

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**

**EFFECTIVENESS OF INTERNAL SUPERVISION OF THE IN-IN-OUT  
PROGRAMME IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE WESTERN  
REGION OF GHANA**

**JERRY ISAAC ORTSIN**

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PROGRAMME IN COLLEGES OF EDUCATION IN THE WESTERN  
REGION OF GHANA

BY

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A Dissertation submitted to the Department of Science and Mathematics Education of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Master of Education Degree in Mathematics Education.

JANUARY 2011

## DECLARATION

### **Candidate's Declaration**

*I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been represented for another degree in the University of Cape Coast or elsewhere.*

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

Candidate's Name: Jerry Isaac Ortsin

### **Supervisor's Declaration**

*I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this dissertation was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on project work laid down by the University of Cape Coast.*

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

Supervisor's Name: Mr. Benjamin Yao Sokpe

## **ABSTRACT**

The study was aimed at finding out the effectiveness of internal supervision of the In-In-Out programme in the Colleges of Education in the Western Region of Ghana. The purpose of the study was to find out problems facing supervision of the In-In-Out programme. The research design for the study is the descriptive survey. This method permitted the researcher to obtain data to determine specific characteristics of the group. In all, 480 respondents were included in the study, which comprised 300 Mentees, 180 Mentors. The instrument used in collecting the data was questionnaire. Data analysis was mainly descriptive. The SPSS (Computer Software) was used to group data for the analysis.

The pre-test however was conducted at the Komenda College of Education in the Central Region of Ghana. All the supervisors had the basic training in preparation of lesson notes, supervision of lesson and the use of Distance Learning Materials. The study also revealed that all the supervisors had problem with non-payment of allowance for supervision. In addition, the supervisors and mentees hardly used teaching and learning materials during the teaching-learning process. Some of the supervisors did not perform their expected roles. The teacher-trainees could have descent accommodation during their period of practice.

The Teacher Education Division of the Ghana Education Service should provide the supervisors with attractive allowances to enable them supervise the mentees teaching effectively.

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## **DEDICATION**

To my son Emmanuel Eyiah Ortsin.

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **Background of the Study**

This chapter covers the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study and significance of the study. It also deals with the limitations, delimitation and definition of terms used in the study.

No matter one's starting point, the evidence is that the educational system all over the world is undergoing change. Public demand for improvement in the quality of education is the continuous reform of the curriculum, particularly the organisation of teaching and learning experiences.

According to Antwi (1992), education refers to an organised and sustained instruction designed to communicate a combination of knowledge, skills and understanding valuable for all the activities of life. This means education is the acquisition of skills, attitudes and knowledge which enables a person to fit into a society. Education therefore, is critical in nation building. The quality of teachers in our schools and quality of Teacher Education (TED) in Ghana are inseparable (Adentwi, 2002, P. 1).

Teacher education in Ghana dates as far back as pre-independence era. The Teacher Education Division of the Ghana Education Services is in charge of Teacher Education Programmes. It is tasked with pre-service and in-service

training of teachers. The aim of the division is to train quality teachers to teach in our schools at the basic education level to promote better learning outcomes.

Adentwi (2002) attested that teacher education in Ghana has undergone several structural and content changes from a 4-year Certificate. Prior to 1951, there were 19 pre-university Training Colleges leading to the award of:

- (a) Two-Year Post-Middle Teachers Certificate 'B'
- (b) Two-Year Post- 'B' teachers certificate 'A'
- (c) Four-Year Post-Middle Teachers Certificate 'A'
- (d) Two-Year Post-Secondary Teachers Certificate 'A'

Criticisms of teachers' performance in education necessitated an overview of teacher preparation in Ghana. Basically, teacher education follows these procedures: Academic and Professional preparation; observation, micro-teaching, peer-group teaching and off-campus teaching practice (Adentwi, 2002: p 91).

Trainees took an academic upgrading and updating course in the first year and pursued a vigorous course in curriculum studies integrated with methodology in the second year. In addition to a component of the methodology course, trainees were given series of demonstration lessons and they did the prescribed periods of campus-based practice teaching. Tamakloe (1997), on his part, viewed the purpose of practice teaching generally to be to provide opportunities for student teachers to develop and evaluate their competencies in the major areas of teaching.

According to Adentwi (2002), this practice was very complex since College administrators made all arrangements and logistics ready before trainees could go to their

allocated schools in the communities for syllabuses. They collected other materials and prepared schemes of work, prepared weekly forecast and lesson notes as well as teaching and learning materials. Trainees moved from campus to the schools to practise. Tutors on campus vetted the lesson notes. The class teachers hardly played any role. From time to time tutors went to supervise trainees' teaching. They went with Assessment Forms, observed and rated trainees while they taught. By the time this exercise was over, teacher trainees might have been supervised only three times or at best five times for the four weeks.

Adentwi (2002) identifies two important weaknesses of teaching practice assessment in the then training colleges. In the first place, teaching practice did not ensure that trainees reflected on their teaching experiences in order to build upon their strong points and remedy any short-coming. This also points out that reflection in practice should include the trainees so as to encourage them to think about the practice by self-evaluation.

The challenges that faced trainees in the former practice centred on vetting of notes by tutors who performed the dual roles of vetting their notes as well as supervising teaching. Most often, trainees collected the vetted notes late or in the morning before going to practise. If notes had to be re-written or corrected or teaching learning materials (TLM) were to be made the trainees became frustrated and would not know what to do (Adentwi, 2002).

The movement from College campuses to schools of practice prevented the trainees from experiencing the realities of teaching. They could not take part in most co-curricular activities in schools. Trainees did not have enough time to mark assignments let alone exercises given in

class because they were commuting between the College and the schools. They had little interaction with the pupils and the teachers in the schools. They had no interaction with the parents of the children they were teaching.

With the various strategies adopted by the Ghana government to attain a short term basic education for all children of school going-age by the year 2015 and achieving the subsequent long term vision of becoming a middle income country, education in general has been revised (MOE, 1996). Teacher education curriculum, which is the epi-centre of quality education, was revised to provide well qualified teachers for the basic schools, hence, the launching of the In-In-Out Programme of Initial teacher training in 1998/1999 academic year as part of the fCUBE Programme.

The In-In-Out Programme is an innovation in the then Teacher Training College programme established to move away from the academic orientation of teacher training to the situation where performance is based on practical teaching. Some of the innovative activities include:

- (a) Whole year school focused system of practical training of teacher trainees.
- (b) The use of distance education methodology as a mode of instruction and study and study and
- (c) The employment of mentors to work with link tutors for the supervision of teacher trainees.

According to Atta and Baafi (2000), organisational structure refers to the way in which organisations are divided, organised and coordinated. It provides stability and keeps the

organisation's members together to achieve set goals. Based on the importance of organisational structure to organisations, the teacher education division is made-up of:

- a) The Director of the Teacher Education Division and the core staff members (the management board)
- b) Principals of Teacher Training Colleges (the implementers)
- c) Tutors of Teacher Training Colleges (External Supervisors/Link Tutors).
- d) The Basic School headteachers (Internal Supervisors/Mentors)
- e) Basic School heads/teachers (Internal supervision)
- f) Teacher trainees (mentees on off-campus teaching practice)

The goal of this new programme is to produce qualified and effective teachers for basic schools through competency-based training, which is integrated with the teaching of theory and performance in the classroom.

According to the Ghana Education Service (GES), the implementation of the In-In-Out programme is directed by the following principles:

- a) Teacher trainees should be regarded as students in training and not as qualified teachers.
- b) The teacher-trainees are to teach not more than four periods a day to allow them have sufficient time for personal study.
- c) Teacher trainees should be given adequate supervision and guidance as they teach in order to allow them to develop professional skills expected of a professionally qualified teacher.

d) The work study aspect of the Teacher Training Programme (TTP) which is offered to teacher trainees in the third year should be regarded as part of the three year teacher training programme.

The teacher training programme is of three years duration. Teacher trainees will spend the first two years on the College campus and will be taught using the conventional face-to-face methods. In the first year trainees are taught academic courses in the subjects taught at the basic level. During the second year, curriculum studies integrated with methodology (demonstration lessons and campus based practice teaching OCTP) courses are offered.

One year attachment programme, where trainees stay in communities of the practising schools other than that of their colleges is organised. They undertake school based training. That is, apart from practice teaching, they are also exposed to practical issues such as school management, discipline among staff and other relations and communal living. The attachment programme includes membership training and supervision (Ghana National Association of Teachers, 2003). The teacher trainees are expected to go through a programmed course while on attachment. They are supplied with distance learning materials which cover all the fourteen subjects taught at the basic education level. The additional materials are devoted to education studies.

Other resource materials like lesson note books are also provided for teacher trainees.

It is anticipated that teacher trainees should have study cycle in order to discuss issues on proficiency and school community based programme which they will be examined on at the



end of their final year as well as writing their project work. They are expected to be involved in community activities.

The trainees are accommodated in groups in their various communities. They prepare to teach, prepare lesson notes and deliver lessons, give and mark exercises and are involved in all co-curricular activities of the school. They are expected to be regular and punctual at school, exhibit acceptable personality traits and develop good inter-personal relationship with other mentees, staff and people of the community. The introduction of the “In-In-Out” programme has provided a whole academic year of attachment to schools to provide sufficient time for teacher trainees to practice teaching and become competent in teaching. This enables them to benefit from performance as a critical method for acquiring competent teacher status.

It has also provided familiarization of village life to some of the teacher trainees who may not have stayed in a village before. This programme puts strong links between the College’s schools and communities where trainees are attached for mutual benefits. The activities of the “In-In-Out” programme and its benefits can be sustained and improved if there is effective supervision. Hamily (1987) stated in his book “Assessing the Abilities and Instructional Needs of Students” that supervision helps teachers to learn whether or not the prescribed intervention has been beneficial.

Tamakloe (1997), in evaluating the National Conference on Teacher Education held in 1986, formulated that the present one-way communication nature of the post observation conference must give way to a two-way communication between the student-teacher and the supervisor. How the mentors are able to adhere to Tamakloe’s evaluation is a test case for

teacher education. Also, how the mentors are able to supervise both co-curricular and intra-curricular activities are the greatest concern of this research. This has prompted the researcher to undertake this study in order to find out the effectiveness of internal supervision of the “In-In-Out” programme in Colleges of Education in the Western Region.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The most important task of supervisors, as far as teaching is concerned, is to stimulate students to evaluate their own teaching by making their supervision clinical. Stones (1984) stated that ideally, the teaching practice supervision exercise is to build up the confidence level of the teacher trainees and help develop their professional skills.

