum supervisors.

Table 15 further indicates that there was consensus between curriculum leaders and teachers with regard to the development of thought patterns of teachers being the focus of curriculum supervision. This represents 35 (80%) of curriculum leaders and 90 (75%) who were in agreement.

Again as to whether monitoring the work of other staff who work in the school forms part of curriculum supervision, 32 (76%) and 87 (73%) of

curriculum leaders and teacher agreed respectively, while five (12%) of curriculum leaders and 23 (19%) of teachers disagreed. This view is supported by the Education Encyclopedia (2009) which states that Principals not only supervise teachers, but also monitor the work of counsellors, librarians, health personnel, secretaries, custodians, bus drivers, and other staff who work in or around the school. This work requires as much diplomacy, sensitivity, and humanity as the supervision of teachers, although it tends to be neglected entirely in the literature. Perhaps, it is a critical part of curriculum supervision because, in their everyday contact with students, all of these support personnel may teach multiple, important lessons about the integrity of various kinds of work, about civility and etiquette, and about basic social behaviour. This seems, though, to be more of school supervision than curriculum supervision.

Table 15 finally reveals that 38 (87%) of curriculum leaders agreed that supervising students' work is core to curriculum supervision. On the same issue, one respondent representing two per cent disagreed. With regard to the teachers, while 98 (82%) were in agreement, 12 (10%) disagreed. This view is shared by Wikipedia (2009) that described supervision to mean the act of watching over the work or tasks of another who may lack full knowledge of the concept at hand.

Research question seven

What roles do supervisors and supervisees play in curriculum supervision?

Research question seven was geared towards finding responses from the respondents with regard to the roles curriculum supervisors and supervisees play in curriculum supervision. They were therefore asked to indicate their extent of agreement and disagreement in a 1-5 Likert Scale. The outcome of their responses has been presented in Table 15.

Table 16 reveals that 33 (75%) of curriculum leaders agreed that one major role of curriculum supervisors in making effort to supply resources to supervisees is part of the supervisors task. This was contrary to the views of five, representing eleven per cent, who disagreed. On the part of the teachers, while 96 (80%) agreed, 16 (13%) disagreed. This implies that the views of the teachers support that of International Journal of Educational Development (2008) which indicated the role on the curriculum supervisor as providing and integrating resources, facilitating coordination and communication, leading curriculum design.

To explain this further, Glatthorn, et al. (2006) defined the role of the curriculum supervisor to include providing all the resources needed to ensure the effective implementation of the curriculum: the time allocated to the curriculum, the personnel assigned to plan and implement the curriculum and the instructional materials required for the curriculum.

Table 16 also indicates that majority 39 (89%) believed that curriculum supervisors must guide subordinates in the course of their work. This was not different from that of the teachers. One hundred and nine representing ninety one per cent agreed while two, representing two per cent disagreed. This is in line with the view of McNamara (2008) that a good supervisor places a high priority on coaching supervisees. Good coaching involves working with supervisees to establish suitable goals, action plans and time lines. The supervisor delegates and also provides ongoing guidance and support to the supervisees as they complete their action plans.

Table 16: The Roles of Curriculum Supervisors and Supervisees

	Curriculum Leaders										Teachers									
	SA		A		U		D		SD		SA		A		U		D		SD	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1) Making the effort to supply resources to supervisees is part of the supervisor's task.	20	45	13	30	6	14	4	9	1	2	52	43	44	37	8	7	12	10	4	3
2) Curriculum supervisors must guide sub-ordinates in the course of their work.	19	43	20	46	5	11	-	-	-	-	46	38	62	52	10	8	2	2	-	-
3) Mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession.	22	50	15	34	7	16	-	-	-	-	60	50	48	40	8	6	2	2	2	2
4) Teachers collaborate with supervisors in an effort to improve student learning.	26	59	10	23	7	16	1	2	-	-	67	56	44	36	7	6	2	2	-	-
5) Sub-ordinates should make inputs into feedback and/or supervision decisions.	15	34	20	45	7	16	2	5	-	-	45	38	64	53	6	5	5	4	-	-
6) Teachers must provide vital information to facilitate the supervision process.	21	48	15	34	4	9	4	9	-	-	65	54	50	42	5	4	-	-	-	-

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, U = Undecided, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

Also, Holloway (1995), states that supporting and sharing functions of the supervisor require empathic attention, encouragement and constructive confrontation with the supervisee(s). Holloway went ahead to suggest that the supervisor should function as a model of professional behaviour and practice, both implicitly in the supervisory relationship and explicitly by role-playing for the supervisee.

With regard to mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession, Table 15 shows that all the curriculum leaders agreed. This represents 37 (84%). On the part of the teachers 108 (90%) were in support. This was different from the view of four teachers, representing four per cent who disagreed. In support of this view, the Education Encyclopedia (2009) stated mentoring or providing for mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession is a role of curriculum supervisors.

