UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

TEACHING STYLES AND MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE CAPE COAST METROPOLIS

EMILYN OFOSU-AMAAH

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UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

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BY

EMILYN OFOSU-AMAAH

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

SEPTEMBER 2014
DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

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

Candidate’s Signature…………………………… Date……………………………

Name: Emilyn Ofosu-Amaah

Supervisors’ Declaration

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

Principal Supervisor’s Signature…………………. Date……………………………

Name: Prof. Koawo Edjah

Co-supervisor’s Signature………………………… Date……………………………

Dr. Stephen Baafi-Frimpong
ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to investigate the teaching styles and motivational strategies of public primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The descriptive survey design was deemed the most appropriate research design to use in conducting the study. A sample size of 342 made up of 255 trained teachers and 87 pupils were captured for the study. The table of random numbers was used first to select 63 public primary schools within the Cape Coast Metropolis.

An interview schedule for pupils and research questionnaire for trained teachers were the data collection instruments used. The data that was collected was first grouped and coded using numerical values (coded manual) for the data view of the Test Analytics for Surveys (TAFS), a tool of Predictive Analytic Software (PASW) Version 18.0.

Majority of the respondents indicated that the colleagues of the trained teachers and their pupils often compliment the trained teachers on their good manners. The respondents again admitted that trained teachers use caring voice to ask pupils to maintain good behaviour. It was concluded that the various teaching styles and motivational strategies used by trained teachers in the various public primary schools within the metropolis do not influence or predict pupils’ academic performance directly. It was recommended that teachers use caring voice when teaching in order to make learning interesting for pupils. It was also recommended that trained teachers ensure they engage pupils more during the teaching process (learner-centred).
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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DEDICATION

To my guardian, Mrs. Alice Baisie.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

The term teaching style has no agreed definition but the more widely accepted definitions refer to it as a set of teaching tactics (Galton, Simon & Croll, 1980) or instructional format (Siedentop, 1991). A style of teaching, as defined by Mosston (1996) is basically a set of decisions made in conjunction with the teaching act. Similarly, Grasha and Riechmann (1996) also perceive teaching style as a manner or mode of acting or performing. Clearly, there are a variety of “modes of performing” associated with the styles of teaching (Adey, Fairbrother, William, Johnson & Jones, 1999).

According to Heimlich (1990), excellent teachers use their voices, gestures and movements to elicit and maintain attention and to stimulate pupil’s emotions. Like other performers, teachers must convey a strong sense of presence of highly focused energy (Lowman, 1994). Lowman is of the view that teaching styles are distinct from methods of instruction such as lecturing or cooperative learning. He thinks a teaching style is supposed to define the behaviours that teachers exhibit as they interact with pupils. Like pupils and learning styles, teachers may exhibit a teaching style preference while being able to teach in a
number of different styles. Teachers tend to teach to their preferred learning style (Bennett, 1995).

Evans (2004) asserts that teachers serve as motivators in order to get and keep pupils actively participating in the learning process. He further postulated that this phenomenon can be seen as a daunting task on the part of teachers. Good teachers have numerous motivational strategies in their “bag of tricks”. Vernon (2006) shows that young pupils do actually learn better, when motivated with games, music and the use of sounds. According to Vernon, it is always important to motivate pupils with regard to class activities. Pupils are happier to participate in classroom activities when given the option to participate in activities that incorporate play and physical movements (Arthurs, 2007).

According to Asher (as cited in Arthurs, 2007), the theory of activity-based learning or total physical response helps pupils to stimulate neural networks and activates mental capacities. These concepts, according to Arthurs are not activated when sitting at a desk. In other words, pupils are more likely to be curious when presented with music, games and total physical response activities and therefore are more likely to learn and retain knowledge (Hou, 2007). Hou further posits that using games, play, movement, song and other things that pupils enjoy will contribute to the development of positive experiences on the part of pupils. The environment of play and games is a relaxed one and that allows pupils to learn without the stress or fear of possible failure (Nielson, 2007).

Apart from the teaching styles used by teachers in the classroom, motivational strategies, according to Ainlei (2008), are also some of the factors
that are associated with high educational achievement. With regards to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, Ainlei was of the view that pupils are intrinsically motivated if they attribute their educational results to factors under their own control. In addition, Ainlei commented that if pupils believe they can be effective agents in reaching desired goals or are interested in mastering a topic, rather than just rote-learning to achieve good grades, they can be intrinsically motivated. Extrinsic motivation comes from outside of the individual. Common extrinsic motivations are rewards like money and grades, coercion and threat of punishment (Ofoegbu, 2008).

Teachers motivate their pupils by having low conflict, a high degree of closeness and support, little dependency, to support pupils’ adjustment to school, contribute to their social skills, promote academic performance, and foster pupils’ resiliency in academic performance (Battistich, Schaps, & Wilson, 2004). Pupils, who experience close relationships with teachers reported that they were less likely to avoid school, appeared more self-directed, more cooperative, and more engaged in learning (Klem & Connell, 2004). Klem and Connell further posit that this scenario is normally experienced among female teachers in the primary level of education. According to Battistich et al. (2004), in most countries, teachers at the primary level of education are usually female.

Pupils tend to like school more and experience less loneliness if they have a close relationship with their teachers or if teachers adapt appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies (Berry & O’Connor, 2009). Pupils with better teacher-pupil relationships also showed better performance on measures of
academic performance and school readiness (Birch & Ladd, 2009). Teachers who use more learner-centred practices produced greater motivation in their pupils than those who used fewer of such practices (Daniels & Perry, 2009). Daniels and Perry further postulated that the quality of early teacher-pupil relationships has a long-lasting impact on pupils.

However, pupils who have more conflict with their teachers or showed more dependency toward their teachers also had lower academic achievement and more behavioural problems such as poorer work habits and more discipline problems (Berry & O’Connor, 2009). Most of these challenges are narrowed or eliminated when teachers use appropriate teaching styles or motivational strategies in the classroom (Sharra, 2010). Berry and O’Connor further comment that pupils with more closeness and less conflict with teachers develop better social skills as they approach the middle school years than those with more conflicting relationships in kindergarten (Sulaiman, 2011).

From the discussion above, it is clear, as postulated by Elsevier (2012), that the nature of education provided anywhere is greatly influenced by teaching styles and motivational strategies adopted by teachers. Saani (2012) added that with appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies adopted by teachers, will have corresponding improvement in the academic performances of pupils and that of the classroom as well. It is for this reason that the researcher sought to find out the teaching styles and motivational strategies adopted by trained teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis to teach public primary school pupils.
Statement of the Problem

The adoption of appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies by primary school teachers have obvious benefits to the school, pupils, the teachers themselves and a country’s educational system as a whole. In spite of these benefits however, their implementation has often caused much confusion in most primary schools, especially those in third world countries such as Ghana (Klem & Connell, 2004). The confusion, according to Berry and O’Connor (2009), is usually as a result of the non-professional nature of teachers, teachers lack of commitment and their inability to apply certain psychological concepts learnt during their training. These challenges are associated with poor academic performance of pupils and fallen academic standards of education in the country. (Sharra, 2010).

Many interventions and restructuring of teaching and learning have been done in most primary schools in the country either by the Ghana Education Service (GES) or the schools themselves, yet only a few can be recorded from these interventions (Saani, 2012). A researcher such as Elsevier (2012) blamed government and teachers for the falling standards of education in most countries. He further noted that pupils’ distraction in the classroom is also a major cause of poor academic performance in the classroom. Elsevier (2012), explained that education means training for life but we find a constant fall in the standards of education which can be equally attributed to the government, teachers, parents and pupils.
These challenges with regard to pupils poor academic performance and the fallen standards of education identified by researchers such as Saani (2012) and Elsevier (2012) necessitated looking into the influence teaching styles and motivational strategies have on pupils academic performance, focusing on the views of teachers and pupils in the Cape Coast Metropolis. That is, teaching styles and motivational strategies adopted by the primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to investigate the teaching styles and motivational strategies of primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Explore teaching styles of primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis.
2. Examine motivational strategies of primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis.
3. Investigate the challenges confronting primary school teachers in teaching and motivating their pupils in the classroom.
4. Determine the association between teachers’ teaching styles and pupils’ academic performance.
5. Determine the association between teachers’ motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance.
**Research Questions**

The following research questions have been formulated to guide the study.