In view of the fact that the internship programme is an evolving scheme of training teachers in Ghana and that most of such schemes require effective supervision and monitoring; this study seeks to investigate whether the internal supervision of the “In-In-Out” programme in the Colleges of Education in the

Western Region is effective and what its impact is on the teaching and learning process.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to find out the effectiveness of internal supervision, which is being practised in the In-In-Out programme in the Colleges Educations in the Western Region and its impact on the teaching and

learning process.

### **Research Questions**

The following research questions have been formulated to guide and direct investigation.

1. What training do supervisors acquire?
2. How effective do supervisors play their roles?
3. What problems do supervisors face during supervision?
4. What problems do mentees face in so far as internal supervision is concerned?
5. In what ways could the problems be solved?

### **Significance of the Study**

The significance of the study lies in the fact that:

- (a) The study would serve as a basis for all stakeholders in education such as Teacher Education Directorate, Education Oversight Committees, School Management Committees, Board of Governors of schools and Parent Teacher Associations to make informed decision on the effectiveness of internal supervision of the “In-In-Out” programme.
- (b) Again, it would make the Teacher Education Directorate, the Principals Conference of Ghana (PRINCOF) as well as other policy makers on education aware of the implications of the “In-In-Out” policy on teacher competence.
- (c) Furthermore, the study may guide education authorities in the formulation of policies on educational activities related to supervision in the “In-In-Out” programme to benefit both pupils and teachers.
- (d) The problems identified as facing mentees and supervisors, would enable stakeholders of education find solutions that would ensure the success of the programme.

### **Delimitation of the Study**

The study was restricted to the:

- (1) The In – In – Out programme only
- (2) Students on the out programme in the three Colleges of Education in the Western Region.
- (3) The supervision of practical teaching.

### **Limitations of the Study**

Like many other researchers, this study was not devoid of limitations. The main limitations were:

- (a) Time and other logistical constraints which made it impossible for the researcher to go to all the communities where trainees were on attachment.
- (b) It was not easy to stay longer than possible in some of the schools to observe all respondents in the discharge of their various duties on the field.

### **Definition of Terms**

To enhance the comprehension of this study, the following words are explained.

Campus teaching-It is the system where teacher-trainees practise teaching on

campus in their second year. This is done in the form of peer teaching.

“In-In-Out” programme -It is the system whereby teacher-trainees spend two years in College of Education for course work and practise teaching in a chosen basic school in their final year.

Mentors - They are professional classroom teachers who assist in supervision at the various schools where teacher-trainees have their teaching practice (they also act as internal supervisors)

Mentees - They are teacher-trainees who are practising teaching in the third and final year of the “In-In-Out” programme.

Beginning teachers - They are newly trained teachers who have done less than two years teaching after graduation.

Practicum - All activities carried out in basic schools by teacher trainees aimed at practising how to teach. It is also referred to as teaching practice.

### **Organisation of the Rest of the Study**

Chapter two dealt with the review of related literature. As such, documents both published and unpublished such as books, newspapers and journals that had useful information on the topic were reviewed.

Chapter three discussed the methodology for conducting the study. It dealt with such issues as the population and sample, research design, research instrument, pre-testing of research instruments, procedures for data collection and data analysis procedure.

Chapter four focused on the presentation, analysis and discussion of the data gathered from the field.

The final chapter, which is chapter five, gives a summary of the findings of the study, and conclusions drawn. Also, the chapter included the recommendations coming out from the findings as well as suggestions made for further study.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter is devoted to a review of literature to the problem under investigation. In order to manage teaching and learning effectively, it is essential that there is an effective supervision in school. The purpose of this literature is to discuss related views of other writers on the study. The main objective is to use the information as a conceptual framework upon which generalisations and conclusions could be made with special reference to teaching practice. The chapter has been organised under these major sections:

1. Concept and purpose of teaching practice in teacher education
2. Objectives of teacher education
3. Meaning of supervision
4. Types of supervision
5. Beliefs in supervision
6. Role of supervision
7. Characteristics of supervision
8. Supervisors role in supervision
9. Factors for effective supervision
10. Processes involved in supervision
11. Problems of supervision
12. Theories of supervision
13. Teaching Practice and Mentoring

## 14. Mentorship

### **Concept and Purpose of Teaching Practice in Teacher Education**

It is important to commence the literature review with the conceptual purpose of teacher education. Teacher education is an issue directly related to the quality of programmes for recruiting, educating and sustaining teachers in the country. Components of Teacher Education include general education, mastery of specific subject knowledge and methodology of teaching the acquired knowledge.

Nacimo-Brown (1971) postulated that the teacher and Teacher Education in particular is important because it produces the personnel for curriculum implementation. The success or failure of educational reform or policy depends on teachers. Teacher education is defined by Pecku (1998) as the formal process of training and preparing professionals for teaching and learning in our schools. He further stated that Teacher Education Division (TED) of the Ghana Education Service (GES) has been influenced by various factors which tended and continue to dictate its process of development. For this reason, teacher education in Ghana has a chequered history and its evolution has followed the fortunes sometimes of politicians, missionaries and foreign agencies for its funding.

Agyeman (1993) considered teacher education as a special apprenticeship in which the teacher is trained to master three forms of cognitive skills:

- i. The subject to be taught by the student when he or she becomes a teacher,
- ii. The philosophy of the profession; and



iii. The code of ethics of the profession.

Agyeman (1993) viewed these skills to correspond to the academic, pedagogical and the normative context of teacher education programme.

The above interpretations of the concept of teacher education is concerned with recruiting, induction and in-service training in the formal way based on cognitive skills in the area of the profession and code of ethics of the professional as well as various methods of teaching in order to bring about effective teaching and learning. This goes to support the aim of Ministry of Education which states:

“In order for the fCUBE programme to be achievable teacher education will be more school based to enhance teacher competence in the implementation of the fCUBE programme and it is also to up-grade and update skills and competencies of teachers in the field through in-service courses (MOE, 1996: p. 25)”.

The Ghana National Association of Teachers (2003: p.16) stated the following as some of the aims of teaching practices:

- a. To expand and improve comprehensive early childhood education.
- b. Ensuring that learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to learning and life skills programmes.
- c. Ensuring effective teaching and learning in order to improve all aspects of quality education.

This means teaching practice is the first opportunity for the student trainee to participate in real classroom situation. It again implies that teaching practice is designed to provide

opportunities for guidance in a school setting for trainees to develop professional competence, personal characteristics, knowledge and skills of a teacher. Teaching practice therefore, demands both academic and professional exposure of trainees for the desired outcomes to be realised.

### **Objectives of Teacher Education**

It is important to review the objectives of teacher education since the “In-In-Out” programme is structured to meet clearly set goals. Tamakloe (1997) posited that the objectives of teacher education can be put into three broad areas as follows:

- i. The area of cognitive development and acquisition of teaching skills;
- ii. The development of the ability to examine and identify educational and teaching problems and to solve them satisfactorily; and
- iii. The production of mature teachers capable of contributing to the creation of significant and creative personal and inter group relationship.

Pecku (1998) recommended that teacher education must now move away from undue emphasis on theory to pedagogy which transmits adequate teaching skills to enable the trainee deal effectively with real classroom experiences. This comment clearly provides ample justification for the need to critically examine the theoretical basis of our basic school level

teacher training programme and to diversify the curriculum in order to strike a balance between theory and practice.

The most modern teacher educators such as Griffiths and Owen (1995) and Shumba (1998) agreed that good teachers are those who are capable of devising appropriate methods for a specific lesson and situation. They equally stress the fact that we must make room for “initiative” and “reflection”. Teaching methods, therefore must change to a “problem-solving” or “problem centred” approach to learning and teaching, which make the classroom the major environment for identifying teaching-learning problems and making the classroom provide solutions to the problems.

On his part, Wragg (1993) commenting on the objectives of teacher education asserts that if teaching children is one of the most important responsibilities of a society, its members should accept the challenge to nurture and enhance the professional skills of each new generation of teachers. This is because the world has become vastly complex in this twenty-first century, therefore, there is the need to sharpen the proficiency of teachers already in post (on the field teaching); it must be an equally valuable assignment. This means even though initial teacher training is important, there is the need for in-service training too, so that teachers are always kept in tune with the current techniques and principles of teaching.

It is worth noting that the ideal situation is to make sure that every teacher-training programme is structured in such a way as to make room for always sharpening the skills of beginning teachers. This objective cannot be attained without a continuous programme structured to monitor the progress of the teacher trainee while undergoing the course.

It calls for proper supervision of the trainees' practical teaching. Moreover, effective teaching requires, as its baseline, individuals who are academically able and who are about the well-being of children and youth.

Arends (1991) suggested four sets of higher-level attributes of effective teachers and these are:

- i. Control of a knowledge base that guides the art of teaching
- ii. A repertoire of best practices
- iii. The attributes and skills necessary for reflection and problem solving.
- iv. Considering learning to teach a lifelong process.

The foregoing review establishes the need for a balance between both theoretical and practical frame works when formulating objectives that govern teacher education. Even though it talks about striking a balance, it places more premium on the practical aspect of a teacher training programmes. This also implied that, the objectives of teacher education as stated earlier on by Tamakloe (1997) are in the right direction as they satisfy both theoretical and practical areas in teacher training programmes.

### **Meaning of Supervision**

Neagley and Evans (1970) thought that supervision seems destined to play an essential role in deciding the nature and conduct of the curriculum in selecting the school organisational pattern and learning materials to facilitate teaching and learning and in evaluating the entire educational process.

Effective supervision is therefore, needed to co-ordinate efforts to ensure maximum achievement. This means supervision is concerned with studying and improving the conditions, which surround the learning and growth of pupils and teachers.

According to Burton and Bruckner (1955), supervision is an expert technical service primarily aimed at studying and improving cooperatively all factors which affect child growth and development. They are of the view that modern supervision should aim at the improvement of the total teaching and learning process, rather than the narrow and limited aim of improving teachers in service. According to them, supervision is the service provided for the purpose of improving teaching and learning. The effectiveness of supervision depends on the skills and competency of the supervisor in working with the entire staff (classroom teachers), specialists and administrators alike. To Burton and Brucker (1955), supervision in modern schools is different from the type found in the school a few years ago. Today, supervision in schools is a cooperative service designed to aid teachers rather than to report about them. This means in the past supervision was a reporting process concerned with the evaluation of personnel without too much consideration for service.

Wiles (1967) maintained that supervision consists of all the activities leading to the improvement of instruction, activities related to morale improving human relations, in-service education and curriculum development. The above interpretations of supervision by the various writers seem to agree to the view that supervision is primarily a service provided which aims at

improving all factors that go into ensuring growth and development in the teaching and learning process.