Table 16 further reveals that there was a consensus between the curriculum leaders and the teachers with regard to teachers collaborating with supervisors in an effort to improve students' learning. This is indicated by 36 (82%) of curriculum leaders and 101 (92%) of teachers. The Education Encyclopedia (2009) supports this view when it stated that curriculum supervision involves working with groups of teachers in a collaborative effort to improve student learning. On the views on Sub-ordinates making inputs into feedback and/or supervision decisions, Table 16 indicates that 35 (79%) of curriculum leaders and 109 (91%) of teachers agreed. This was contrary to the views of two (5%) curriculum leaders and five (4%) teachers who disagreed that sub-ordinates' inputs into feedback and supervision decisions are not required. Again, the majority view is supported by that of Goldhammer, et al. (1993) who

propose a pre-observation conference between supervisor and teacher concerning elements of the lesson to be observed even before the supervision session and then a post-observation conference between the parties afterwards. Also, Glatthorn, et al. (2006) are of the view that teachers should, collaborate with administrators and supervisors to analyse the job of teaching and the research on effective teaching.

Table 16 finally reveals that while 36 (82%) of curriculum leaders agreed, four (9%) disagreed that teachers must provide vital information to facilitate the supervision process. This is not different from the views of the teachers. One hundred and five representing ninety six per cent of teachers supported the view. In sync with this view, Ovando (2000) states that modern supervision implies that educators, including teachers, curriculum specialists, and supervisors would cooperate in order to improve instruction. Also in support is the view of Garubo and Rothstein (1998), that curriculum supervision is a method of teaching the staff to act in more conscious ways. Its goal is to provide teachers and supervisors with more information and deeper insights into what is happening around them. This increases the options teachers have as they work with students. If the partnership between supervisors and teachers works, teachers learn to identify and resolve their problems, while supervisors get a better idea about what is happening in different classrooms. This provides supervisors with more opportunities to think about their actions and emotions and to adopt conscious plans to improve the learning situation.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview of problem and methodology

This chapter summarizes the study and the major findings of the study. It also looks at the conclusions drawn out of the main issues concerning the results and further makes recommendations.

The study investigated perceptions of curriculum supervision among curriculum leaders and teachers in senior high schools in the Assin North Municipality. It was structured within the framework of descriptive design. The target population for the study consisted of heads of institutions, heads of subject departments and teachers within the departments in senior high schools, while accessible population consisted of all heads, their assistants, heads of subject departments and all teachers in the five Senior High Schools within the Assin North Municipality.

A sample size of 44 headmasters, assistant headmasters/mistresses, and heads of subject departments as well as 120 teachers participated in the survey. The total number of curriculum leaders and teachers was quite manageable for the purposes of a descriptive survey. Mainly, descriptive statistics was adopted to analyze and present the data collected on various perceptions held by curriculum leaders and teachers on curriculum supervision. Frequency and percentages in tables were employed, with the help of Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS version 16) spreadsheet.

Summary of major findings

The study revealed that majority 44 (100%) of curriculum leaders thought curriculum supervision was relevant for monitoring performance. This was not different from the views of 116 (97%) of the teachers. The respondents also shared common views with regard to “sharing information” as a purpose of curriculum supervision. This represented 44 (100%) of curriculum leaders and 109 (91%) of teachers. The results further indicated that curriculum leaders and teachers believed that the purposes of curriculum supervision also included: solving problems, 44 (100%) of curriculum leaders and 114 (95%) of teachers; professional development, 44 (100%) of curriculum leaders and 103 (88%) of teachers. The study finally revealed that both curriculum leaders and teachers believed that other purposes of curriculum supervision included: offering support services to subordinates 36 (82%) of curriculum leaders and 94 (79%) of teachers; and ensuring strict compliance with rules, 35 (80%) of curriculum leaders and 79 (66%) of teachers.

The study also revealed that 35 (80%) of curriculum leaders agreed that the procedure to be used by the supervisor should be discussed with, and agreed upon by the supervisee. The teachers also showed common view with the curriculum leaders. This represents 93 (77%) of the teachers, although 23 (19%) disagreed. With regard to informal observations being frequent and numerous in curriculum supervision, 33 (75%) of curriculum leaders and 77 (64%) of teachers were in support.

With regard to debriefing and feedback in curriculum supervision, 41 (93%) of curriculum leaders agreed that immediate feedback is most important for effective curriculum supervision while two, representing five per cent

disagree. In a similar view, 108 (88%) of the teachers supported the view while seven representing six per cent disagreed. The study further revealed that nine representing thirty per cent of curriculum leaders agreed that feedback should always be at the personal level. This was against the views of eight (8%) who disagreed. On the part of the teachers 82 (67%) indicated their support. Also, the curriculum leaders were almost unanimous on the issue that all feedback should be dialogic interaction between supervisors and supervisees. On this issue, 43 (98%) of curriculum leaders and 103 (84%) of teachers agreed.