1. Which teaching styles are used by primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis?
2. Which motivational strategies are applied in the classroom by primary school teachers?
3. What are the challenges confronting primary school teachers in teaching and motivating their pupils in the classroom?

**Research Hypotheses**

Hypothesis One

H₀: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ teaching styles and pupils’ academic performance.

H₁: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ teaching styles and pupils’ academic performance.

Hypothesis Two

H₀: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance.

H₁: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance.

Hypothesis Three

H₀: Teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies do not influence pupils’ academic performance.
H₁: Teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies influence pupils’ academic performance.

**Significance of the Study**

The study will be useful to educationists, curriculum planners, researchers, teachers, teacher trainees and resource persons in the field of teaching. To the educationists, the outcome of the study will provide an insight about the teaching styles and motivational strategies used by primary school teachers and suggest appropriate changes where necessary. To the curriculum planners, the study will reveal the strengths and lapses in the teaching styles and motivational strategies in teaching at the primary school levels in order for them to effect changes if possible.

To teachers, the study will inform them on the different teaching styles and the appropriate time to be applied at the primary school. The study again will throw more light on motivational strategies and its psychological significance to pupils at the primary school. To teacher trainees, the outcome of the study will cite examples of teaching styles and motivational strategies and the appropriate time to be applied. To resource persons in the field of teaching, the study will highlight on the significance of appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies to use at a particular public primary school. Finally, to researchers, it is hoped that the findings of this study will encourage them to unravel the problems as well as measures to curb the fallen standards of education and improve the performance of pupils in class.
**Delimitation of the Study**

A single study cannot cover an entire spectrum of a problem, such as teaching styles and motivational strategies used by teachers. Hence it is prudent to concentrate on an aspect of the problem. This is why the teaching styles and motivational strategies of primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis were chosen.

The study was further delimited to the views of teachers in Cape Coast while that of pupils was used basically for triangulation purposes. These issues were considered by the researcher as some of the challenges that hinder pupils’ academic performance and contribute to the fallen standards of education in the study area that need to be addressed immediately.

**Limitations of the Study**

One limitation that the researcher encountered was the unwillingness of some schools to release vital records for the exercise. Some teachers and pupils were reluctant to release information for fear of victimization.

Again, the scattered nature of schools in the study area affected easy movement and therefore made movement to the selected schools very difficult for the researcher. This negative consequence delayed the data collection process. Other limitations were lack of finance, inadequacy of time, bureaucratic rules to be followed when conducting research in certain schools and the level of cooperation of the respondents.
Operational Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following are defined operationally:

**Teaching styles**: refer to the unique manner in which an individual teacher imparts knowledge or interacts with pupils during teaching and learning process.

**Motivational strategies**: refer to the several ways that teachers actively engage pupils’ attention and sustaining it during the teaching learning period.

Organisation of the Rest of the Study

The rest of the study is put into four chapters. The second chapter gives the various authorities the researcher might have consulted by reviewing the literature to cover the various components of the study and also locates existing studies incorporating the teaching styles and motivational strategies of primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. Some of the sub topics the study covered were significance of primary school teaching, teaching style, teaching styles and strategies, pupil-and teacher-centred approaches, thematic-and topic-based approaches, effective teaching strategies, teaching styles and cognitive styles, teaching styles and inventories, teaching strategies and learning style in school, teacher’s motivating styles, intrinsic and extrinsic goal motivation and the challenges confronting teachers in teaching and motivating pupils. The chapter also covers empirical studies on teaching style and pupil learning, pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles and the conceptual framework of the study.

Chapter three dealt with the methodology of the study. Areas discussed are the research design, population, sample and sampling procedure, instruments, pilot testing of instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis. Chapter
four dealt with the analyses and discussion of the results of the study to see the relationships and differences that exist among the variables used in the research activity. The fifth chapter is the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter is devoted to a review of the literature pertinent to the research. Its aim is to enable the researcher have a better understanding of the topic and identify where gaps exist. It will also help the researcher to build knowledge and identify relevant research methodologies. Again, it helps to refine the research questions by articulating the knowledge gap and also ensuring that the study did not replicate existing knowledge or reproduce technical errors. It is beyond the remit of this study to provide a detailed review of related concepts on the teaching styles and motivational strategies of primary school teachers. Instead, the focus is on the interaction of the concept and themes as they relate to research and theory. That is, it is a review of a few very pertinent and appropriate concepts that serve as the theoretical and conceptual framework of the study.

Theoretically, some of the sub topics the review focused on were significance of primary school teaching, teaching styles, teaching styles and strategies, pupil-and teacher-centred approaches, thematic-and topic-based approaches, effective teaching strategies, teaching styles and cognitive styles, teaching styles and inventories, teaching strategies and learning styles in school, teacher’s motivating styles, intrinsic and extrinsic goal motivation and the challenges confronting teachers in teaching and motivating pupils. Some related
empirical studies such as teaching style and pupil learning, pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles was also reviewed in order to understand the current concept under study much better. This helped the researcher gain knowledge by means of direct and indirect observation or experience from previous studies. The last part of the review section focused on the conceptual framework of the study. The study developed this concept based on the theoretical and empirical review of the study.

**Significance of Primary School Teaching**

Primary school or an elementary school is an institution where children receive the first stage of compulsory education known as elementary or primary education (UNICEF, 2000). Elementary school is the preferred term in some countries, particularly those in North America, where the terms grade school and grammar school are also used. Primary school is the preferred term in the United Kingdom, India, Ireland, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Australia, Latin America, Nepal, South Africa, New Zealand, Malaysia and in most publications of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) where Ghana is inclusive. It is the first stage of compulsory education. It is preceded by pre-school or nursery education and is followed by secondary education.

As a teacher for the primary school, apart from the normal teaching, you will also prepare lesson notes and teaching materials, mark and assess children’s work, put up displays in the classroom, and work with other professionals, such as educational psychologists and social workers. The teacher is also expected to discuss children’s progress and other relevant issues with parents, attend meetings
and in-service training programs as well as social activities and sporting events (Next Step, 2010).

The major goals of primary education are achieving basic literacy and numeracy amongst all pupils, as well as establishing foundations in science, mathematics, geography, history and other social sciences (Sharra, 2010). According to Sulaiman (2011), the goal of education is to enable children learn and realise their full potential as well as participate meaningfully in the society. The Convention on the Rights of the Child recognises the right of every child to education and requires states to provide free and compulsory basic education, for all children. Primary education underpins the success of a society. Every year of primary education increases a person’s productivity and reduces their dependence on social resources (Bennett, 1995).

**Teaching Styles**

Teaching style may be defined more precisely as “a teacher’s personal behaviours and media used to transmit data to or receive it from the learner” (Kaplan & Kies, 1995, p. 29). According to Tomlinson (2005), for a country to improve its educational system, it must move from pedagogy of poverty to pedagogy of plenty. Tomlinson further posits that the modern society must focus on this in order to cater for the increasing diversity of pupils’ learning needs. In addition, effective teachers must use a variety of teaching styles (Kulinna & Cothran, 2003). Researchers have attempted to isolate variables that determine teachers’ preferred teaching styles, but to date little is known about teachers’ use
and perception of various teaching styles (Conti, 2004), or the stability of such teaching styles (Evans, 2004).