### **Types of Supervision**

Neagley and Evans (1970) group supervision into two main types. These include internal and external. To them, internal supervision involves supervision with the various institutions by individual heads, while external deals with supervision from outside that is, from the local, district or national bureaucracy of the school system. Neagley and Evans (1970) expatiating on internal supervision thought that the principal in the present day public school is the chief school administrator and has the duty to see to the day to day administration and supervision of the school. They felt that internal supervision deals with all the activities performed by teacher and principals in schools to enhance teaching and learning. This means internal supervision needs team work, which must involve all stakeholders and not only teachers and principals in order to enhance teaching and learning in the schools.

Halpin (1956) on his part saw the external supervisor as playing complementary role in the supervisory process and he/she also provides professional advice and guidance to teachers. In looking at the duties of the external supervisors, Brickel (1996) observed that the supervisor's role includes among others – making the work of teachers more effective through such things as improving working conditions, better materials for instruction, improved methods of teaching, preparation of courses of study and supervision of instruction through direct contact with the classroom teacher.

Musaazi (1982) talked about two types of supervision. The first one is full supervision – where all aspects of organization and instructional work are carefully examined. Routine supervision is the second type Musaazi (1982) talked about; it involves discussion with teachers in specific issues, casual or checks up visits, which are informal.

### **Beliefs in Supervision**

Musaazi (1982) stated that the purpose of supervision is to monitor teachers to determine if their instruction includes the element of effective instruction. If these elements are observed, the supervisor should provide positive reinforcement to assure that they continue to be included in the teacher's lesson. This means if a teacher is incorrectly using the elements of effective instruction; the supervisor has a responsibility to provide remedial assistance by explaining and demonstrating correct instructional behaviours and setting standards of improvement effort. This means the supervisor should have primary responsibility for instructional improvement decisions.

According to Musaazi (1982), supervision should foster teacher reflection and autonomy and facilitate teacher driven instructional improvement. The supervisor should be concerned with the teacher's self concept and personal development as well as the teacher's instructional performance. It is critical for the supervisor to establish a relationship with the teacher characterized by openness, trust and acceptance. It can therefore be concluded here that supervision must be aimed at establishing good human relationship and controlling the teaching and learning process in schools in order to improve pupils' performance.

## **Role of Supervision**

Writing on the role of supervision, Adesina (1990) intimated that supervision plays a major role not only in creating a positive relationship between the leader and his subordinates but also in providing ample evidence upon which assessment can be based. He concluded that students of education as well as practising school administrators need to note that the term supervision does not mean ‘policing’, which is the type most commonly found in today’s school system. Javis (1990) said that the supervisor is a tutor who is overseeing to the professional placement of a student in professional education. It follows that supervision implies “a superordinate – subordinate relationship.”

Musaazi (1982) was of the view that supervision of instruction is intended to improve the teaching and learning process in school. For him, the supervisor must take the lead in providing pleasant stimulating and wholesome environment in which teachers will want to work and in which they will feel secure. It is his responsibility to ensure that teachers have opportunities to share ideas and to work together effectively as a team in order to achieve the goals of the school. The supervisor should strive to broaden the base of leadership by utilizing the full potential of teachers. Thus, an inspector of education is a person responsible for working with others to increase the effectiveness of a school’s teaching and learning.



Tamakloe (1997) evaluating the national conference on teacher education held in 1986 formulated the following principles of the organisation and supervision of teaching practice.

- i. Classroom teachers should not be “on holiday during teaching practice, rather they should be always available to give guidance to the apprentice teachers.
- ii. College supervisors should plan their schedule such that they will find time to hold pre-observation conference with every student they supervise.
- iii. The present one-way-communication nature of the post-observation conference must give way to a two-way-communication between the student-teacher and the supervisor.

This researcher’s experience shows that most supervisors continue to practise one way communication because they only fill some forms outlining the strengths and weaknesses of the teacher trainee and hands it over to the teacher trainee. The issue is not to have teachers as supervisors, but to have teachers who have been trained, to act as supervisors. In the view of this writer, supervision must be in the form of a discussion whereby the supervisor must comment on the student’s performance and then the student may have the opportunity to ask questions. But whether these processes of supervision are followed judiciously is another issue.

Enus (1963) saw supervision as performing the following functions:

The staffing function – this includes recruitment, selection and placement, promotion and dismissal of teachers and other non-teaching staff.

The motivation and stimulation – Enus contend that supervision, as a facilitating function, should be used to help remove obstacles to good teaching and at the same time provide the stimulus for creative work. The motivation function of supervision is therefore concerned with providing a challenging environment giving professional leadership, creating job satisfaction and boosting morale as well as ensuring teacher participation in formulating policies, which will enhance their own task performance.

The consultation function – this concern provides for continuous professional development, thus, in-service training.

The programme development function – this deals with adoption for local situations, variations in subject content and modification in order and method of presentation.

The view of Enus (1963) on functions of supervision implied that for any meaningful supervision to take place there is the need to identify the right people for the job in order to select them carefully and place them according to their abilities. Some supervisors may be good in supervision of instruction, others in co-curricular activities. Others will be good at the lower and upper primary, while others may be good at Junior High Schools. It also implies that supervisors should guide, direct and counsel teachers as well as encourage teachers in order to bring about effective teaching and learning. Again, supervision must be that which provide for in-service training so as to improve teacher's ways of reading.

### **Characteristics of Supervision**

Enus (1963) believed that supervision is a function that cannot be undertaken in isolation, but rather must become a cooperative venture involving the entire school. To Enus, the following must be found in supervisory programmes in modern schools.

- i. That supervision begins with teachers' problems and not supervisors' needs and interests.
- ii. Supervision assures that there is adequate responsible and effective communication in all phases of its work with all the school's workers concerned.

It can be concluded that modern day supervision is to bring both the teacher and supervisor together to improve upon the teaching and learning process in a democratic way involving all concerned that is, administrators, link tutors and especially mentors who act as internal supervisors for effective supervision.

### **Factors for Effective Supervision**

Various writers have written on the effectiveness of supervision. They wrote about conditions that can make supervision effective and secondly, how effective supervision can promote teaching and learning.

Neagley and Evans (1970: p.23) were among the writers who wrote on conditions necessary for effective supervision. They contend that "for supervision to be effective, the general limits of authority and responsibility must be well established so that all members of the supervisory staff are able to function effectively as a team."

Halpin (1956) was of the view that supervision can be effectively carried out when materials and logistics are provided to support it. He contends that for supervision to achieve its goals, it must institute an evaluation programme that is comprehensive enough to include the participation of pupils, teachers and administrators and also to examine the effectiveness of learning in the light of instructional supervisory and other administrative procedures.

Musaazi (1982: p.12) on his part indicated that, “if supervision is to achieve its goals by improving the process of instruction in the school, then the supervisor must take the lead in providing a pleasant, stimulating and wholesome environment in which teachers will want to work.” Musaazi (1982) is also of the view that, “the supervisor must arrange courses or workshops for teacher and headteacher to improve in them new techniques in teaching.” He again pointed out that in order for supervision to achieve its goals the supervisor must provide accurate, honest and positive reports on the schools he/she supervises, or the teacher he/she observes and the educational values obtained from the expenditure of public money. These reports according to Musaazi (1982) will be of use to many people, including:

1. Heads of schools and their staff who refer to such reports for guidance of their work.
2. Managers of schools who would like to know how their schools compare with others and what improvement are necessary.

3. Those responsible for equipping the schools, that is, providing schools with textbooks, exercise books, equipment and tools.
4. To the inspector/supervisor him/herself, as a record of what was seen to be lacking and what was recommended.

This implies that, supervision should be devoid of tension and fear; workshops could be organised on new ideas which can promote effective teaching and learning – learning materials should be provided to promote effective supervision in teacher training programmes.

Kinhart (1941: p.34) cited a study to show the positive effects of supervision on English achievement for high school students. He equated the pupil in twelve sections of English on the basis of mental age, chronological age and achievement in English as determined by standardized test. This section was assigned to each of six teachers who were judged to be about equal in ability, supervision was applied to three teachers for approximately one semester but not to the other three. At the end of the period, achievement tests were given. The data showed that there was a superiority of attainment in pupils whose teachers were supervised over those who were not. This gave the indication that supervision can influence both the supervision process and student achievement. Kinhart (1941) concluded that all the six sections taught by supervised teachers made a greater final gain in standard test than any of the six sections taught by unsupervised teachers. This implies that “students whose teachers supervised them while learning could perform better than students whose teachers are not adequately supervised.”

### **Process Involved in Supervision**

Many educational writers and researchers are of the view that instructional supervision as a major function in the educational enterprise could be carried out in various ways. It is the view of Neagley and Evans (1970) that the primary aim of every supervisor is to lead his school in the improvement of instruction. This they contended is done through the following supervisory activities.

1. Individual teacher conference mostly informal
2. Regular class visitation
3. Action research in the classroom
4. Coordination of special subjects like art, music, physical education with the academic curriculum.
5. Demonstration and substitution in teaching on occasions
6. An active work in district – wide curriculum improvement
7. Planning and presentation of in-service training programmes

Harris (1963) was of the view that instructional supervision is carried out mainly under six major tasks. They include the following:

1. Organizing for instruction – this involves making organizational arrangements to implement the curriculum.
2. Selecting and assigning the appropriate instructional staff members to appropriate activities in the organization. Programmes related to this task include recruitment, screening, testing and maintaining personnel records.

3. Providing facilities and materials and securing their utilization in order to make for efficient and effective provision of instruction.
4. Arranging for in-service training in order to orientate staff members.

This provides staff members with the necessary information and understanding which go a long way to maximize their chances of success, with a minimum of difficulties, in the performance of their duties.

5. Identifying those services which have the greatest contribution to make to the instructional programmes and which facilitate it to achieve maximum success.
6. Planning, organizing and implementing activities for the evaluation of all instructions.

This implies that supervision should be carried out consistently and continuously as a process of guidance based on frequent visit, which focuses attention on one or more aspects of the school's work and its organization.

### **Problems of Supervision**

Eye (1975) contended that supervision itself has a history of subservience to administrative convenience which causes teachers to view supervisor as a system executioner. This has led educational authorities to develop models of supervision which to them could be used as blue-prints for effective supervision.

This reveals that, for effective supervision to take place, the modern supervisor must be well trained in education and should be an expert in psychology. He/she should also know how to behave in a democratic group process and must recognize his/her role as leader and cooperatively involve his/her fellow administrators and teachers in all major decisions affecting

them and the teaching – learning situation. This will remove the problem of teachers seeing supervisors as system executioners. In view of this a lot of theories have been formulated to help address the problem of supervision.