On the essentials of curriculum supervision the result indicated that 20 (45%) of curriculum leaders agreed that when subordinates are granted autonomy, it leads to responsible conduct, having need for little supervision. In a similar view, 62 (52%) of teachers agreed. As to whether persuasion and dialogue normally elicits cooperation in curriculum supervision, 38 (87%) of curriculum leaders and 106 (88%) of teachers agreed. The study also indicated that while 40 (87%) of the curriculum leaders agree that motivated staff require less supervision and are willing to accomplish tasks, six (13%) disagreed. The teachers on the other hand had similar views. While 89 (74%) were in support, 24 (21%) disagreed.

With regard to the approaches of curriculum supervision the study revealed that 26 (59%) curriculum leaders indicated that unannounced visits to the classroom are 'Often'. Also, while 21 (48%) of curriculum leaders indicated that curriculum supervision only apply to inexperienced teachers, 23 (52%) said they do not do so at all. This was not different from that of the teachers. Forty-one (37%) indicated 'often' while 79 (66%) indicated 'not at all'. With regard to clinical supervision as an intensive curriculum supervision approach meant for

total staff development, the results indicated that 27 (62%) of curriculum leaders said they apply clinical supervision often, while 17 (39%) indicated that did not apply it at all. Again, the results show that 74 (61%) of teachers indicated that they apply clinical supervision often while 46 (38%) indicated that they do not apply it at all.

The study also indicated that 17 (39%) of curriculum leaders agreed that curriculum supervision should be limited to class interactions while 27 (57%) disagreed. On the part of the teachers, the results indicated that while 50 (41%) agreed, 60 (50%) disagreed. Again, both curriculum leaders and teachers were in agreement with regard to teacher support services being the concern of curriculum supervisors. It was revealed that 37 (85%) of curriculum leaders and 96 (81%) of teachers agreed. It also shows that 39 (89%) of curriculum leaders and 109 (91%) of teachers agreed that the provision of teacher support and logistical resources greatly enhance curriculum supervision. On the same issue, one respondent representing two per cent of curriculum leaders and two representing two per cent of teachers disagreed.

The study finally revealed that 53 (70%) of curriculum leaders agreed that one major role of curriculum supervisors in making effort to supply resources to supervisees is part of the supervisors task. This was contrary to the views of five representing eleven per cent who disagreed. On the part of the teachers, while 96 (80%) agree, 16 (13%) disagreed. It also revealed that majority 39 (89%) of curriculum leaders believed that curriculum supervisors must guide subordinates in the course of their work. This was not different from that of the teachers. One hundred and nine representing ninety one per cent agreed while two representing two per cent disagreed. Concerning the views on Sub-ordinates making inputs

into feedback and/or supervision decisions, Table 16 indicates that 35 (80%) of curriculum leaders and 109(71%) of teachers agreed. This was contrary to the views of two (5%) and five (4%) who disagreed that sub-ordinates inputs into feedback and supervision decisions are not required.

Conclusions

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

1. It can be concluded that the major purposes of curriculum supervision include monitoring performance, sharing information and solving problems.
2. With regard to curriculum supervision practices it can be concluded that :
 - i. curriculum supervision schedules should be planned together by both the leader and the led.
 - ii. the procedure to be used by the supervisor should be discussed with, and agreed upon by the supervisee.
 - iii. curriculum supervision should involve unannounced classroom visits so that real practices in the classroom would be revealed.
 - iv. the curriculum supervisor should appear more visible, thus reducing the isolation that most teachers feel.
 - v. informal observations should be frequent and numerous in curriculum supervision, without necessarily interrupting lessons.
 - vi. supervisors should be given orientation on what they should supervise and how to supervise those aspects of the curriculum.
 - vii. supervisors have to develop better interpersonal relationships with those they serve, helping them to see that problem solving can only work well in a friendly and trusting school environment.

3. It can also be concluded that effective curriculum supervision thrives on both supervisors and supervisees keeping records of all formal, as well as informal supervision sessions and providing immediate feedback.
4. It can be concluded further that motivated staff requires less supervision and are willing to accomplish tasks. Also, mutual trust creates conditions for self-direction and self-confidence in supervisees. These are favourable conditions for curriculum supervision
5. Another conclusion that has been drawn with regard to the approaches to curriculum supervision is that curriculum supervision should follow stipulated rules. Besides, the selective curriculum supervision process should be applied in relation to individual teacher's needs/challenges.
6. It can also be concluded from the findings that participants have knowledge of curriculum supervision to include the provision of teacher support and logistical resources that greatly enhance curriculum supervision.
7. Finally, it can be concluded that the roles in curriculum supervision includes teachers collaborating with supervisors in an effort to improving students' learning and mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession.