Teaching styles focus on teachers and their distinct approach to teaching. As Brookfield (1990) stressed, teaching style can be the expression of how teachers gain a better understanding or how best to implement their vision of teaching while responding to the contextual aspects of teaching. Through an awareness of their preferred teaching style, teachers may gain a better understanding of themselves and how their teaching style can be changed, modified, or supported to improve their interactions with pupils (Kulinna, Cothran & Zhu, 2000).

Differences in teaching styles may also impact on areas such as classroom arrangements, the organisation and assessment of activities, teacher interactions with pupils and pedagogical approaches, such as the use of questioning (Evans, 2004). Teachers play a critical role in the teaching learning process. Teachers’ classroom behaviours impact on many different areas of this process, such as teacher preparation, classroom presentation, learning activities and approaches to the assessment of learning (Masse & Popovich, 2006).

The term “teaching style” refers to “a teacher’s personal behaviours and media used to transmit data to or receive it from the learner” (Kaplan & Kies, 1995, p. 29) and involves the implementation of the teacher’s philosophy about teaching (Conti, 2004). Heimlich (2005) indicated that the underpinnings of teachers’ teaching philosophies may be their values, beliefs, attitudes, aspirations,
personal biographies, social identities, cultural background and teaching experiences.

Researchers have also identified other areas that influence teachers’ teaching styles, such as the nature of the subject area (Evans, 2004); the impact of government curriculum initiatives (Hargreaves, 2003); pre-service teacher preparation and schooling socialisation (Britzman, 2003; Evans, 2004); job satisfaction (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006); as well as socio-cultural backgrounds and attitudes (Villegas & Lucas, 2002).

Other researchers have also examined the relationship between teaching style and pupils’ achievement of learning outcomes (Adey, Fairbrother, William, Johnson & Jones, 1999; Zinn, 2004). Within this area, research has painted a far from clear picture with recent studies suggesting that although pupils may prefer to be taught in their own favoured style, they are open to teaching styles that are completely different from their own preferred learning styles (Zhang & Sternberg, 2004). Although some research indicates that teaching styles are important with respect to pupils’ outcomes, Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006) questioned the degree to which effective classroom practices are dependent on teaching characteristics and styles.

Researchers have identified different teaching behaviours, which have demonstrated that teachers do have a preferred or dominant teaching style (Cothran, Kulinna & Garrahy, 2003). However, researchers who have investigated teaching styles have tended to work independently and have developed their own set of indicators for identifying different teaching styles. This
has led to a variety of definitions of teaching style and to the development of a number of different dimensions for measuring teaching styles (Grasha, 2003).

The nature and scope of teaching styles have been characterised by identifiable descriptors such as proactive or reactive behaviour (Lenz, 1982); highly content centred or highly pupil centred teaching (Robinson, 1979); teacher-centred to learner-centred (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006); or guided learning, exposition, or inquiry approaches (May Oi & Stimpson, 1994). Jarvis (1985) used three classifications to identify teaching styles: (a) a didactic style which was teacher-controlled through lectures and pupils’ note taking; (b) a Socratic style which was teacher directed through the use of questions to which the pupils responded; and (c) a facilitative style in which the teacher prepared the learning environment and the pupils were responsible for their own learning.

More recently, studies have also focused on teacher beliefs as either facilitative, a belief that all pupils can learn, or path gnomonic, the learner is blamed for his ‘illness’, (Rosenfeld & Rosenfeld, 2007). In the field of physical education, teachers’ teaching styles have been explored using Mosston’s Spectrum Teaching Styles (Cothran et al., 2005). The Spectrum provides a way to study the various approaches to teaching on a continuum of decision-making from a direct, teacher-led approach to a more open-ended and pupil-centred approach.

Three aspects of teaching were examined: pre-impact (preparation stage), the impact (performance and delivery) and post-impact (evaluation and feedback). There were eleven different teaching styles that related to reproducing knowledge and the involvement of the pupils in the learning process. These styles included:
(a) command, (b) practice, (c) reciprocal, (d) self-check, (e) inclusion, (f) guided discovery, (g) convergent discovery, (h) divergent production, (i) learner’s individual designed programme, (j) learner initiated, and (k) self-teaching (Kulinna et al., 2000).

Styles A-E are identified by Kulinna and Cothran (2003) as reproducing styles and styles F-K as productive styles responsible for the generation of new knowledge, both of which have benefits in the classroom, although the benefits for particular types of children have been shown to be variable and in need of validation from larger studies (Byra, 2000). More recently, Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006) have examined the impact of a pupil-centred or learner teaching style versus a content-centred and management teaching style on learner outcomes and found a learner-centred style was associated with higher opportunities to learn. To what extent such styles correlate with cognitive styles is an area of great interest and relevance, and contributes to the debate on what teacher characteristics or behaviours are most effective in the classroom. According to Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006), teachers must exhibit level of effectiveness in dealing with pupil’s characteristics or behaviour in the classroom. This will strengthen teacher’s ability to care more about and to understand pupils’ emotional feelings more.

Based on the work of researchers such as Messick (1976) and Riding (2002), Evans (2004) designed a Teaching Style Questionnaire (TSQ) to measure the Wholistic-Analytic teaching styles of teacher trainees enrolled in one-year Post Graduate Certificate in Education in the United Kingdom. In the TSQ, lower
scores indicated a more Wholistic teaching style and higher scores indicated a more analytical style in teaching.

Overall, teachers tended to be more Analytical than Wholistic in style. Wholistic were characterised as being more informal, flexible, interactive with pupils, spontaneous and attentive to individuals. They tended to be more concerned with the global aspects of learning, learning process, and working as team members. Analytics were more formal, controlling, directive, structured, sequential, and attentive to details than Wholistic. They also preferred to work on their own and in their interactions with pupils they were more impersonal, inflexible and provided more detailed feedback than did Wholistic.

The review of literature has shown that the notion of teaching styles is problematic in that there are numerous indicators of style and a wide range of measures of teaching styles. This situation demonstrates the need for additional research in the area of teaching styles.

**Teaching Styles and Strategies**

Effective teachers allow pupils chances to learn, succeed and interact at their fullest potentials. Teacher quality can be directly linked to pupil achievement (Barnes & Aguerrebere, 2006). Teaching styles are thus a key part of instruction in primary schools. However, the new core standards in primary schools are definitely going to affect the style primary school teachers employ in their instruction. The new standards lean more toward pragmatic and experiencing phenomenon (Kilpatrick, Swafford & Findell, 2009). This is because previous instruction used in primary schools has been faulted as being too weak in a
conceptual sense especially when compared to states like Hong Kong, Singapore, and Korea (Ginsburg, Leinwand & Decker, 2009).

Teaching styles may also vary from instructor to instructor because they are heavily influenced by the instructor’s personal qualities, philosophy in life, educational philosophy, and attitude (Beyond Crossroads, 2006). However, teaching styles in most primary schools can be classified into two different categories: (a) a pupil-centred approach or a teacher-centred approach and (b) a thematic approach or a topic-based approach (Davis-Langston, 2012).

**Pupil-and Teacher-Centred Approaches**

A pupil-centred approach is one that emphasises the pupil. In a pupil-centred approach, pupils attempt to explore the subject on their own; taking charge of the learning process and relying on the teacher only for guidance purposes. Springer, Stanne & Donovan (1999) found that where a pupil-centred approach takes an active and constructivist approach, there is a greater chance of success, especially among pupils not used to traditional learning methods.

Results of research implied that various pupil-centred educational activities were linked with pupil achievement and observed that the style in which educational activities are offered in classroom framework affects pupils’ achievement (Guthrie, 2009). Educational activities that are pupil-centred consist of variables that explain aspects of classroom education; for instance, quality of teaching style and viewpoint to learn. In a teacher-centred approach, the teacher takes active control of the entire process of instruction that affects pupils learning.
This is the most common method employed in public schools in Ghana (Saani, 2012).