### **Theories of Supervision**

A theory of administration that appears to have much relevance to supervision was propounded by Wiles (1967). He formulated his own theory of supervision by taking a number of concepts and facts from appropriate related fields and developed a set criterion that might be used for evaluating projected supervisory acts. The following assumptions were made:

- i. Teachers must be treated as professionals who have a code of ethics, specialized education and a desire to be self-directing.
- ii. Supervisors are expected to provide leadership and competency in developing an organization and a working environment that make positive continuous improvement in curriculum instruction and learning.

Clay (1963) studying American school teachers of all levels of the elementary school on their attitudes towards supervision came out with the following conclusions:

- i. All teachers need and want supervision
- ii. Teachers want supervision from persons with titles.

These means supervisors need to be given to them. The mentors who are also supervisors of the “In-In-Out programme need to be trained, since they are influential people who significantly help trainees reach their major life goals.



Mentors therefore need to be trained so as to be competent in their work and not the idea of being professional teachers. In their training, their role will be defined to them so as not to see the teacher trainees as helpers to reduce their task for them and hence abstain from classes whenever the teacher trainees is teaching as it is happening today.

According to Anderson and Shawmon (1988), the mentoring process has five essential attributes.

- i. The process of nurturing
- ii. The act of serving as a role model
- iii. Mentoring functions (teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counselling and befriending)
- iv. Focusing on professional development
- v. An on-going caring relationship

In teacher education, therefore, the mentor is a professional teacher with a difference in terms of exhibiting excellent skills and attributes worth emulating. It follows then that not all experienced teachers can be asked to mentor teacher-trainees and beginning teachers. The selection should be carefully done. Apart from that, those selected need to be given induction into what their roles are. When this is judiciously done then supervisors and mentors can make meaningful impact on trainees.

Gokah (1990) observed that supervision in basic schools as it existed by 1990 was not operating effectively and efficiently, as it should.

The present day supervision is far different from the autocracy supposedly exhibited by the early 20<sup>th</sup> century administration and supervision. It is worth knowing that all decisions of any importance in the modern school system should involve the entire staff and each professional employee must feel that he is a part of the team. It is thus, realized that the scope of supervision is very broad covering all the factors that affect the learning and teaching of pupils in schools. It is therefore, imperative that after the necessary human and material resources have been procured, adequate supervision should take place to ensure the realization of the objectives of the “In-In-Out” programme.

Mentor as a person, refers to one who is capable of becoming an exemplar demonstrating teaching and management techniques, a peer supervisor observing and giving feed back; a curriculum management advisor helping with lessons and long-term planning; a supervisor of classroom research encouraging the reflective practitioner and also a provider of a resource and consultancy service. A mentor to is a role model, consultant to the teacher-trainee who assists with the planning and education of teaching classroom research (Maynard & Furlong as cited in McIntyre & Wilkin, 1993).

Maynard and Furlong as cited in McIntyre and Wilkin (1993) propose a frame work for mentoring. The three distinctive approaches they identified are:

1. The apprenticeship models
2. The competence model and
3. The reflective practitioner model

They attested to the importance of the mentor's role as a model and instructor in the apprenticeship and competence phase of the trainee. The mentor helps the trainee to develop a deeper understanding for the learning process and consequently the mentor's role changes from a reflective practitioner to a co-enquirer with the trainee. The focus again, changes from trainee's teaching performance to children learning. This means the approaches of mentoring should continue successively to influence trainee's development.

Griffiths and Owen (1995) saw a mentor as a facilitator of the training process who impacts on the trainees in a variety of ways. The personal philosophy, life and career stage training and pedagogical competencies of the mentor can affect the efficiency of the mentoring process. Competencies of the mentor can affect the efficiency of the mentoring process. Nevertheless, this review focuses on the literature that historically defines the mentoring process without examining the influences of the variable raised.

Ministry of Education (1996) however, outlined the roles of the mentor as:

- i. Demonstrator of good leadership and effective manager of attachment programmes.
- ii. Encouraging the professional growth of trainees
- iii. Providing sound learning environment for trainees in the school
- iv. Promoter of mutual trust and valued professional public relationships with all the players of the training programme – Trainees, Colleges, Schools of attachment and the communities.

A mentor is a man/woman who is directly in the classroom with trainees assigned to his/her class. Also, the mentor among other things provides professional support and guidance to the trainees, uses the experience in co-curricular and curricular activities to help develop the professional attributes of teacher-trainees, provides a conducive classroom atmosphere to enhance trainee's work.

The mentoring process as has been identified by Anderson and Shawmon (1988) has five attributes outlined earlier in this section. These attributes consider the teacher (mentor) as model and nurture among others. All these invariably mean that a mentor is not just an experienced teacher but someone who is an exceptional individual capable of being a partner in training trainees. In these ways, mentors and supervisors can meaningfully impact on the trainees to become competent teachers after their course.

Adentwi (2002) also identified the crucial role played by both the mentors in being partners in preparing the trainees. The school based practicum depends on effective supervision and mentorship for its success.

### **Teaching Practice and Mentoring**

Teaching Practice, sometimes called school placement, is probably the most challenging and exciting part of Initial Teacher Training. Although the situation is rather artificial, it is the first real opportunity to test and develop your teaching skills. Teaching practice has a dual role – whilst you are testing your skills you are also being assessed.

It is therefore important that you are given appropriate support and the opportunity to make a good start (Darling Hammond, 2000).

The National Centre for Educational Statistics (NCES, 2000) indicated that research findings suggest that school quality is tightly linked to teacher quality. Hanushek (1992: p.351) added, “The estimated difference in annual achievement growth between having a good and having a bad teacher can be more than one grade-level equivalent in test performance.” Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain (1998) recently concluded in one study that teacher quality is the most important determinant of school quality. Current research, however, has yet to definitely determine the specific, observable factors that distinguish a good teacher from a bad one. Research does suggest that the following factors are associated with teacher quality: having academic skills, teaching in the field in which the teacher received training, having more than a few years of experience (to be most effective) and participating in high-quality induction and professional development programmes (National Centre for Education Statistics, 2000). Data relating to these issues were collected by the National Centre for Education Statistics (NCES) during 1999/2000 academic year through the Schools and Staffing Survey (SASS) in the United States of America.

According to McNally (2006), good quality mentoring in schools makes an important contribution to developing the professional skills of new teachers and ensuring the best quality learning experiences for pupils. New teachers benefit from this mentoring as they work towards the standard for Full Registration to teach in Scottish School.

Again, he points out that high quality continuous professional development can only take place with commitment from schools, education authorities and teacher education institutions to developing effective mentoring. Consequently, McNally (2006) outlines that support provided to newly qualified teachers in Scotland has attracted interest from education systems across the world. The Scottish Government has made significant investment in resources since 2002. Well managed and supported induction experiences should enable new teachers to provide education of the highest standards for Scotland's children and young people.

In a more detailed exposition, McNally (2006) who threw the searchlight on Scotland teacher education system continues that at all stages of teacher education, mentoring is an acknowledged part of learning and developing new skills. In initial teacher education (ITE), student teachers learn from experienced class teachers in primary and secondary schools. In the induction scheme, newly qualified teachers learn professional skills and strategies from experienced colleagues. He notes that mentoring is also an appropriate way for experienced teachers and managers to acquire management and leadership skills that can then lead to posts with wider responsibilities.

Furthermore, all newly qualified teachers in Scotland are required to complete a period of probation before being awarded full registration as a teacher with the General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS). Scottish trained, newly qualified teachers (NQTs) are eligible for a guaranteed one-year teaching post with a Scottish local authority.

This scheme has been in operation since August 2002 and is known as the Teacher Induction Scheme. The scheme makes a number of provisions for NQTs which include:

1. A maximum class commitment time, equal to 70% of that of a full-time teacher, with considerable time set aside for professional development.
2. Access to the services of an experienced teacher who will provide support and act as a mentor; and
3. Funding per NQTs to local authorities for the provision of a mentor.

In August 2006, there were 1809 primary teachers and 1745 secondary teachers within the Teacher Induction Scheme (McNally, 2006). The programme has some underlying objectives but the main ones are to:

1. identify the factors which contribute to good practice in mentoring in this context;
2. describe good practice in mentoring of NQTs and disseminate it through the report and otherwise;
3. evaluate how well the resources allocated to mentoring are used; and
4. make recommendations for improvements in mentoring practice (McNally, 2006).

The principles inherent in the mentoring have been outlined. It must be stated that there is no one universally accepted definition. However, definitions of mentoring and related concepts were provided by Moir and Gless from the New Teacher Centre at the University of Santa Cruz in May 2006 during their visit to Scotland. They did not give a single definition but rather described the nature it takes.

Moir and Gless as cited in McNally (2006) gave three dimensions, which are:

1. Peer coaching involves a relationship between two or more professional learners which enables them to share concerns and experiences and imbibe new knowledge or skills in their practice. Frequently, those involved have similar professional interests and find the relationship to be of mutual benefit. The relationship may take the form of a network, perhaps evolving from another professional development experience. The process may be short-term or long-term and may be appropriate for colleagues who are teaching the same stage, are in the same department, have recently taken up new posts or are preparing for further promotion. Teachers often identify their own peer support and training is not usually necessary.
2. Mentoring is a more structured, sustained relationship for supporting professional learners at the early stage of their career, through a career transition or when facing a particular challenge. For example, newly qualified teachers, supply and returning teachers or recently appointed headteachers can benefit from a mentor. The mentor is normally a more experienced colleague with knowledge of the needs and professional context of the other person. The process is usually time defined and has a significant emphasis on developing the less experienced colleague's instructional skills and classroom practice.



Mentoring is most effective when mentors are selected for their knowledge and expertise and given training in mentoring skills, adult learning and the ability to identify and communicate best practices.

3. Specialist coaching is a more structured and sustained relationship to help develop a particular aspect of the professional learner's practice. It enables professional learners to review and define existing practice, to develop and extend skills and to explore and introduce alternative strategies. It is of benefit to practitioners at any stage of their career. The specialist coach is normally a professional who has particular expertise as a coach but does not need specific subject knowledge, as the process focussed on the agenda of the person being coached. Coaches require training in effective coaching skills and in many cases may have gained accreditation (Moir & Gless as cited in McNally, 2006).