Recommendations

From the findings and the conclusions drawn the following recommendations are made for practice.

1. It is recommended that since feedback is necessary in curriculum supervision it should always be at the personal level so that individual teachers can attach maximum attention to them.

2. It is also recommended that ensuring compliance with the rules should be considered as a major purpose of curriculum supervision. This would enable curriculum implementers to follow what have been stipulated in the guidelines for curriculum implementation.

3. With regard to the curriculum supervision practices, it is recommended that the procedure to be used by the supervisors should be discussed with, and agreed upon by the supervisees.

4. In order to ensure effective curriculum supervision, it is recommended that persuasion and dialogue which normally elicits cooperation in curriculum supervision should be introduced. Also, since sanctions ensure compliance in curriculum supervision, it must be enforced.

5. It is also recommended that the scope of curriculum supervision should not only be limited to the classroom but to the activities outside the classroom which have influence on the teaching and learning interaction.

Areas for Further Studies

I suggest further studies to be carried out on topics regarding the role of curriculum supervisors at the various levels of education in Ghana. I also suggest that a study regarding the effects of unavailability of teaching and learning resources on the implementation of the curriculum should be conducted. Again, studies regarding the effects of curriculum supervision by curriculum leaders who do not possess the requisite knowledge and skill should be conducted. The kind of orientation given to curriculum leaders before they assume their curriculum leadership roles should also be conducted. Finally, attitudes with which curriculum leaders and teachers approach curriculum

supervision as a consequence to their perceptions towards curriculum supervision should be given attention.

REFERENCES

- Adentwi, K. I. (2005). *curriculum development. An introduction*. Kumasi: Wilas Press Ltd.
- Agbetoh, W. M. (2006). *Supervision in senior secondary schools in the Kpando District of Ghana*. Unpublished M. Ed Dissertation, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.
- Antwi, M. K. (1992). *Education, society and development in Ghana*. Accra: Unimax Publishers Limited.
- Ashkenazi, G. (2006). Metaphors in science and art: Enhancing human awareness and perception. *Electronic Journal of Science Education*, 11(2), 3 – 9.
- Bailey, J. (Ed) (1995). *The inclusive curriculum” newsletter of the innovative teaching form and learning innovation* (Electronic version). Retrieved October, 2009 from <http://www.catl.uwa.au/publications/17L/1995/7/curriculum>.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M. & Bass, R. (2008). *The bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications* (4th ed.). New York: Free Press.
- Best, J.W. & Kahn, J.V. (1989). *Research in Education* (6th ed.). Englewood Cliffs. New Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India Private Ltd.
- Bello, A. D. (2009). Perception of details in private and public schools: The role of demographic variable. *Contemporary Humanities* 3, 153 – 196.
- Bishop, G. (1985). *Curriculum development: a textbook for students*. London: Macmillan.
- Bobbitt, J. F. (1918). *The curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

- Bradley, L.H. (2004). *Curriculum leadership: beyond boilerplate standards*. Lanham: Scarecrow Education.
- Brooks, J. N., Solloway, S.G. & Allan, L.A. (2007). Instructional supervision and curriculum monitoring: reinterpreting the principals role through arts of enquiry. *Springer Science Business Media*, 1 (12), 145-149.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row Publishers Inc.
- Burns, J. M. (2008). *Leadership*. New York: Harper and Row Publishers Inc.
- Chalmers, D. J. (1997). *The conscious Mind: In search of a fundamental theory*. Oxford: University Press.
- Cogan, M. L. (1973). *Clinical supervision*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- De Grauwe, A. (2007). Transforming school supervision into a tool for quality improvement. *International Review of Education*, 53, 709-714.
- Dolphyne, F. A. (1998). Causes of poor performance of pupils in Ghanaian Basic Schools. *Catholic Standard*, 37, 4-10.
- Donkor, P. B. (1999). *Perception of teachers and administrators on the effectiveness of supervision in Basic Schools in Krachi District of Ghana*. Unpublished M. Phil thesis, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.
- Education Encyclopedia (2009). *School supervision*. Retrieved 03-09-09 From <http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/2472/Supervision-Instruction.html>.