Normally, teachers prepare lesson plans before class and use them to guide the teaching of primary school pupils. If teachers are considered or taken as the one who impart knowledge, the pupils will not take ownership of their own learning. In addition, teachers are responsible for accessing pupils’ prior knowledge, extend their learning and use that learning to build new knowledge (Hoover, 1996).

A single catchy phrase that describes a teacher’s role should be based on “not a sage on the stage, but a guide to the side.” Teachers then assess the performance of pupils and assign work for pupils to do independently or in small cooperative groups. While the teacher-centred approach is more common, its success is more dependent on the teachers’ individual style. As Jarvis (2004) reported, “the teacher’s style is the totality of one’s philosophy, beliefs, values and behaviours and it incorporates the full implementation of this philosophy; it consists of substantiation and support of beliefs about values and attitudes toward elements of the pupil learning and teacher learning exchange” (p. 40).

Akbari, Kiany, Naeeni and Allvar (2009) described these characteristics as pervasive, holding out even with changes in situational conditions. Brown (2003) stated that due to the diverse needs of primary pupils in instruction, there is the need for primary teachers to be sensitive to pupils’ learning styles. However, matching the teaching and learning styles is not a guarantee for success (Brown, 2003). There is thus need for caution when deciding to change teaching styles.
Thematic and Topic Based Approaches

Handal and Bobis (2006) found that most teachers prefer to teach by topics rather than in themes. Nevertheless, both thematic-and topic-based approaches to primary school teaching have been shown to yield successful results depending on the manner in which they were applied (Grimison, 2001; Handal & Bobis, 2006). The thematic approach to primary school instruction involves a deeper focus on the application of most subject concepts. It is from the application of these concepts that lessons and assignments are based. A thematic approach chooses to focus on a particular branch of a subject and pupils are expected to understand the application of these concepts in a progressive manner (Bobis, Mulligan, & Lowrie, 2006).

A topic-based approach is one in which teachers use a particular textbook or curriculum guide from which they draw lessons and teach according to the topics in the material. While nothing is wrong with this approach, the teachers’ coverage of all areas of the subject is likely to be hindered by the limitations in the teaching material. Due to the new core standards in primary school teaching in Ghana, a thematic approach is considered more realistic (Kilpatrick et al., 2009). This is because the thematic approach allows the teacher to exhaust one theme before moving to the next (Davis-Langston, 2012)

Effective Teaching Strategies

Effective teaching styles focus on teachers’ delivery and their distinct approach to teaching (Evans, Harkins, & Young, 2008). Effective teaching strategies help pupils foster a deeper understanding of the information (Franzoni
& Assar, 2009). Awareness of a teacher’s teaching styles brings an understanding of the elements in pupils’ learning processes (Nielson, 2007). It is critical for teachers to self-reflect and examine their delivery of instruction and their cognitive styles so they can teach in a manner that respects learners’ diverse learning styles and different learning situations (Conti & Wellborn, 2009).

A discussion of teachers’ teaching strategies and styles may provide for constructive talks about individuals’ philosophy and the barriers to addressing individuals’ learning needs (Evans et al., 2008). Teachers who are aware of their individual teaching styles could be encouraged to meet the challenges in their classes to suit the diverse levels of learners. According to Evans et al. the awareness of their styles tends to help teachers change or adjust their styles to meet the different learning styles of the learners.

However, when pupils are involved in their individual learning plans, their involvement in class has a direct impact on their academic achievement. Creating an environment where pupils have a voice allows the teacher to be more of a facilitator of teaching (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006). Teaching styles identify the pupils’ as a major factor in enhancing pupils’ achievement. The teacher-focused style puts control for learning in the hands of teachers who resolve what learners learn and how the teachers use their knowledge in content to assist pupils in making relationships (Evans et al., 2008).

Gregorc (2009) believed that teaching styles consist of personal teaching behaviours and the media used to receive and transmit. The one-teaching-style-fits-all credited to a teacher-focused teaching style is not working for the
increasing number of diverse learners. Teaching styles are identified by teaching preferences, classically acknowledged by the delivery of instruction, assessment of learning tools and the support of pupil individual learning needs (Grasha, 1996).

Grasha (2002) believed that teaching styles represent not only a system of belief, but also needs and behaviours that teachers exhibit. Grasha identified five distinct teaching styles that represent teachers’ orientations or beliefs about teaching: (a) expert teaching, (b) formal authority teaching, (c) personal model teaching, (d) facilitator teaching and (e) delegator teaching.

The expert possesses knowledge and expertise. This teacher focuses on pupils receiving taught information and prepares fully for the discipline being taught. Experts gain respect from pupils because of the knowledge they possess. The disadvantage of the expert is the overconfidence of knowledge the teacher exhibits, which can be intimidating to pupils. In addition, the expert is an outcome-based teacher, with no true focus on the thought process and does not tend to foster the higher-order thinking skills.

The formal authority teaching style is practiced by teachers who are perceived by pupils as experts in their field of study (Grasha, 2002). The formal authority is focused on being accurate with the delivery of transmitting the standards to pupils. One disadvantage of this style as noted by Grasha is that the lesson has little or no flexibility. It is often revealed as rigid and standardised. A teacher who displays the personal model of teaching is focused on how to behave and think (Grasha, 1996). This teacher often models rather than telling pupils
what is expected. A disadvantage noted by Grasha (2002) to this teaching style is that pupils feel inadequate if they cannot live up to the high expectations and standards established by the teacher.

The facilitator and the delegator teaching styles focus merely on the instructors being more of guide than a sage on the stage (Conti & Wellborn, 2009). The facilitator guides, leads and directs pupils by letting them have a voice of reason in the learning process. The facilitator incorporates multiple teaching styles and methodologies. The goal of the facilitator is to foster pupils’ learning through independent thoughts and actions.

One disadvantage of this teaching style is time management. The facilitator has to know how to facilitate within the set time of the class in order to meet all standards. The delegator focuses on pupils’ ability to work in any relationship displayed by teacher and pupils. The teacher delegates various learning tasks and projects for the pupils to complete throughout the course. The teacher is often referred to as a resource person instead of as the only knowledge source. One disadvantage with this teaching style is that pupils, especially at the lower level, often times are uncomfortable and may feel lost without teacher-directed instruction (Grasha, 2002).

Since one instructor rarely falls into one teaching style category, and most instructors employ parts of many styles, Grasha (1996) clustered the teaching styles into the most common groups. The first cluster, the expert/formal authority style, leans towards teacher-centred instruction in which the teacher delivers instruction and pupils receive knowledge taught. Cluster 2, the personal expert
and formal authority style, is a teacher/pupil-centred approach that involves modelling and demonstrations by teacher and pupils. This approach by the teacher fosters pupils’ attention to observe and process learning (Goldhaber, 2002).

The third cluster, facilitator/personal model/expert style is a teacher- and pupil-centred model for the classroom. The teacher incorporates learning activities that foster social interactions and or problem-solving experiences that allow pupils to think critically and process course content through real experiences. The final cluster, the delegator places emphasis on independent learning and the burden is on the pupils. Teachers in this cluster provide multifaceted tasks that pupils have to take full initiative to complete.

Nevertheless, pupils learn in many ways. Teaching methods and strategies for this style varies. Some teachers lecture solely, model, or demonstrate; others show no flexibility on rules; some accentuate memory; and others emphasise pupils’ processes and understanding. Administrators repeatedly advocate teaching strategies and models that rarely produce academic improvement (Franzoni & Assar, 2009). This is especially critical because diverse learners, both global and analytic processors, learn content differently. Regardless of the approach, it can be argued that the foundation of teaching and learning lies within the individual (Davis, 2010).

Teachers with a background in assessing pupils’ learning style backgrounds may recognise these traits immediately and know how to help pupils with diverse learning styles. In response to global, kinaesthetic, and tactual pupils, mathematics teachers are expected to reach them all. The resources and
instructional methods must be carefully selected prior to each lesson. Educators must do more to give all levels of learners an opportunity to meet the standards. Teachers must do more to ensure that all pupils have a top-performing teacher who provides every child an equal opportunity to meet and exceed learning goals established by the country (Saani, 2012).