In another development Boreen and Niday (2003) gave tips for the mentees and mentors to facilitate effective teaching practice and supervision. The tips for the mentees are that they should:

1. think critically about yourself as a teacher. Question your teaching actions.
2. use reflection and brainstorming to determine your actions in the classroom.
3. analyse past actions to help plan future actions
4. analyse positive situations to determine the causes of the positive outcome. Use this information to help improve situations that need work.
5. think in terms of long-range planning and solutions rather than short-term.

6. be self-aware: resist the impulse to stereotype, jump to conclusions, or take things for granted.
7. challenge your assumptions, explore alternatives, and take risks in your thinking.
8. look for positive classroom situations, rather than focusing on the negative.

The tips for mentors as may apply in this study are that the ultimate goal of the mentor is to actualize the potential of the new teacher and model effective teaching practices, as well as effective goal setting and goal analysis. The specific tips are:

1. help the beginning teacher develop appropriate, reachable goals.
2. help beginning teacher make the shift between theoretical knowledge and the practical knowledge necessary for success at their school site.
3. encourage the novice teacher to continually reflect on her/his teaching.
4. find other master teachers who would serve as good role models for the new teacher.
5. set up times for the two of you to observe the master teacher together.
6. help the new teacher develop unit and lesson plans.
7. locate and develop relevant instructional resources.

They concluded that successful educators know when to encourage their students to go out on a limb and when to intercede. To be an effective mentor, one must be able to use those same skills while encouraging their protégée to develop and grow into a master teacher. Good mentors encourage reflection in their novice teachers but they also demand it of themselves (Boreen and Niday, 2003).

### **Summary of Literature Review**

For any meaningful research work on the topic under review there is the need for related and relevant literature to be reviewed. This will enable one to get an insight as to what others have done on the topic and what has been left undone so that it might act as a fertile ground for further research.

This is what the researcher has attempted doing by looking at the concept and purpose of teaching practice in teacher education, objectives of teacher education, meaning of supervision, types of supervision, beliefs of supervision, role of supervision, characteristics of supervision, supervisors' role in supervision, factors for effective supervision, process involved in supervision, problems of supervision, theories of supervision and mentorship. The literature reviewed reveals that effective teaching practice and supervision are very necessary to enhance competence in the profession.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This chapter describes the methodology that was used to carry out the study. It includes the research design, the population, the sample and its selection as well as the research instrument that were employed to collect data from the respondents. Also, it covers pre-testing of instruments, data collection and analysis procedures.

#### **Research Design**

The research design for this study is the descriptive survey. The design deals with assessing the effectiveness of internal supervision of the “In-In-Out” programme in the Colleges of Education in the Western Region of Ghana. This method permitted the researcher to obtain data to determine specific characteristics of the group. The descriptive survey design enables the researcher to use observation and questionnaire, which represented the most appropriate method for conducting the investigation. It was appropriate to use this method for this research because it had the potential to provide a lot of information from quite a large sample of individuals and enabled the researcher to make inference and generalisation on findings from the study (Best & Khaln, 1995).

## **Population**

The study investigated the effectiveness of internal supervision of the “In-In-Out” programme in the Colleges of Education in the Western Region of Ghana that is, Holy Child College of Education, Wiawso College of Education and Enchi College of Education. The population consisted of mentees in the three Colleges of Education in the named region. The mentors came from the basic schools in the catchment area within the Western Region where the mentees do their teaching practice. The total population for the study was 1059 persons made up of 601 mentees, 458 mentors.

## **Sample and Sampling Technique**

A sample of 300 mentees, that is, 100 each from the three colleges, and 180 mentors, that is, 60 from each college were used in the study making a total of 480.

In selecting the students respondents from the population of the final year trainees on attachment in the three Colleges of Education, a stratified random sampling technique was used in selecting mentees from each of the two mixed Teacher Colleges of Education and a simple random sampling technique was used for the single sex Teacher College of Education in the Western Region.

A list of mentees was obtained from each of the Colleges of Education by the researcher. The names obtained were listed according to sex for the two mixed Colleges of Education. The numbers were written on pieces of paper, folded and put in a box and the pieces of paper were randomly picked from the box.

The mentees whose names matched the numbers made up the sample. In the mixed Colleges of Education, that is, Enchi and Wiawso the 100 mentees selected were made up of 70 males and 30 females.

The mentors were purposively selected because they were few and all of them play key roles in the programme. Patton (1990) explained that purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned.

### **Research Instrument**

To enable the respondents supply the needed data on the study, the researcher used a questionnaire and observation for the mentees and mentors. These instruments are known for their validity and reliability. The researcher constructed the instruments himself based on the literature review and research questions because self-developed instruments are known for their appropriateness for the design and information retrieval. The questionnaire was used because it enabled the researcher to collect data from the mentees and mentors in the activities of internal supervision of the “In-In-Out” programme.

The questionnaire designed for the mentors consisted mostly of Likert scale type, close-ended items (where respondents were given options from which they were to select what responses they deemed appropriate) and a few open-ended items where the respondents had to provide their own responses. The questionnaire had six sections (See Appendix A). Section A was devoted to biographical data of respondents, where they were asked to provide information on their sex, age, place of attachment, professional qualification and teaching experience.

Especially items 1, 2 and 3 are applicable to mentees (student teachers on teaching practice). In addition to this, mentees were restricted to respond to the seven items under section E.

Section B of the questionnaire had four items that addressed the research questions on the background training of mentors. Section C contained four items that addressed the research question on roles supervisors play in the mentoring process. Section D consisted of three items on problems supervisors (mentors) face during supervision. The final Section F consisted of two items which sought to find out what way the problems that mentors face can be solved.

Open-ended items unlike close-ended questions are difficult to compute and to analyse, they seek for detailed information on issues that can be of interest to the researcher (Koul, 1997). The questionnaire was equally important because it enabled the researcher to collect data from the respondents in order to know the effectiveness of internal supervision of the In-In-Out programme.

### **Observation Process**

The researcher also employed observation on some major issues of the programme for triangulation process. Specifically, the researcher used non-participant observation. The non-participant observation is one of the ways used to see what is going on in a given social setting.

The researcher is physically present but only as a spectator who does not become directly involved in the activities of people who are being studied. Observation process is a major means of collecting data in both qualitative and quantitative research. It offers first-hand account of the situation under study (Agyedu & Donkor, 1999).

The research prepared an outline for the observation process. It was made up of content of training for mentors, mentors involvement in pre-conference meeting, mentors involvement in classroom activities, mentors involvement in post conference activities and appropriate use of teaching and learning materials. The observation was carried out for three weeks during the mentees internship in some selected places of attachment. Issues that required additional evidence through observation provided the frame for the schedule.

### **Pre-testing of Instruments**

Since the research instrument was personally designed, there was the need to check reliability and validity of the questionnaire and observation schedule used for final data collection. There was the need to find out if items contained in the instruments were explicit enough and would therefore aid the respondents to complete the questionnaire as accurately as possible and whether the observations process would bring out the expected behaviour from mentees.

The process of the study helped the researcher to detect inherent problems, inconsistencies and ambiguities in the instruments intended to be used for the study and corrected such abnormalities before carrying out actual study (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1993).



The sample for the pre-test was 45 respondents. They were selected from Essaman Primary and JHS, Kissi D/A Primary, Kissi D/A JHS, Kissi English and Arabic Primary and Kissi English and Arabic JHS all in the catchment area of Komenda College of Education. The breakdown was 30 mentees and 15 mentors.

The pre-testing was done in two weeks before the actual study to make room for corrections. The study was conducted when the basic schools were in their last part of second term so that the mentees would have had some experience in the programme to validate the content of the instruments used. It was subjected to the supervisor's scrutiny and comment. The researcher collected all the questionnaires administered and ran the responses using (Cronbrach's alpha co-efficient) for the reliability co-efficient. After the reliability test has been run the result was 0.75. This outcome proved that the instrument used was valid and reliable.

In spite of this test using the computer software, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), further adjustments were made to the instruments for easy administration. As a result of the corrections made some items were revised for clarity while some others were eliminated or regrouped. These processes were in line with Agyedu and Donkor (1999, p. 36) contention that "reliability and validity of documents and personal accounts can be assessed through various techniques and triangulation."

### **Data Collection Procedure**

The questionnaires were personally administered by the researcher. The respondents were briefed on the objectives of the study and assured of their anonymity and confidentiality. The names and schools of the respondents were optional. These helped to solicit the needed support and co-operation of the respondents to ensure that the work was successfully done.

Looking at the magnitude of work and time limit for the exercise, respondents were grouped and briefed on the purpose of the study. After that, the questionnaires were distributed to respondents who filled them and returned some few hours afterwards on the same day. This ensured a 100% return rate. The writer also personally observed a few mentors in the mentoring, a few mentees in teaching and a few mentees in their involvement in school worship. The writer also visited some of their places of abode and interacted with them. The observation helped to cross-check what they said on the items. The administration of the questionnaires for mentors and mentees took one week each. The observation took two weeks.

### **Data Analysis**

The data were qualitatively and quantitatively analysed. Some set of data were analysed using frequency tables and in some cases making the presentation of data in prose because the items could not be presented in tabular forms. To be precise, quantitative analysis was made using simple descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages.

The responses were edited and analysed according to specific research questions. The closed-ended items were coded and fed into the computer using software, Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). This software is useful in much respect because it helps a researcher to run frequencies, percentages, draw tables, charts and bars.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the study on the effectiveness of internal supervision of the In-In-Out programme in the three colleges of education in the Western Region of Ghana. The presentation was done in accordance with the research questions.

#### Biographical Data of Respondents

Data gathered under this section included gender and age of respondents and also, the place where mentees were attached for their out of school teaching practice. The data collected also included the professional status and length of time in teaching of mentors.

#### Sex of Respondents

Table 1 presents the sex distribution of mentors and mentees.

**Table 1: Sex of Respondents**

| Sex          | Mentors    |              | Mentees    |              |
|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|
|              | Frequency  | Percentage   | Frequency  | Percentage   |
| Male         | 88         | 48.9         | 140        | 46.7         |
| Female       | 92         | 51.1         | 160        | 53.3         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>300</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Table 1 shows that with the mentors and mentees, the ratio of female to male mentors was almost one-to-one.

The female mentees outnumbered the male mentors by just a difference of 20 representing 6.7%. The larger number of females is accounted for by the size of females in the female College of Education.

### **Age of Respondents**

The age distribution of the respondents is presented in Table 2.