- Eisner, E. W. (1994). *The educational imagination on design and evaluation of school programs*. New York, Macmillan College Publishing Company.
- Fraenkel, J. K., Wallen, N. E. (2000). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Garubo, R.C. & Rothstein, R. (1998). *Supportive supervision in schools*. Westport: Greenwood Press.
- Glanz, J. (2000). *Debates in curriculum and supervision; modern and postmodern perspectives*. Westport: Bergin and Garvey, CT Publications.
- Glanz, J. & Behar-Horenstein, S. L. (2000). *Complicity in supervision: another post modern moment*. New York: Bergin and Garvey.
- Glanz, J. & Neville, R. (1997). *Educational supervision: perspectives, issues, and controversies*. Norwood, MA: Christopher Gordon Publishers.
- Glatthorn, A., Boschee, F., & Whitehead, R.M. (2006). *curriculum leadership: development and implementation*: Thousand Oakes, Sages.
- Glickman, C., Gordon, S.P., & Ross-Gordon, J.M. (2001). *Supervision and instructional leadership: a development approach*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Goldhammer, R., Anderson, R. H. & Krajewski, R. J. (1993). *Clinical supervision. Special methods for the supervision of teachers* (3rd ed.). Forth Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Gronn, P. (2000). Distributed properties: a new architecture for leadership. *Educational Management and Administration*, 28 (3), 317-338.

- Gyamsa, S. T. (2000). *Teachers and students' perception on Headmasters' Leadership Effectiveness in Senior Secondary Schools in the Akuapim North District of Ghana*. Unpublished M.Phil Thesis, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast.
- Hawkins, P. & Shohet, R. (1989) *Supervision in the Helping Professions. An individual, group and organizational approach*, Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
- Heifetz, R. (1994). *Leadership without easy answers*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Holloway, E. (1995). *clinical supervision: a systems approach*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Inc.
- Hsiao, H. C., Chen, M. N., & Yang, H. S. (2008). Leadership of vocational high school principals in curriculum reform: a case study in Taiwan. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28, (6), 669-686.
- Jackson, P. W (Ed) (1992). *Handbook of Research on Curriculum*. Michigan, Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Jarvilehto, T. (1999). The theory of the organism-environment system: III. Role of efferent influences on receptors in the formation of knowledge. *Integrative Physiological and Behavioural Science*, 34, 90 – 100.
- Kadushin, A. (1992). *Supervision in social work* (3rd ed.). New York: Columbia University Press.
- Kelly, A. V. (2004). *The curriculum; theory and practice* (5th ed.). Macmillan: New York.

- Kotchobey, B. (2008). Pilate's Error: The varieties of perception-action coupling (Electronic version). *e-Journal Philosophie der Psychologie*. Retrieved May 8, 2010, From <http://www.jp.philo.at/texte/KotchoubeyB1.pdf>
- Kouzes, J., Posner, B. (2007). *The leadership challenge*. C.A.: Jossey Bass.
- Krulwich, R. (2009). *The secret advantage of being short: all things Considered*. New York.
- Lacey, K. (n.d.). *Leadership aspirations in schools*. Retrieved September, 2009 from; <http://www.curriculum.edu.au/leader/leadershipaspirationsinschools,4623.html?issueID=9691>.
- Leithwood, K., Jantzi, D., & Steinbech, R. (1999). *Changing leadership For changing times*. Buckingham, Philadelphia: Open University Press.
- Leithwood, K. & Jantzi, D (2000). The effects of transactional leadership on organizational conditions and student engagement with school. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 38(2), p. 112.
- Longstreet, W. S. & Shane, H. G. (1993). *Curriculum for a new millennium*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon. University of Wisconsin at Stevens Point.
- Marsh, C. J. & Willis, G. (2003). *Curriculum: alternative approaches, ongoing issues* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- McClelland, D. (n.d). Management theory. Retrieved September, 2009 from <http://en.wikipedia/wiki/David-McClelland>.
- McCrimmon, M (2007). *What leadership means*. Retrieved March, 2011 from <http://www.suite101.com/content/the-meaning-of-leadership-a32603>

- McNamara, C. (2008). *Field guide to leadership and supervision*.
Retrieved November 2009 from; Authenticity Consulting, LLC.
<http://www.managementhelp.org/supervise/supervise.htm>.
- Merleau-Pouty, M. & Smith, C. (2002). *Phenomenology of perception*
(2nd ed.). Routledge: Sages Publications.
- Miner, J. B. (2005). *Organizational behaviour: behaviour/essential
theories of motivation and leadership*. Armonk: M.E. Sharpe.
- MSN Encarta Encyclopedia (2009). *Perception psychology*. Retrieved
November 2009 from
[http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia-761571997/Perception-
psychology.html](http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia-761571997/Perception-psychology.html).
- Morrison, K. (2002). *school leadership and complexity theory*. London:
Routledge Falmer.
- Murdoch, K. (1998). *Classroom connections: strategies for integrating
learning*. Australia: Eleanor Curtain Publishing.
- Opare, J. A. (1999). Academic achievement in private and public schools:
Management makes the difference. *Journal of Educational Management*,
2, 1-12.
- Ovando, M., (2000), in Glanz and Behar-Horenstein (2000). *Debates in
curriculum and supervision*. Westport: C.T Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (3rd
ed.). Newbury Park, C.A: Sage Publications.
- Peck, S. (1997). *The different drum: community making and peace*. New
York: Simon & Shuster.