Tactual learners need to stimulate their minds and foster social patterns in which they feel comfortable. The five strategies, called contextual teaching, are (a) relating, learning in the context of one’s life experiences; (b) experiencing through exploration and hands-on learning; (c) applying, learning by putting the concepts to use; (d) cooperative learning and (e) transferring, learning in the context of using knowledge in a new context or novel situation (Davis-Langston, 2012).

Teaching Styles and Cognitive Styles

Cognitive style refers to “a distinct and consistent way for an individual to encode, store, and perform” (Atkinson, 2004, p. 663). Two well-known measures of cognitive style are the Cognitive Style Index (CSI; Allinson & Hayes, 1996) and the Cognitive Style Analysis (CSA; Riding, 1991). In the CSA, cognitive style is a bi-polar measurement with the following two dimensions: (a) Wholistic - analytic which relates to the processing of information as either a whole or in parts; and (b) Verbal-imagery which measures whether an individual tends to represent their thought verbally or visually (Riding & Rayner, 1998).

Using the CSA, Evans (2004) studied the relationship between teaching styles and cognitive styles of pre-service teachers using the Cognitive Styles
Analysis (Riding, 1991) and the Teaching Styles Questionnaire (developed in her study). Results indicated that those who had a cognitive style identified as a Verbaliser were more likely to use an Analytic teaching style than a Wholistic style. Those with a Wholistimager cognitive style preferred an interactive approach with pupils whereas those with a Wholistic-verbaliser cognitive style were content with a didactic approach. Analytical-imagers preferred a structured, detailed approach to teaching whereas no dominant preference was found for the Analytic-verbalisers.

These findings give support to Riding and Rayner’s (1998) study that Verbalisers learn best from verbal presentations, and Analytics like to have self-control of the learning process. Allinson and Hayes (1996) developed the CSI based on an understanding of cognitive style as a single, unitarian dimension with an intuitive style at one end and an analytical style at the other end. “Intuition is characteristic of individuals whose thinking is based more on feeling and the adoption of a global perspective while individuals characterised as analytical based their thinking more on reasoning and attention to details” (p. 122).

The CSI instrument has been used extensively with pupils studying in certain professional fields such as information management (Casey, Murphy, & Young, 1996); and business administration (Doucette, Kelleher, Murphy, & Young, 1998). Researchers in other professions, stress the value of cognitive styles in areas such as management of self-development (Pedler, 1988); understanding co-workers (Cox & Beale, 1997) and team development (Cook, Hunsaker & Coffey, 1997). These are all areas that could help teachers to develop
self-awareness, an important part of the foundation for further growth and development (Whetten & Cameron, 2005).

Evans (2004) suggested that the use of CSI in teacher preparation programme may help pre-service teachers to develop a met cognitive awareness of their teaching behaviour. However, there has been limited research that examines the influence of the teaching styles used by Ghanaian public school teachers.

**Teaching Style and Inventories**

Research has revealed that areas like beliefs, cultural background, teaching experiences, (Heimlich, 1990), the nature of the subject area (Evans, 2004), government curriculum initiatives (Hargreaves, 2003) and job satisfaction (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006) influence teaching styles. Researchers have attempted to design inventories to gauge teaching styles but to date “little is known about teachers’ use and perception of various teaching styles” (Kulinna & Cothran, 2003, p. 1).

Researchers who have investigated teaching styles worked individually, and therefore, a number of dimensions for measuring teaching styles have been developed for different fields: content-centred and pupil-centred (Robinson, 1979); proactive and reactive (Lenz, 1982); teacher-centred and learner-centred (Opdenakker & Van Damme, 2006); guided, exposition, and inquiry (May Oi & Stimpson, 1994); didactic, Socratic, and facilitative (Jarvis, 1985); facilitator and path gnomonic (Rosenfeld & Rosenfeld, 2007); reproducing and productive (Kulinna & Cothran, 2003); and holistic and analytical (Evans, 2004).
There are multiple online teaching inventories, such as Grasha and Riechmann (1996), and Pratt and Collins (2001). One of the most common teaching inventories is the Grasha-Riechmann inventory, which assesses five teaching styles: expert, formal authority, personal model, facilitator, and delegator. Another is the Teaching Perspective Inventory (TPI) developed by Daniel Pratt and John Collins, which assesses several styles: transmission, apprenticeship, developmental, nurturing, and social reform. Mohanna, Chambers and Wall (2006) designed a tool to raise the awareness of novice teachers about their teaching style: the Six Staffordshire Teaching Styles Questionnaire. These styles are the following:

1. The all-round flexible and adaptable teacher
2. The sensitive pupil-centred teacher
3. The official formal curriculum teacher
4. The straight facts, no-nonsense teacher
5. The big conference teacher
6. The one-off teacher

Mohanna et al. (2006) defined the all-round flexible teacher as one who “can use lots of different skills effectively, can teach both peers and juniors and is very aware of the way that the whole environment affects both teachers and pupils” (Mohanna, Chambers & Wall, 2008, p. 23). The sensitive pupil-centred teacher is very pupil centred, prefers teaching in small groups, with emotions to the fore using role play and drama and is not comfortable doing straight
presentations. The official formal curriculum teacher is very well prepared as a teacher and teaches according to the formal curriculum.

Mohanna et al. (2008) were of the view that the straight facts, no-nonsense teacher likes to teach the clear facts with straight talking; concentrating on specific skills, and much prefers not to be involved with multi-professional teaching and learning. According to them, the big conference teacher likes to stand up in front of a big audience and does not like sitting in groups or one to one teaching. The one-off teacher likes to deliver small bits of teaching with no support or follow-up.

**Teaching Strategies and Learning Styles in School**

The term “learning style” has been defined in several ways by many authors, yet the most representative definitions refer to two essential aspects: a) learning style represents an individual’s preferred ways of responding (cognitively or behaviourally) to learning tasks which change depending on the environment or context (Peterson, Rayner & Armstrong, 2009), and b) learning style refers to the idea that individuals differ in regard to what type of instruction is most effective for them (Pashler, McDaniel, Rohrer & Bjork, 2008).

Starting from these two perspectives, studies have shown that learning style represents a complex issue, both for pupils and teachers. From the pupils’ perspective, learning style indicates a general preference for learning and encompasses cognitive, affective, psychomotor, and physiological dimensions (Knowles, Holton & Swanson, 2005). On the other hand, taking into account the teachers’ perspective, the fact that pupils have different learning styles represents
a constant challenge, because the optimal instruction presupposes diagnosing individuals’ learning styles and tailoring instruction accordingly (Pashler et al., 2008).

Facing the various challenges of the effective learning issue, many researchers attempted to conceptually systematise the learning preferences by constructing explanatory models of learning styles. The present study is based on one of the most popular and influential models of learning styles, the one developed by Kolb (1981). Kolb defines learning as the process where knowledge is created through transformation of experience (Kolb, 1984). In essence, learning is not so much the acquisition or transmission of content, as it represents the interaction between content and experience, where each transforms the other. In this context, the teacher has not only to transmit new ideas but also to modify old ideas that may get in the way of new ones.

According to Kolb (1984), learning is conceived as a four-stage cycle representing the way individuals perceive, think, feel and act when faced with new experiences. The four stages of this experiential learning cycle encompass actual experiencing, reflective observation, abstract conceptualisation, and active experimentation (see Figure 1). Starting from this four-stage learning cycle, Kolb performed a closer examination of the model, and reached the conclusion that there are two primary dimensions of the learning process: the preferred mode of perception (concrete or abstract) and the preferred mode of processing information (active experimentation or reflective observation).
The combination of the four learning stages according to the main processes of learning (perceiving and processing information) led Kolb (1984) to distinguish four categories of learners using different learning styles: *assimilators* (who use abstract conceptualisation to perceive information and reflective observation to process it), *convergers* (who use abstract conceptualisation to perceive information and then active experimentation to process it), *divergers* (who perceive information through concrete experience and process that through reflective observation), and *accommodators* (who perceive information through concrete experience and process it through active experimentation).