**Table 2: Age of Respondents**

| Age                | Mentors    |              | Mentees    |              |
|--------------------|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|
|                    | Frequency  | Percentage   | Frequency  | Percentage   |
| 18-22 years        | 10         | 5.6          | 38         | 12.7         |
| 23-27 years        | 65         | 36.1         | 249        | 83.0         |
| 28 years and above | 105        | 58.3         | 13         | 4.3          |
| <b>Total</b>       | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>300</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Table 2 shows that a large proportion of the mentees (83%) have fallen within the age range of 23 and 27 years. This really indicates that mentees need a little bit of guidance and supervision. This trend, where a majority of respondents fall within the ages of 23 and 27 can be attributed to the educational reforms that lowered the number of years spent in school. Thus, it could be assumed that the trainees are mostly Senior High School leavers. The small percentage (4.3%) of trainees falling within 28 years and above might mean that they did not have the requisite qualification to enter the College of Education early. It is also possible that they did pupil teaching for some time before eventually succeeding to enter the college.

It is evident from Table 2 that more than half of the Mentors (58%) fell within the age range of 28 years and above. Thus, the mentors are matured and can assist the mentees to acquire the needed skills for effective teaching and learning to ensure the success of the out programme.

### **Place of Attachment of Mentees**

Mentees were asked to indicate their place of attachment for the out of campus teaching practice. The results classified under urban, semi-urban and rural are shown in Table 3.

**Table 3: Place of Attachment**

| Place        | Mentors    |              | Mentees    |              |
|--------------|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|
|              | Frequency  | Percentage   | Frequency  | Percentage   |
| Urban        | 2          | 1.1          | 8          | 2.7          |
| Semi urban   | 32         | 17.8         | 33         | 11.0         |
| Rural        | 146        | 81.1         | 259        | 86.3         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>300</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Table 3 indicates that majority of trainees (86.3%) were attached to the rural settlements. From the table, it could be seen that the educational authorities placed majority of the trainees in rural areas because that was where the colleges could secure free accommodation for the mentees. This trend is in fulfilment of the primary principle underlying the “In-In-Out ” programme. The objective of the mentorship component of the programme, seeks to provide opportunities for teacher-trainees to have a practical experience of rural life. Also, it is to prepare trainees’ minds to accept postings to rural based schools after completion of their initial teacher

training. Again, it is intended to change the negative attitudes that most teachers in training have about working in rural schools.

However, 11.0% and 2.7% were attached to semi urban and urban schools respectively. It is worthy to note that although the official policy of placement under the “In-In-Out” programme is for students to be sent to rural schools, the problem of securing accommodation in these places as well as getting professional teachers as mentors is a big challenge.

### **Professional Qualification of Mentors**

Mentors were asked to state their professional qualification in order for the researcher to know how professionally equipped they are, to be able to guide mentees under them. Responses have been presented in Table 4.

**Table 4: Professional Qualification**

| Professional Qualification | Frequency  | Percentage   |
|----------------------------|------------|--------------|
| Cert A 4 Yr. Post Middle   | 30         | 16.7         |
| Cert A 3 Yr. Post Sec      | 80         | 44.4         |
| Diploma in Basic Education | 56         | 31.1         |
| Bachelor of Education      | 14         | 7.8          |
| <b>Total</b>               | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Table 4 shows that all the Mentors were professional teachers. That is, 16.7% hold Cert A 4yr. Post Middle Certificate, 44.4% were “A” 3 yr. Post-Secondary Certificate holders, 31.1% were Diploma in Basic Education Certificate holders.

7.8% were Bachelor of Education (B.ED Basic Education) holders. It implies that they are capable of mentoring the students. This is because a mentor should be professionally trained in order to give the needed guidance to mentees. This goes to fulfil what Clay (1962) stated that student teachers want supervision from person with proper qualifications.

### **Teaching Experience of Mentors**

Mentors were asked to indicate the number of years they have spent in teaching. Teaching experience is sometimes measured in terms of the number of years one has taught, because in the process of teaching most of the pedagogical skills will come to play. This indicates how experienced they are in their supervisory role as mentors. Their responses are organised in Table 5.

**Table 5: Number of Years of Teaching**

| Teaching Experience | Frequency  | Percentage   |
|---------------------|------------|--------------|
| 1-5 years           | 73         | 40.6         |
| 6-10 years          | 37         | 20.6         |
| 11-15 years         | 33         | 18.2         |
| 16 years and above  | 37         | 20.6         |
| <b>Total</b>        | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Results from Table 5 show that more than half of the Mentors (59.4%) have six or more years teaching experience. This implies that the Mentors have a lot of teaching experience and can be entrusted with that huge task of mentoring teacher-trainees. They can therefore help the teacher trainees to acquire the requisite skills needed for effective teaching and learning. Atta



Boison (1992) similarly reported that the experience of the teacher makes teaching and learning easier and create a good environment for academic success.

However, 40.6% of the mentors have taught for only 1-5 years. They were not experienced enough to mentor the mentees because the mentees have to under study the mentees.

**Research Question One: What is the background training of internal supervisors?**

The background training of the respondents has been presented in Table 6.

**Table 6: Duration of the Training of Mentors**

| Duration of Training | Frequency  | Percentage   |
|----------------------|------------|--------------|
| One day              | 107        | 59.4         |
| One week             | 57         | 31.7         |
| Two weeks            | 7          | 3.9          |
| Three weeks          | 9          | 5.0          |
| <b>Total</b>         | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

On the duration of training of internal supervisors, it was found that majority of the mentors representing 59.4% indicated that they had one day training session. The mentors were to be taken through types of supervision, characteristics of supervision, beliefs of supervision, theories of supervision and functions of supervision, mentoring process among others.

Anderson and Shawmon (1988) stated that the mentoring process has five essential attributes namely, the process of nurturing, the act of serving as a role model, mentoring section and caring relationship. The above assertion shows that an in-depth training is needed to be provided for Mentors to make them capable of giving adequate needed help to mentees.

It is quite clear that, one day training session was woefully inadequate if the components of supervision which the Mentors should know are taken into consideration. There is the likelihood that their mentoring activities will be adversely affected. Consequently, the teacher trainees will not be able to acquire the skills they need for effective teaching and learning.

On the content of training, the mentors were taken through information on how to prepare lesson notes, the use of distance learning materials and how to supervise, as well as Mentors relationship with teacher trainees.

**Table 7: Effectiveness of Training for Mentors**

| Effectiveness of Training | No.        | %            |
|---------------------------|------------|--------------|
| Very effective            | 4          | 2.2          |
| Effective                 | 52         | 28.9         |
| Not effective             | 124        | 68.9         |
| <b>Total</b>              | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Sixty eight point nine percent (68.9%) of the mentors indicated that the training they had was not effective. The results of the study show that training for the mentors on internal supervision of the In-In-Out programme was not effective and this could affect the performance

of the mentors when mentoring the students. Harris (1963) was of the view that instructional supervision is carried out by selecting and assigning the appropriate instructions to staff members in the organisation. This can only be achieved by effective training. Periodic in-service training is important for all sections of teachers and has to be organised as such. These Mentors are performing supervisory roles in the training of teachers so constant training in supervision cannot be over emphasized. Neagley and Evans (1970) suggested that supervisory activities should be included in in-service programmes to upgrade the knowledge of personnel for effective supervision.

In conclusion, it was an undisputed fact that the duration for the training was short and that made the training of the internal supervisors ineffective.

**Research Question Two: How effective do the supervisors play their mentoring roles?**

This research question sought to find out effective roles played by supervisors (mentors) in the “In-In-Out” programme of initial Colleges of Education in the Western Region of Ghana. The areas considered were on pre-conference and post conference meetings as well as supervisors’ participation in co-curricular activities. The responses given by mentors under this research question are presented in prose with subheadings.

**Table 8: Mentees’ Teaching, Pre-conference Meeting with Mentees and Participation in Co-curricular Activities**

| Item  | Yes   |      | No    |      |
|---|-------|------|-------|------|
|   | Freq. | %    | Freq. | %    |
| Do you have pre-conference meeting with mentees?                  | 178   | 98.9 | 2     | 1.1  |
| Do you stay in the classroom during mentee's teaching activities? | 100   | 55.6 | 80    | 44.4 |
| Do you participate in co-curricular activities with mentees       | 15    | 8.3  | 165   | 91.7 |

The mentors do pre-conference meetings with the teacher trainees before teaching. This was confirmed by 98.9% of the respondents. Pre-conference meeting is a pre-requisite for a smooth mentoring process. During this meeting, the mentors brief the teacher trainees on how they can go about their teaching. They also find out how prepared the mentees are and guide them as to the types of pedagogies to use for the lesson.

In spite of the fact that most of the mentors indicated they do have pre-conference meetings with mentees, it has been observed that some mentors only vet the lesson notes of the mentees. This actually contradicts what Tamakloe (1997) stressed regarding pre-conference meetings. He said pre-conference meeting is needed to guide mentees in their lesson notes preparation, selection of teaching and learning materials, instilling confidence

and giving pep talks on good classroom management. Also, Neagley and Evans (1970) said the primary role of supervisors is to have discussion with the mentees before going into the classroom and the discussions should focus on:

- i. Making organisational arrangement to implement the curriculum.
- ii. Selecting and assigning the appropriate instructional material for teaching and learning.
- iii. Instilling confidence into the teacher.

Again, it was observed that 55.6 % of the mentors stayed in the classroom whilst mentees taught. It is a good practice for all the mentors to stay in the classrooms as the mentees teach. Supervisors are responsible for working with mentees to increase the effectiveness of teaching and learning in the schools. When they are in the class they can guide the mentees better. This situation by all standards is in the right direction and it is buttressed by what Musaaazi (1982) stated.

On the other hand, it was found that only 44.4 percent of the mentors did not stay in the classroom during lessons delivery. Most mentors leave their classrooms for the mentees to do their own things. One of the reasons the mentors gave for not staying in their classrooms throughout the mentees' lessons was that they went to the bank for their salaries and others said they were sick. This implies that once they are not in the classroom they cannot effectively guide the mentees. The uncooperative attitude of a section of the mentors is in contradiction of what Tamakloe (1997) stated that classroom teachers should not be on holiday during teaching practice rather they should always be available to give guidance to the mentees.

Mentors are to participate in co-curricular activities to supervise the mentees. It was observed that 91.7% of the mentors did not participate in co-curricular activities. However, the remaining 8.3% of the mentors participated in co-curricular activities. The results of the study indicate that most of mentors do not participate in co-curricular activities with the mentees.

It is the responsibility of the mentors to take active part in co-curricular activities so that they can supervise the mentees during that period. Although mentees take part in co-curricular activities, they were not given any guidance; rather they were left on their own. Mentees were left to lead devotions and assemblies, supervise pupils during cleaning of the compound and more importantly supervise pupil in sporting activities. It would not be bad if mentees are left to conduct some of these activities, but the norm is, supervisors should be on hand to correct deviation that may crop up along the line (Derrick & Dicks, 2005).