- Pickard, J. L. (n.d.). *School Supervision*. Retrieved 22-10-09 from <http://books.google.com.au/books?id>
- Posner, G. J. (1995). *Analyzing the curriculum*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Print, M. (1993). *Curriculum development and design* (2nd ed.). St. Leonards, NSW: Allen & Unwin.
- Raggio R. E., Murphy S.E. & Pirozzolo F.J. (2002). *Multiple intelligences and leadership*. Retrieved 12-10-09 from <http://www.en.wikipedia.org/wiki/leadership>.
- Sergiovanni, T. (2000). *The life world of leadership: creating culture, community and personal measuring in our schools*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Silns, H., & Mulford, B (2002). *Leadership and school results*. Second international handbook of educational leadership and administration. Petra Sprado, Kluwer Press.
- Simply Psychology (2009). *Perceptual sets*. Retrieved November 2009 from www.syamplypsychology.pwp.blueyonder.co.uk/perceptual.set.ht ml.
- Smith, D. L. & Lovat, T. J. (2003). *Curriculum: action and reflection*. Melbourne: Social Science Press.
- Spillane, J., Halverson, R. & Diamond, J. (2004). Towards a Theory of Leadership Practice. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 36, 1:3-34.
- Tanner, D. & Tanner, L. (2007). *Curriculum development: theory and practice*. New Jersey: Pearson and Merrill, Prentice Hall.
- UNESCO (2007). *Reforming school supervision for quality improvement*. international institute for educational planning. Retrieved 17-11-09 from www.unesco.org/iiep.

- UNESCO (2009). *School development*. Retrieved 12 – 10 – 2009 from
www.iiep.unesco.org/capacitydevelopment/schooldevelopment.html.
- Wikipedia (2009). The Man versus the State. Retrieved 28-09-09 from
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Herbert_Spencer
- Wikipedia (2009). *Supervision*. Retrieved 18-01-10 from
<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/supervision>.
- Wikipedia (2010). *Leadership*. Retrieved 18-01-10 from
<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Leadership>
- Wiles, J. & Bondi, J. (1993). *Curriculum development: a guide to practice*. Macmillan: New York.
- William, D. (2007). *Perception*. Retrieved December 2009, from
<http://encyclopedia2.thefreedictionary.com/perception>.
- Wilson, L. O. (Ed) (2006) *Curriculum course packets, 721 & 726*, unpublished. University of Wisconsin at Stevens Point.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION
PERCEPTIONS OF CURRICULUM SUPERVISION AMONG
CURRICULUM LEADERS AND TEACHERS IN SENIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS IN THE ASSIN NORTH MUNICIPALITY
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SCHOOL LEADERS

Dear Sir/Madam,

I humbly write to solicit your help in a survey on the above topic by appealing to you to complete this questionnaire. This study is purely for academic purposes. You will be contributing to its success if you respond to the items as frankly and honestly as possible. Please be assured that your responses will be used solely for the purpose of this study and for that matter any disclosure you will make shall be kept confidential. Moreover, your anonymity is guaranteed by not indicating your name or institution. Your voluntary participation in the study is very much appreciated. Thank you.

MR SYLVANUS KOFIE

Please tick the appropriate bracket [] or column or, where applicable, fill the blank space.

A. Background data

1. Sex of respondent:Female [] Male []
2. Rank in the Ghana Education Service.
 - i. Senior Superintendent [] ii. Principal Superintendent [] iii. Assistant Director 11 []
 - iv. Assistant Director 1 [] v. Deputy Director [] vi. Director 11 [] vii. Director 1 []

3. Highest academic qualification:	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Specialized Area
Master's Degree		
Post Graduate Diploma		
Post Graduate Certificate		
Bachelor's Degree		
Diploma		
Any other		

4. Highest Professional qualification:	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	Specialized Area
M.Phil. / M.Ed.		
Bachelor of Education.		
Post Graduate Diploma in Education		
Post Graduate Certificate in Education		
Diploma in Education		
Teachers, Certificate 'A'		
Any other		

5. Number of years in the Ghana Education Service: 1-5[] 6-10[] 11-15[] 16-20[] 21years and above[]
6. Current leadership position: Headmaster/Mistress []
Assistant Headmaster/Mistress [] Head of Department. []
7. Total number of years spent in school leadership (i.e. head/assistant head and/or HOD- present and previous).....
8. Did you go through any orientation on leadership before assuming your current leadership position? Yes[] No[]
9. How many in-service courses in school leadership have you attended?
Nil[] 1[] 2[] 3[] 4 or more[]

B. How relevant do you think these statements on the purposes of curriculum supervision are? (Tick one box for each statement)

Curriculum supervision involves a process of interaction with staff for the purposes of:	Very Relevant	Relevant	Undecided	Less Relevant	Not Relevant
10. Monitoring performance.					
11. Sharing information.					
12. Problem solving					
13. Professional development.					
14. Contributing to teacher professional growth.					
15. Checking the conduct of recalcitrant teachers and students.					
16. Assessing the effectiveness and competence of teachers.					
17. Offering support services to colleagues and subordinates.					
18. Ensuring strict compliance with rules and procedure.					
19. Maintaining harmonious working relationships.					
20. Detecting weaknesses of subordinates.					
21. Controlling/instructing new/less experienced members of staff.					