![Diagram of the experiential learning model](image)

**Figure 1.** The experiential learning model (Kolb, 1981)

When considering the learning style frameworks, an essential question for teachers and researchers is whether matching teaching strategies with pupils’ learning styles will lead to higher academic achievement. For the past three decades, this has been the subject of a classical debate in the field of learning styles: the debate over the so-called “matching hypothesis” (Zhang, Sternberg & Rayner, 2012).
In this context, three different perspectives have emerged, each being supported by empirical studies. The first category of studies supports the initial hypothesis and reveals the fact that the adjustment of instructional strategies according to the pupils’ learning styles enhances academic achievement (Felder & Brent, 2005; Arthurs, 2007; Rogers, 2009; Tulbure, 2010). Designing and implementing teaching strategies that meet the learning needs of the pupils have positive effects on learning outcomes, attitudes toward course contents and learning motivation, and consequently, lead to higher academic achievement.

The second category of studies shows that the disagreement between teaching strategies and preferred learning styles would have some beneficial effects on learning outcomes (Kowoser & Berman, 1996). As Vaughn and Baker (2001) have argued, providing creative teaching-learning style helps stimulates effective learning and flexibility in learning the subject matter. This shows clear that an optimal instruction must involve a certain degree of tension and unbalance.

Finally, a third category of studies reveal that the match between the pupils’ learning styles and the instructional strategies did not affect the pupils’ learning performance (Akdemir & Koszalka, 2008). Pashler et al. (2008) have argued that there is no adequate empirical support to justify the incorporation of learning style assessments into the educational practice. In trying to surpass these controversies, Zhang (2007) has analysed the issue of teaching-learning style match and mismatch from a new perspective, and proposed that the concept of “style match” should be redefined. As Zhang puts it, a match between teaching
and learning should not be interpreted as an absolute one-and-one match of styles between teacher and pupils, but rather as a situation in which the teachers’ teaching styles meet the learning or personality needs of the pupils.

In this context, some pupils’ needs might be met better through the one-and-one style match, but other pupils would be more attracted to teaching styles that complement their learning and personality needs (Zhang, 2007). The current study is of the view that this approach brings up a new perspective upon the differentiation of the instructional activity. Thus, in the opinion of the researcher, an efficient differentiation does not make reference only to a single criterion, but in order to meet the learning needs of each pupil, differentiation may be nuanced by simultaneous reference to more criteria which have in view more of the pupils’ characteristics. Zhang is of the view that for effective teaching strategies, teachers must create comfortable atmosphere and be able to explain concepts to pupils to understand and ensure accommodative climate within the school setup. This will lead to general improvement in academic performances.

Learning from this approach, the current study tries to identify the most adequate teaching strategies corresponding to every learning style, by taking into account another important difference between the pupils, and namely the profile of their school. To accomplish that, the study makes reference to the studies in the literature that offer suggestions concerning the most appropriate instructional strategies according to the pupils’ preferences (Anderson, 2007; Arthurs, 2007; Nilson, 2010).
Teachers’ Motivating Styles

Looking at both ends of the motivating style continuum, one may identify the conditions that orient teachers toward a controlling or autonomy-supportive style. Teachers may also list the instructional behaviours closely associated with each style. They further explain why a controlling style generally undermines pupils functioning and outcomes while an autonomy-supportive style generally promotes them.

The nature of a controlling style: Three conditions make any approach to motivating pupils a controlling one: (a) adopt only the teacher’s perspective; (b) intrude into pupils’ thoughts, feelings, or actions; and (c) putting pressure on pupils to think, feel, or behave in particular ways (Reeve, 2009). Although teachers do not necessarily set out to be controlling per se, they do sometimes think rather exclusively about pupil motivation and engagement from their own perspective; intrude into pupils’ ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving; and push pressure on pupils’ to think, feel or behave in a specific way. Reeve posits that the enabling conditions that orient teachers toward a controlling style are the lack of the pupils’ perspective, intrusion, and pressure.

The starting point for a controlling motivating style is the prioritisation of the teacher’s perspective to the point that it overruns the pupils’ perspective. By itself, the adoption of the teacher’s perspective during instruction is not controlling, as teachers routinely recommend to pupils a multitude of constructive ways of thinking, feeling or behaving. Such recommendations become controlling only when they overrun the pupils’ perspective via intrusion and pressure. To
capture the essence of teacher intrusion into pupils’ own ways of thinking, feeling or behaving, Assor, Kaplan, Kanat-Maymon and Roth (2005) referred to “explicit attempts to fully and instantly change the behaviours children presently engage in or the opinions they hold” (p. 398).

Controlling further involves the application of sufficient pressure until pupils change their behaviours and opinions. In practice, acts of intrusion and pressure lead pupils to forego their internal frame of reference and their natural rhythm during a learning activity to, instead, absorb and respond to the pressure to think, feel, or behave in a teacher-defined way. For instance, for one reason or another, a teacher might interrupt a pupil’s activity (intrusion) and redirect that activity by using directive language to behave differently (pressure). One example might be to take a pencil or paintbrush out of a pupil’s hands and tell her in no uncertain terms to hold it a differently.

A second example would be to impatiently cross out a pupil’s passive verbs, label it as bad writing, and require that he uses active verbs. Crucially, recommendations to regrip a pencil or compose in the active voice are not controlling acts of instruction. The teacher’s style becomes controlling only with the neglect of the pupil’s perspective, the introduction of intrusion and the application of pressure to think, feel or behave in a specific way.

When acting in controlling ways, teachers tend to rely on outer sources of motivation (e.g., directives, deadlines, incentives, consequences, threats of punishment), neglect to provide explanatory rationales, rely on pressuring inducing language and guilt-inducing criticisms, display impatience for pupils to
produce the right answer and react to pupils’ complaints and expressions of negative effect with authoritarian power assertions. These instructional behaviours are all positively inter-correlated, utilise social influence techniques and collectively provide teachers with the means to intrude on pupils’ thinking, feeling and behaving with enough pressure to increase the likelihood that the pupil will adopt a teacher-specified way of thinking, feeling or behaving (Assor, Kaplan & Roth, 2002; Assor et al., 2005; Reeve, 2006).

Teachers express a controlling motivating style in two ways, including direct (or external) control and indirect (or internal) control (Assor et al., 2005; Vansteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Soenens & Matos, 2005). Direct control involves a teacher’s explicit and overt attempts to motivate pupils by creating external compulsions to act, such as through the imposition of deadlines, verbal commands or environmental incentives. Directly controlling acts of instruction induce in pupils an external perceived locus of causality and environmentally controlled regulation. A simple example would be the teacher commanding a pupil to revise her paper.

Indirect control involves a teacher’s subtle or covert attempts to motivate pupils by creating internal compulsions to act, such as through feelings of guilt, shame, and anxiety (Barber, 1996), by threatening to withdraw attention or approval (Assor, Roth & Deci, 2004), by linking a way of thinking, feeling or behaving to the pupil’s self-esteem (Ryan, 1982), by cultivating perfectionist standards or self-representations (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Duriez, Luyten,
Goossens, 2005), or by offering “conditional regard” more generally (Assor et al., 2004).

Indirectly controlling acts of instruction induce in pupils an internally controlled type of regulation. Internally controlled regulation is different from internally endorsed regulation in that, with the former, pupils perceive that the costs for not doing what others say are so high (in terms of guilt, shame, anxiety, love withdrawal, self-esteem loss, perfectionistic self-representation) that they cannot choose to act otherwise (hence, their thinking and acting is controlled).