The failure of the mentors to participate in co-curricular activities implies that they are not fulfilling some of the responsibility. Aseidu Akrofi (1978) stated that the supervisor's role is to work cooperatively with the mentee to create avoidable circumstances that may inhibit teaching and learning in schools. This can be done through such co-curricular activities like sports, entertainment and so on.

The mentors have important role to play in the training of mentees and any negligence on the part should not be countenanced (Gadzirayi, Muropa & Mutandwa, 1999).

It could be concluded that even though the supervisors played their roles effectively in the supervision of the mentees, their level of participation in co-curricular activities in the school was low.

**Research Question Three: What problems do supervisors (Mentors) face during supervision of mentees?**

The research sought to find out what problems supervisors (Mentors) face during the supervisory process. This section of the study looked at allowance for supervisors and teaching and learning materials.

All the respondents responded that they are not given any allowance for supervising the trainees either in cash or any other form. The non-payment of allowance to the supervisors means that they are not motivated in any way and as a result the college authorities should not expect to get the full cooperation of mentors. According to Asamoah (2001) motivation enables the teacher to secure the attention and participation of his class in his lessons; it maintains discipline and enhances responsibility. He made this assertion with regard to the classroom teacher and his or her pupils but it is still valid in this instance because internal supervisors are supposed to play an important role in the programme of training teachers but they do not receive any form of remuneration. These states of affairs explain the non-participation of mentors in co-curricular activities of their respective schools leaving mentees to their fate.

Table 9 shows the responses on the teaching/learning materials mentors and mentees use during teaching.

**Table 9: Teaching/Learning Materials Mentors and Mentees Use during Teaching**

| Teaching Materials   | Mentors    |              | Mentees    |              |
|----------------------|------------|--------------|------------|--------------|
|                      | Frequency  | Percentage   | Frequency  | Percentage   |
| Textbooks            | 64         | 35.6         | 91         | 30.3         |
| Pictures             | 103        | 57.2         | 198        | 66.0         |
| Improvised Materials | 15         | 8.3          | 11         | 3.7          |
| <b>Total</b>         | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> | <b>300</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

Table 9 shows that 57.2% of the mentors and 66.0% of the mentees used only pictures to teach the pupils. Also 35.6 % of the mentors and 30.3% of the mentees respectively used text books to teach the pupils. This implies that pictures and textbooks were the teaching learning materials that were available in the schools of attachment. These responses show that there is a problem regarding the use of teaching and learning materials in the school system. Indeed it is a problem and it is not insurmountable because most of the teaching/learning materials could be made by teachers but they claimed they are not motivated and unmotivated teachers are not expected to sacrifice especially where it has to deal with money.

A Chinese maxim states “I hear and I forget, I see and I remember and I do and I understand”. All that this maxim means is that when pupils are taught with audio-visual aids the understanding is great. Teaching and learning



materials are always needed in delivering lessons in the classrooms and their availability is very crucial more especially during training sessions (Gadzirayi, Muropa & Mutandwa, 1999).

The mentees' responses on how often the mentees use teaching and learning materials have been presented in Table 10.

**Table 10: How often do you use Teaching and Learning Materials?**

| Item         | Frequency  | Percentage   |
|--------------|------------|--------------|
| Most often   | 83         | 27.7         |
| Always       | 118        | 39.3         |
| Often        | 99         | 33.0         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>300</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

The benefits that are derived from teaching/learning materials (TLMs) are enormous in teaching and learning process. Therefore, mentees who are still under training cannot teach without using them. Table 10 shows that they always used TMLs during lessons in the classroom. The responses of mentees is supported by what Asamoah (2001) suggested regarding the use of TLMs. He outlined that TLMs are useful because they help pupils to participate fully in lessons; they equip the mentees for the job and that pupils become interested in the subject being taught.

During the observation it was found that mentees used TLMs when they realised that an external supervisor was coming to the school to supervise them. They did not use the TLMs as often as they claimed. The reason they

gave was that there was lack of funds to procure the teaching and learning materials even though some can be obtained locally or freely.

There are other problems which mentors face in the course of supervising mentees work. These problems are mainly caused by the mentees. Table 11 shows the mentors' responses on the problems they faced when supervising mentees' teaching.

**Table 11: Problems Mentors Faced in the Course of Supervising Mentees Work**

| Problems mentors Face   | Frequency  | Percent      |
|---|------------|--------------|
| Mentees' unwillingness to avail themselves for supervision    | 44         | 24.4         |
| Mentee's failure to prepare lesson plans                      | 28         | 15.6         |
| Mentee's absenting themselves from classes without permission | 24         | 13.3         |
| Mentees' unwillingness to accept constructive criticism       | 84         | 46.7         |
| <b>Total</b>  | <b>180</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

From Table 11, it was evident that 46.7% of the mentees are unwilling to accept constructive criticism. Also, 24.4% of the mentors made mention of the unwillingness of the mentees to avail themselves for supervision and 15.6% also reported of failure for the mentees to prepare their lesson plans. These attitudes of the mentees are in contradiction to the educational ethics of the teaching profession. Educational authorities should lay much emphasis on

these professional ethics during the orientation organised for mentees before leaving for their schools of attachment.

Another challenge the researcher unearthed during the observation was that majority of the mentors did not have in-depth knowledge of subjects like Religious and Moral Education, Physical Education, Music and Dance. This may be so because either they were not part of the curriculum when the mentors were in Training Colleges or the topics they learnt in these subjects differed from that of mentees. This situation made mentees not having any proper mentorship in these subjects. It is evident from the responses that supervisors were not given any incentive and also they lacked the technique in supervision. This made them not to give their best in the mentoring process.

From the result of the study, it could be concluded that the major problems confronting supervisors during supervision of mentees were inadequate materials, unwillingness of mentees to accept constructive criticisms and unwillingness to avail themselves for supervision.

**Research Question Four: What problems do mentees face in so far as internal supervision is concerned?**

This research question was focussed on accommodation for mentees, availability of teaching/learning materials, and preparation of project work and mentees' relationship with mentors among others.

Tables 12 presents the mentees' responses on the type of accommodation offered to them during the In-In-Out programme.

**Table 12: Type of Accommodation**

| Type           | Frequency  | Percentage (%) |
|----------------|------------|----------------|
| Compound       | 92         | 30.7%          |
| Self-contained | 95         | 31.7%          |
| Flat           | 113        | 37.7%          |
| <b>Total</b>   | <b>300</b> | <b>100.0%</b>  |

From Table 12, 113 mentees representing 37.7% lived in flats, 95 mentees representing 31.7% lived in self-contained houses and 92 mentees representing 30.7% lived in compound houses. Some of the problems associated with compound houses are the sharing of amenities like place of convenience and bath houses. There was the problem of overcrowding in some places. At some places, some mentees had no beds and mattresses and had to sleep on the floor at night. Reasons mentees gave for this state of affair was that, they had to share few rooms available because they were secured by college authorities with the help of School Management Committees (SMC). This picture painted above confirms what was stated in the Ghana National Association of Teachers (2003) that providing free accommodation for the mentees could not be sustained because community members could not give up their accommodation for ever to new mentees who go out yearly.

Table 13 presents the mentees' responses on the payment for accommodation and utilities.

**Table 13: Payment of Accommodation and Utilities**

| Item                          | Yes   |      | No    |      |
|-------------------------------|-------|------|-------|------|
|                               | Freq. | %    | Freq. | %    |
| Do you pay for accommodation? | 8     | 2.7  | 292   | 97.3 |
| Do you pay for utilities?     | 289   | 96.3 | 11    | 3.7  |

Majority of the mentees representing 97.3% said they did not pay for accommodation. Only 8 mentees out of 300 responded that they have been paying for accommodation because they opted to rent their own rooms on health ground. However, the students paid for utilities. This was confirmed by 96.3% of the students. The landlords agreed to give the accommodation free of charge but the bills of the utilities would be borne by the mentees.

Also the mentees face a lot of problems when working on their projects. Mentees are still students and as such are required to present a project work as part of the requirement for the award of Diploma in Basic Education Certificate so even as they are doing the mentorship programme they should be writing their respective project work. Of particular concern was the issue of meeting their supervisors to discuss their project work with them. The mentees could not have the opportunity to meet their supervisors as often as they could. Some students could not get in touch with their supervisors due to transportation problem and their inability to keep to agreed appointments. This made some of them to travel on several occasions to the college to consult their

supervisors making their project work difficult. This actually affected supervision of instruction because some of the mentees were not easily available for mentors to prepare them for their lessons. Ghana National Association of Teachers (2003) highlighted this problem.

The mentees views on whether they enjoy cooperation with their mentors during the In-In-Out or not have been presented in Table 14.

**Table 14: You do not Enjoy the Cooperation of Your Mentor**

| Response          | Frequency  | Percentage   |
|-------------------|------------|--------------|
| Strongly Agree    | 31         | 10.3         |
| Agree             | 62         | 20.7         |
| Disagree          | 63         | 21.0         |
| Strongly Disagree | 144        | 48.0         |
| <b>Total</b>      | <b>300</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

On cooperation of mentors with their mentees, Table 14 indicated that majority of the mentees (48.0%) strongly disagreed to the statement that they do not enjoy the cooperation of their mentors. This means that there is cooperation between the mentors and mentees. This confirms the good interpersonal relationship mentees enjoy from mentors as was observed on the field. This result also confirms the view of Asiedu-Akrofi (1978) that the supervisors' role is to work cooperatively with the teachers to create favourable circumstances for learning in schools.

There were other problems mentees encountered during the practice teaching. The first and notable of them was the issue of financial difficulties.

The problem came up during the issues of TLMs and accommodation. Mentees are students who are taken care of by their parents and guardians even though they receive allowance from the government, they would nonetheless claim that is inadequate. Another problem was inadequate support from the communities where they practised. They pointed out that there was problem with water and lack of places of convenience which made life a bit unbearable.

One other problem which confronted mentees and mentors was lack of in-depth knowledge in some subjects like Religious and Moral Education, Physical Education and Music and Dance. Some mentees have not chosen these subjects as their electives. Apart from Holy Child College of Education, where it was observed that 14 mentees chose Physical Education as their elective subject, the rest lacked the needed competence in the aforementioned subjects. Because the mentors had similar problems, pupils could not receive the appropriate guidance in these subject areas.