A. How far do you agree to the following statements on curriculum supervision practices?

Tick one box for each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
22. Curriculum supervision schedules should be planned together by both the leader and the led.					
23. The procedure to be used by the supervisor should be discussed with, and agreed upon by the supervisee.					
24. Informal observation should be the ideal tool for conducting curriculum supervision.					
25. Informal observations should be frequent and numerous in order to make the desired impact.					
26. Curriculum supervision should be mostly unannounced classroom visits.					
27. Effective curriculum supervision tasks require special orientation.					

D. To what extent do you agree with the following statements on debriefing/feedback in curriculum supervision?

Tick one box for each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
28. Immediate feedback is most important for effective curriculum supervision.					
29. Feedback should always be at the personal level.					
30. Occasionally, feedback should be through supervision conferencing.					

31. All feedback on curriculum supervision should be a dialogic interaction between the supervisor(s) and the supervisee(s).					
32. Both supervisors and supervisees should keep records of all formal, as well as informal supervision sessions.					

E. To what extent do you agree that the following conditions promote effective curriculum supervision?

Tick one box for each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
33. Autonomy of subordinates leads to responsible conduct, needing little supervision.					
34. Persuasion and dialogue normally elicit cooperation in curriculum supervision.					
35. Sanctions ensure compliance in curriculum supervision.					
36. Motivated staff requires less supervision and are willing to accomplish tasks.					
37. Mutual trust creates conditions for self-direction and self-confidence in supervisees.					
38. Staff supervision as a means of developing and controlling the quality of service, should consider the needs and rights of supervisees.					

F. Indicate which of the following approaches to curriculum supervision is/are prevalent in your school

Tick one box for each statement.	Very Often	Often	Rarely	Not At All
39. Unannounced visits to the classroom				
40. Curriculum supervision which follows strictly stipulated uniform rules.				
41. Selective curriculum supervision process applied in relation to individual teacher's needs/challenges.				
42. Clinical supervision, as an intensive curriculum supervision approach meant for total staff development.				
43. Curriculum supervision only applied to inexperienced/new teachers.				

G. To what extent do you agree with these statements on the scope of curriculum supervision?

Tick one box for each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
40. Curriculum supervision should be limited to class interactions.					
41. Teacher support services must be the concern of curriculum supervisors.					
42. The provision of teacher support and logistical resources greatly enhance curriculum supervision.					
43. The development of thought patterns of teachers should be the focus of curriculum supervision.					
44. Monitoring the work of counselors, librarians, secretaries, bus drivers and other staff who work in the school is part of curriculum supervision.					
45. Supervising the work and the behaviour of					

students in the school is core to curriculum supervision.					
---	--	--	--	--	--

H. How far do you agree with the following statements on the roles of supervisors and supervisees?

(Tick one box for each statement)	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
46. Making the effort to supply resources to supervisees is part of the supervisor's task.					
47. Curriculum supervisors/leaders must guide sub-ordinates in the course of their work.					
48. Mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession.					
49. Improving individual teachers' competencies, no matter how proficient they are deemed to be.					
50. Teachers collaborate with supervisors in an effort to improve student learning.					
51. Sub-ordinates/supervisees should make inputs into feedback and/or supervision decisions.					
52. Teachers must provide vital information to facilitate the supervision process.					

APPENDIX C
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES
EDUCATION
PERCEPTIONS OF CURRICULUM SUPERVISION AMONG
CURRICULUM LEADERS AND TEACHERS IN SENIOR HIGH
SCHOOLS IN THE ASSIN NORTH MUNICIPALITY
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Dear Sir/Madam,

I humbly write to solicit your help in a survey on the above topic by appealing to you to complete this questionnaire. This study is purely for academic purposes. You will be contributing to its success if you respond to the items as frankly and honestly as possible. Please be assured that your responses will be used solely for the purpose of this study and for that matter any disclosure you will make shall be kept confidential. Moreover, your anonymity is guaranteed by not indicating your name or institution. Your voluntary participation in the study is very much appreciated. Thank you.

MR SYLVANUS KOFIE

Please tick the appropriate bracket [] or column or, where applicable, fill the blank space.