The nature of an autonomy-supportive style: Three conditions make any approach to motivating pupils an autonomy-supportive one: (a) adopt the pupils’ perspective; (b) welcome pupils’ thoughts, feelings, and behaviours; and (c) support pupils’ motivational development and capacity for autonomous self-regulation (Reeve, 2009). By taking and integrating the pupils’ perspective into the flow of instruction, teachers become both willing and more able to create classroom conditions in which pupils’ autonomous motivations align with their classroom activity. By welcoming pupils’ ways of thinking, feeling and behaving, teachers acknowledging and appreciating the motivational potential inherent within pupils’ thoughts, emotions, and behavioural intentions.

By acknowledging pupils’ capacity for autonomous self-regulation, teacher-pupil interactions revolve not only around daily support for pupils’ academic pursuits but also around long-term (developmental) support to generate and regulate academic motivation of their own. When teachers act in autonomy-supportive ways, they nurture pupils’ inner motivational resources, provide
explanatory rationales, rely on non-controlling language, display patience to allow pupils the time they need for self-paced learning to occur, and acknowledge as well as accept pupils’ expressions of negative effect. These instructional behaviours are all positively inter-correlated, nurture pupils’ motivational development, and collectively provide pupils with an interpersonal relationship that affords them the opportunities to experience personal autonomy, psychological need satisfaction, and positive functioning in general (Reeve, 2006).

Educators generally accept that self-initiated, challenge seeking, and self-endorsed learning is an ideal model for education (Clifford, 1990). It recognises the crucial supportive role played by teachers and the classroom context (Perry, Turner & Meyer, 2006). Proponents of this view suggest that when pupils learn out of curiosity and the desire for optimal challenge, they are more engaged in and satisfied with their learning.

Some teachers already embrace and enact an autonomy supportive style during their instruction. But other teachers and perhaps all teachers on an occasional basis are pushed and pulled toward a controlling style by a multitude of factors, including social roles; burdens of responsibility and accountability; cultural values and expectations; a misconception that controlling means structured, temporarily unmotivated or unengaged pupils; personal beliefs about motivation and their own personal dispositions. According to Perry et al. (2006), both pupils and teachers function better in school when teachers support pupils’ autonomy. Perry et al. further posit that teachers work through the steps of
becoming less controlling, wanting to support autonomy, and learning the practical “how-to” of classroom autonomy support.

**Intrinsic and Extrinsic Goal Motivation**

Pupils are thought to be intrinsically motivated when they perceive themselves as possessing the ability to perform at a high level (Schunk, 1989) and when they enjoy the tasks they perform (Wigfield & Eccles, 1992). Furthermore, intrinsically motivated individuals believe they can control or self-regulate their situation in some meaningful way. According to Deci (1992), extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motivation is generally considered to be a means to an end. Extrinsic motiva

**Task value**

Task value is a precursor to pupil motivation. Pupils’ perceived value of tasks they undertake plays an important role in their level of motivation regarding task completion. Task value also determines the worth pupils attach to the task and ultimately affects their behaviour regarding outcome achievement. According to Schunk (1991), pupils are not motivated by the impossible and will likely not be motivated to accomplish tasks they consider impossible to achieve.

**Control beliefs**

According to Rotter (1966), control beliefs refer to pupils’ perceptions regarding outcomes. Pupils who have a feeling of control realize that it increases
the likelihood that they will put forth more effort to complete tasks, to persist in working on tasks and to achieve their tasks at a higher level (Bandura, 1986).

**Self-efficacy**

Writing self-efficacy - how the writer feels about his or her competence as a writer-affects writing motivation. Pajares and Johnson (1994) found that “writing self-efficacy was significantly related with writing performance” (p. 321). Writing self-efficacy is associated with a number of motivation variables, including “writing apprehension, perceived value of writing, self-efficacy for self-regulation, writing self-concept and goals” (Pajares, 2003, p. 145). Meier, McCarthy, and Schmneck (1984) indicated that writing self-efficacy was related to cognitive processing and that efficacy is an accurate predictor of writing performance, a finding that parallels the claims made by Pajares.

**Anxiety (Performance)**

Daly and Miller (1975) described writing apprehension as a form of writing anxiety that correlated with several factors, including the perceived likelihood of success in writing as well as with the willingness to take writing courses. According to Pajares (2003), “writing apprehension typically correlates with writing performance, but when self-efficacy beliefs are controlled by the influence of apprehension then writing apprehension is nullified” (p. 146).

**Rehearsal**

According to Somuncuoglu and Yildirim (2001), examples of rehearsal techniques pupils’ use are “highlighting, copying, repeating items in a list that activates short-term memory” (p. 270). In a writing-oriented course, rehearsal
involves learner persistence; i.e., how long he/she will continue with the writing task. The developments of communication skills, both oral and written, require practice; and according to Groth (2001), “learning by doing” is an effective skill-acquisition strategy.

**Elaboration and organisation**

Mayer (1992) identified several important cognitive strategies pupils can use; one of the more important ones is elaboration. Its use, results in meaningful learning, a process whereby the pupil selects relevant content, organises the content into a coherent whole, and integrates the new information into the body of his/her are pre-existing knowledge.

**Critical thinking**

The Motivated Strategies and Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) also contain a subscale concerned with critical thinking. Pintrich, Smith, Garcia and McKeachie (1991) stated that “critical thinking refers to the degree to which pupils report applying previous knowledge to new situations in order to solve problems, reach decisions, or make critical evaluations with respect to standards of excellence” (p. 22).

**Self-regulation**

Zimmerman (2000) defined self-regulation as “self-generated thoughts, feelings, and actions that are planned and cyclically adapted to the attainment of personal goals” (p. 14). Schunk (2005) indicated that self-regulated learning, as a mechanism, (1) helps explain differences in pupils’ achievement and (2) has a positive impact on their achievement. Zimmerman found a correlation between
self-regulated learning strategies and writing competence. Thus, pupils who perceive they have a high self-regulation with regard to writing competency tend to view themselves as effective writers.

**Time and study environment**

Pintrich et al. (1991) wrote that “pupils must be able to manage and regulate their time as well as their study environments” (p. 25). Time management refers to the pupils’ scheduling, planning and properly managing their study time. Study environment management refers to the setting where the pupil does his or her class work. Ideally, the pupil’s study environment should be organised, quiet and relatively free of visual and auditory distractions (Pintrich et al., 1991).

**Effort regulation**

According to Pintrich and Schrauben (1992), learning effort is often determined by task importance, task usefulness, and task value as perceived by pupils. Therefore, when pupils perceive a task as being important, useful, and valuable, they will expend more effort toward its accomplishment than when the task is thought to be unimportant, uninteresting, and lacking value.

**Peer orientation**

Peer orientation is described as the tendency for a pupil to prefer to work on tasks alone or with others (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1989). According to Slavin (1990), the preference for pupils to work cooperatively on well-defined tasks under the assumption that they will be rewarded on the basis of the success of the group has been found to be an effective instructional strategy. Slavin further added that teachers must always encourage their pupils to finish their assigned
task independently and honestly as possible. This will help in developing pupils’ sense of initiative and creativity which may place them in a position to solve problems in the near future.

Help seeking

Ryan and Pintrich (1998) reported that self-efficacy is also related to pupil’s inclination to seek help. They found that pupils whose academic self-concepts and performance are low are less likely to seek help from others. Ryan and Pintrich indicated that perhaps these pupils are concerned that others, particularly teachers and peers, will perceive them as unable to perform well or as lacking intelligence.

Challenges Confronting Teachers in Teaching and Motivating Pupils

Based on Vygotsky’s (1978) theory of social cognitive development, the classroom environment is the ‘culture’ that determines pupils’ learning development. Pupils’ learning development takes place in the classroom when interactions between pupils and teachers or among pupils themselves occur. With the existence of friendships and teacher support in classrooms, pupils’ level of learning would be improved. According to Hanafin (2005), the provision of a bright, attractive and purposeful learning environment is a very important factor in supporting the pupils’ learning.