Furthermore, mentees said they did not have adequate security. Some of them lose their personal belongings to miscreants in the communities they resided and practised. A critical example of insecurity happened to some mentees from Holy Child College of Education in 2010 at Ankyeryin Catholic Junior High School and Shama Catholic Primary School respectively; where items such as gas cylinders and cookers, cooking utensils and shoes were stolen whilst they were in school. This could be easily explained as a social menace which can happen to anyone anywhere.

Finally, 70% of the mentees complained of overcrowded classes. Most of the classes have large class sizes contrary to the class norms by Ghana Education Service. They explained that it made teaching and learning not too effective.

In conclusion, it was found that the major problems confronting mentees in the implementation of the In-In-Out programme were inadequate decent accommodation and lack of cooperation between the mentees and their mentors.

**Research Question Five: In what ways could the problems be solved?**

This research questions sought to find out what ways the problems of mentees and mentors could be solved. The areas considered were accommodation and teaching/learning materials for mentees and in-service training for mentors and other solutions respondents felt were applicable.

The biggest problem facing mentees is accommodation. All the 300 mentees craved for more decent accommodation, which they considered if it was provided, could go a long way to make their stay in the place of attachment less burdensome. Mentees have to rent their own accommodation. However, no allowances are given for this purpose. This suggested solution by mentees is validated by what the Ghana National Association of Teachers (2003) stated “to help sustain the programme the issue of free accommodation for the mentees has to be re-considered.

The mentees responses on who should provide teaching and learning materials have been presented in Table 15.



**Table 15: Who Should Provide Teaching and Learning Materials?**

| Response               | Frequency  | Percentage   |
|------------------------|------------|--------------|
| Government             | 189        | 63.0         |
| Mentees                | 23         | 7.7          |
| Mentors                | 30         | 10.0         |
| Government and Mentees | 58         | 19.3         |
| <b>Total</b>           | <b>300</b> | <b>100.0</b> |

From Table 15, 63% of mentees were of the view that government should be responsible for the provision of the teaching and learning materials because students are not specifically given any allowance for that and it becomes a burden for them. According to Elliot (2002) teaching and learning materials should be provided by the government, nevertheless, she suggested that teachers should be ready to improvise TLMs to enhance the teaching and learning process.

The idea of improvisation of TLMs is in the consonance with views of 7.7% of mentees who felt they should be responsible for providing these materials. They maintained education is a shared responsibility and if one wants to be perfect in teaching that individual should do all that he/she can to save the situation.

Table 15 further shows that 19.3% of the mentees held the view that the provision of teaching and learning materials should be done by both government and mentees. The government can do this by increasing

allowances of teacher-trainees so that they can use part of their allowance to provide the TLMs.

Lastly, 10% of the mentees held the view that the provision of teaching and learning materials should be provided by mentors. They suggested that part of the capitation grant should be used to procure the TLMs so that effective teaching and learning can go on.

Mentors were asked to indicate the extent to which in-service training was beneficial to them in carrying out the role assigned to them in respect of mentoring teacher-trainees. Their responses confirm that teachers (mentors) need in-service training because of the following reasons:

- i. Teachers have an opportunity to share ideas with others.
- ii. It enables teachers to learn new things from the supervisors and other related topics to teaching and learning (O' Sullivan, 2001).

Besides the point made by O' Sullivan (2001), in-service training helps teachers learn new trends in teaching techniques because the world is changing rapidly, especially with the introduction of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Some schools use only ICT in teaching and learning and it is prudent for teachers who are going to be mentors to teacher-trainees to be abreast with the changing world of things (UNESCO, 2001).

The mentors also suggested that incentives should be given in the form of money for transportation and allowance for making TLMs. When they are given incentives, it would motivate them to work assiduously for the success of the out programme. This will help train more teachers for the country.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This chapter presents the summary of the findings of the study, conclusions drawn from the findings, recommendations for progress and suggestion for further research.

The study was conducted in the three Colleges of Education namely, Holy Child College of Education, Wiawso College of Education and Enchi College of Education in the Western Region of Ghana. The study was a descriptive survey which was targeted at finding out the effectiveness of internal supervision of the “In-In-Out ” programme in the Colleges of Education in the Western Region.

The following research questions were formulated to guide and direct investigation of the problem.

1. What training do supervisors acquire for the purpose of mentoring?
2. How effective do the supervisors play their mentoring roles?
3. What problems do supervisors (Mentors) face during supervision?
4. What problems do mentees face so far as supervision is concerned?
5. In what ways could the problems be solved?

The teacher trainees and mentors were selected from three Colleges of Education in the Western Region of Ghana and constituted the population for the study. The sample for the study consisted of 300 Mentees from the three

Colleges of Education, 180 Mentors from the mentees' schools of attachment. Data was gathered through the use of questionnaires and unstructured observation which were used to elicit responses from the respondents. The questionnaire was pre-test at Komenda College of Education in the Central Region of Ghana with a sample of 60 respondents. This helped to test for the reliability and validity of the instrument.

Data was analysed using descriptive statistical tools such as simple frequency and percentages whenever applicable with tables provided to illustrate and support the result. Items common to the various categories of respondents were put together and analysed jointly.

### **Summary of Key Findings**

This section of chapter five presents the key findings of the study. It was evident that the mentors did not have enough training on preparation of lesson notes, the use of distance learning materials and others issues on the “In-In-Out” programme to equip them with the relevant skills for effective supervision. They had pre-conference meeting with mentees, stayed in the classroom during mentee's teaching activities and participated in co-curricular activities with mentees.

Both the mentors and mentees always used teaching and teaching materials in teaching. They did not often use improvise materials to teach. Teaching and learning materials they always used to teach were textbooks and pictures.

The mentors faced some problems in the course of supervising mentees teaching. One of such problems was unwillingness of mentees to avail themselves for supervision. The mentees failed to prepare their lesson plans and also frequently absented themselves from classes without permission. Besides, mentees were unwilling to accept constructive criticism. Furthermore, the mentors were not given incentives for mentoring the teacher trainees and this demotivated them.

There was inadequate accommodation and teaching and learning materials for the mentees. They were left to find their own teaching and learning materials which normally they did not do unless they were being graded for marks. Other problems mentees faced were financial, inadequate support from community and inadequate supply of water. Another equally teething problem of mentees was the writing of their project work. Travelling to and from the schools of attachment to meet project supervisors for the needed attention and direction was not easy because they most often did not meet their supervisors.

Concerning the issues of inadequate decent accommodations, mentees suggested that government should increase their allowances so that they could use part of the allowances to rent decent rooms. The mentors also suggested the need for periodic in-service training for them. Other solutions were that incentives should be given to mentors in the form of transportation and allowances. Measures should be put in place to ensure that greater monitoring of the work of mentors is done for effective supervision.

## **Conclusions**

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn. The content of training given to supervisors was shallow. It did not equip them enough for their role as supervisors and this adversely affected the supervision of mentees in the teaching and learning process. Thus, for effective supervision of the “In-In-Out ” programme, there is the need for proper training of mentors to ensure effective teaching and learning.

There was inadequate teaching and learning materials for effective teaching and learning. Consequently the mentors and mentees could not use a variety of teaching and learning materials for their lessons. Without adequate teaching and learning materials, teaching and learning becomes ineffective and teacher-trainees will not get the full benefit of the mentorship programme.

## **Recommendations**

It is recommended that various remedial measures should be put in place by those concerned with the teacher education to ensure effective supervisions of the In-In-Out programme. The following recommendations were made:

1. The Teacher Education Division should employ people with expert knowledge in supervision of instructions of schools to conduct the in-service training for mentors before the “Out” programme. This will ensure effective supervision of the teacher trainees.

2. The Principals in the Colleges of Education should increase the period for training for the mentors so that they would acquire all the necessary skills for effective supervision.
3. To enhance responsibility and willingness on the part of mentors to give the necessary assistance to mentees, there is the need for the government through the teacher education and other stakeholders in education to give them some motivation in the form of allowances.
4. The government should increase the students' allowances so that they can use part of their allowances to rent decent accommodation. Also Religious Bodies and Non-governmental Organisations should help to provide decent accommodation in the various communities for the students on attachment so that they can feel comfortable and prepare adequately for the programme.
5. Teacher trainees should use part of their allowances to procure more teaching and learning materials for teaching and learning in the schools to supplement that of the headteachers.
6. The government, District Assembly and opinion leaders in the various communities where teacher trainees are attached should give allowances to mentors to motivate them to supervise mentees teaching.

### **Suggestion for Further Research**

It is suggested that a research should be conducted into how the community and other stakeholders in education can help to improve the “In-In-Out” programme.

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7. How often do you make use of teaching and learning materials?
- a) Most often [ ]
  - b) Always [ ]
  - c) Often [ ]
  - d) Not at all [ ]
8. Who supplies the materials for the preparation of the teaching and learning materials?
- a) The College [ ]
  - b) Headteacher of the school [ ]
  - c) S M C of the school [ ]
  - d) Mentees themselves [ ]
9. You do not enjoy the co-operation of your mentor.
- a) Strongly [ ]
  - b) Agree [ ]
  - c) Disagree [ ]
  - d) Strongly disagree [ ]
10. Which of the following problems do you encounter? (Tick as many as possible)
- a) Unfavourable school climate [ ]
  - b) Pupils attitudes towards learning [ ]
  - c) Insufficient Curriculum materials [ ]

**Section B**

**Views of respondents on how the problems they face can be solved**

11. Who should provide teaching and learning materials?

a) Government [ ]

b) Mentees [ ]

c) Lead Mentors [ ]

d) Government and Mentees [ ]

12. State the ways you think the problems you face can be solved.

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5. Years of teaching experience
- a) 1-5 years [ ]
- b) 6-10 years [ ]
- c) 11-15 years [ ]
- d) 16 years and above [ ]

### **Section B**

#### **Background Training of Mentors**

6. Were you given any training?
- Yes [ ] No [ ]
7. If yes, what was the duration of the training?
- a) One week [ ]
- b) Two weeks [ ]
- c) Three weeks [ ]
- d) Any other (Please specify) .....
8. Which of the following form the content of the training?
- (Tick as many)
- a) Information on how to prepare lesson notes [ ]
- b) The use of distance learning materials [ ]
- c) How to supervise [ ]
- d) Mentors relationship with mentees [ ]
- e) Issues on the In-In-Out Programme [ ]



9 State the ways you think the problems you face can be solved.

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**Section D**

**Role mentors play in the mentoring process**

13. Do you have pre-conference meetings with mentees?

Yes [ ]                      No [ ]

14. Do you stay in the classroom during mentee's teaching activities?

Yes [ ]                      No [ ]

15. Do you have a post-conference meeting?

Yes [ ]                      No [ ]

16. Do you participate in co-curricular activities with mentees?

Yes [ ]                      No [ ]