A Background data

1. Sex of respondent:Female [] Male []

2. Rank in the Ghana Education Service:

i. Senior Superintendent [] ii. Principal Superintendent [] iii.
Assistant Director 11. []

iv. Assistant Director 1[] v. Deputy Director [] vi. Director 11[] vii.
Director 1 []

3. Highest academic qualification:	[√]	Specialized Area
Master's Degree		
Post Graduate Diploma		
Post Graduate Certificate		
Bachelor's Degree		
Diploma		
Any other		

4. Highest Professional qualification:	[√]	Specialized Area
M.Phil. / M.Ed.		
Bachelor of Education.		
Post Graduate Diploma in Education		
Post Graduate Certificate in Education		
Diploma in Education		
Teachers, Certificate 'A'		
Any other		

5. Number of years in the Ghana Education Service: 1-5[] 6-10[]
11-15[] 16-20[] 21years and above[]

B. How relevant do you think these statements on the purposes of curriculum supervision are? (Tick one box for each statement)

Curriculum supervision involves a process of interaction with staff for the purposes of:	Very Relevant	Relevant	Undecided	Less Relevant	Not Relevant
6. Monitoring performance.					
7. Sharing information.					
8. Problem solving					
9. Professional development.					
10. Contributing to teacher professional growth.					
11. Checking the conduct of recalcitrant teachers and students.					
12. Assessing the effectiveness and competence of teachers.					

13. Offering support services to colleagues and subordinates.					
14. Ensuring strict compliance with rules and procedure.					
15. Maintaining harmonious working relationships.					
16. Detecting weaknesses of subordinates.					
17. Controlling/instructing less experienced members of staff.					

C. How far do you agree to the following statements on curriculum supervision practices?

Tick one box for each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
18. Curriculum supervision schedules should be planned together by both the leader and the led.					
19. The procedure to be used by the supervisor should be discussed with, and agreed upon by the supervisee.					
20. Informal observation should be the ideal tool for conducting curriculum supervision.					
21. Informal observations should be frequent and numerous in order to make the desired impact.					
22. Curriculum supervision should be mostly unannounced classroom visits.					
23. Effective curriculum supervision tasks require special orientation.					

D. To what extent do you agree with the following statements on debriefing/feedback in curriculum supervision?

Tick one box for each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
24. Immediate feedback is most important for effective curriculum supervision.					
25. Feedback should always be at the personal level.					
26. Occasionally, feedback should be through supervision conferencing.					
27. All feedback on curriculum supervision should be a dialogic interaction between the supervisor(s) and the supervisee(s).					
28. Both supervisors and supervisees should keep records of all formal, as well as informal supervision sessions.					

E. To what extent do you agree that the following conditions promote effective curriculum supervision?

Tick one box for each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
29. Autonomy of subordinates leads to responsible conduct, needing little supervision.					
30. Persuasion and dialogue normally elicit cooperation in curriculum supervision.					
31. Sanctions ensure compliance in curriculum supervision.					
32. Motivated staff requires less supervision and are willing to accomplish tasks.					
33. Mutual trust creates conditions for self-direction and self-confidence in supervisees.					

34. Staff supervision as a means of developing and controlling the quality of service, should consider the needs and rights of supervisees.					
---	--	--	--	--	--

F. Indicate which of the following approaches to curriculum supervision is/are prevalent in your school

Tick one box for each statement.	Very Often	Often	Rarely	Not At All
35. Unannounced visits to the classroom				
36. Curriculum supervision which follows strictly stipulated uniform rules.				
37. Selective curriculum supervision process applied in relation to individual teacher's needs/challenges.				
38. Clinical supervision, as an intensive curriculum supervision approach meant for total staff development.				
39. Curriculum supervision only applied to inexperienced/new teachers.				

G. To what extent do you agree with these statements on the scope of curriculum supervision?

Tick one box for each statement.	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
40. Curriculum supervision should be limited to class interactions.					
41. Teacher support services must be the concern of curriculum supervisors.					
42. The provision of teacher support and logistical resources greatly enhance curriculum supervision.					
43. The development of thought patterns of teachers should be the focus of curriculum supervision.					

44. Monitoring the work of counselors, librarians, secretaries, bus drivers and other staff who work in the school is part of curriculum supervision.					
45. Supervising the work and the behaviour of students in the school is core to curriculum supervision.					

H. How far do you agree with the following statements on the roles of supervisors and supervisees?

(Tick one box for each statement)	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
46. Making the effort to supply resources to supervisees is part of the supervisor's task.					
47. Curriculum supervisors/leaders must guide sub-ordinates in the course of their work.					
48. Mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession.					
49. Improving individual teachers' competencies, no matter how proficient they are deemed to be.					
50. Teachers collaborate with supervisors in an effort to improve student learning.					
51. Sub-ordinates/supervisees should make inputs into feedback and/or supervision decisions.					
52. Teachers must provide vital information to facilitate the supervision process.					