The situation of the classroom is not the same in all parts of the world. Many heads of basic schools in the Ho Municipality have expressed worry about pupils in the school having to contend with goats and fowls during class hours (Vibe Ghana, 2012). According to Vibe Ghana, the heads stressed that this was
because the classrooms were without doors and windows thus exposing the pupils and learning materials to the vagaries of the weather and animals. In such situations, teachers have little or no control over the physical structure or the furniture of the classroom in which they are teaching. However, teachers should make every effort to create a stimulating learning environment by using the available space and furniture to the best effect.

Suitable learning resources can brighten up a room as well as provide opportunities for oral language development (Awuni, 2012). In infant classes, displaying books, especially large format books from the library, can add further interest. Awuni further postulated that over 330 pupils in the Kindergarten were crowded into two classrooms, without chairs. The more alarming aspect of the situation was the fact that the pupils sit on their food bowls to study each day, and use the same bowls for their School Feeding meals. Some of the pupils sometimes urinate in their bowls when classes are in progress, and most of them use the bowls unwashed for their meals.

Gadagbui (2012) asserts that teachers must consider carefully how they arrange pupils’ tables and chairs within the classroom. The space available and the furniture should be used to create an attractive and practical layout in which the pupils can work comfortably and interact purposefully with each other. The requirements of pupils with special educational needs in particular should be carefully considered when they are setting out the classroom. This gives all pupils an opportunity to mix with others in the classroom and not just with their close
friends. Gadagbui (2012), further asserts that some of the problems faced by pupils with special educational needs in the inclusive setting are intolerance.

Mantei and Kervin (2012) asserted that primary school teachers today operate within a climate of great change with the rapid infusion of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) into schools with the expectation that these be included within classroom experiences. They continued to say that many schools purchased computer hardware and software and have provided professional development for teachers with the expectation that the technology will be put to use. Many teachers feel ill-equipped to use technology to support learning in spite of these in-service opportunities. Mantei and Kervin (2012) aver that challenges such as large class size make class control, remedial teaching and marking exercises a problem to teachers. They postulated further that the preparation of lesson notes, inadequate teaching and learning materials, textbooks are some of the common problems teachers face in most public primary schools.

The classroom teacher is a major factor in determining whether ICT is an important component of daily learning experiences in the lives of the pupils. Teachers who use ICT to meet their personal needs such as planning a school programme, downloading music for leisure or paying bills on the Internet are more likely to utilise ICT for learning and teaching than those who find little use for such technologies in their daily lives (Mantei & Kervin, 2012).

Teachers are under increasing pressure to include new technologies in classroom learning experiences as they consider how best to present curricula content in ways that are meaningful to and connect with the needs of
contemporary pupils. The enormous advances in technology have impacted on literacy practices, rendering the tools of reading and writing that pupils used in the past, although still necessary, insufficient (Anstey & Bull, 2012). Anstey and Bull (2012) added that furniture and lack of parental supports with regard to the provision of food and writing materials are some of the challenges pupils in the primary schools face in most developing countries.

According to Vercillo (2012), schools today play an important role in the socialisation of pupils and therefore it is critical that teachers know how to best socialise their pupils. An understanding of basic human developmental stages can be used to gear the teacher’s lesson plans in order to maximise the success of pupils in both the academic and the social realms of their lives. This understanding can also be used to minimise problems in the classroom (Gadagbui, 2012).

As pupils go through their different stages of life, they approach learning in different ways. When an educator has an intricate understanding of human development, he or she can use that understanding to make assessments about the behaviours of pupils in the classroom. This can be used to prevent problems in the classroom that often result from normal developmental acting out behaviour. Such problems may occur as a result of having a small number of pupils within the larger classroom who are at a different developmental stage of their lives from the stage of the other pupils (Vercillo, 2012).

Educators who do not understand the role of development in the behaviour of the classroom often find that they are frustrated in their working lives. This is
because they simply cannot relate to why their approach to teaching the pupils is not working. Educators who fail to gear their lessons and teaching approach to the correct developmental stage will find that they are not reaching the pupils in their classrooms. This can upset the power balance between pupil and teacher, undermining the latter’s authority and creating a chaotic classroom environment (Vercillo, 2012). Vercillo further avers that for teachers to succeed in their instructional practices, they must motivate and encourage their pupils to learn harder. They must love their work in order to show more enthusiasm for the teaching job.

Beilock, Gunderson, Ramirez and Levine (2012) found that primary level teachers are not adequately trained to teach Math and thus, female primary school teachers score high on Math anxiety. Beilock et al. further postulated that more care needs to be taken to develop strong Math skills and more positive Math attitudes in these educators. According to Georgii (2012), the teaching trend today is more and more the special needs inclusive classroom. Instead of special classes, all special needs pupils are mainstreamed into regular classrooms. This prevents discrimination of any pupil on the basis of a physical or mental disability.

However, with all pupils grouped into special needs inclusive classrooms, teachers face a variety of challenges they would not ordinarily have in the regular classroom. All pupils with special needs belong to a specific culture. The teacher must be prepared to understand these varying cultures. Besides the special needs cultures, there are the other cultural differences such as poverty verses wealth or
socio-economic status, racial differences, language differences, and country of origin differences (Georgii, 2012).

**Empirical Studies on Teaching Style and Pupil Learning**

Few people can deny that every pupil learns and responds to information uniquely. To better serve a pupil’s learning needs, researchers have discussed the role of teaching style in pupil learning. Many of those researchers support the view that matching teaching and learning styles improves pupils’ achievement (Stitt-Gohdes, 2001; Henson, 2004; Hou, 2007). Zeeb’s (2004) research indicated that aligning learning styles of pupils with teaching styles of instructors could lead to an improvement in academic performance. Zeeb examined how junior high school pupils learnt and how their teachers taught and found that there was no link between pupils’ learning styles and their teachers’ teaching styles. However, he (2004) asserted that teachers can improve upon their teaching styles use in the classroom by varying their teaching styles, making use of appropriate teaching learning materials and preparing before lesson delivery. Zeeb added that teachers can educate themselves through workshops, seminars, in-service training programmes and adoption of appropriate measures to control pupils in the classroom.

Zeeb (2004) used the information obtained from assessing learning and teaching styles to help teachers modify their teaching styles to accommodate varying learning preferences, which resulted in improving pupils’ test scores. Farkas (2003) investigated the effect of teaching styles on two groups of seventh-grade pupils. Pupils in the experimental group preferred similar learning styles
and were taught according to their preferences, while the control group was taught with a conventional teaching style.

In Farkas’s (2003) study, the pupils in the experimental group, who received a teaching style that matched their preferred learning styles, outperformed the control group academically. The experimental group also showed more positive attitudes toward learning, more understanding of pupil’s feelings, and an increased ability to transfer what they had learned from one area to another. The findings in Farkas’s study further indicate that the various forms of teaching styles and motivational strategies adapted and used by the teacher increases pupils academic performance significantly.

Researchers have classified teaching styles in many ways and have considered certain teaching styles more effective in improving pupil learning (Fischer & Fischer, 1979). Curtin (2005) studied a group of English as Second Language (ESL) pupils and their teachers and categorised teaching styles as didactic and interactive. Didactic teachers make most of the decisions in the classroom, emphasise teaching the content, and put pupils in a passive role. On the other hand, interactive teachers allow for the diverse learning styles of their pupils, place much emphasis on the teaching and learning process and expect pupils to be active learners.

The findings of Curtin’s (2005) study suggest that teachers who adopt an interactive teaching style can better meet the unique needs of their ESL pupils. The interactive instructors utilised more cooperative learning strategies along with numerous activities that worked best with ESL pupils. Research conducted by
Chang (2005) indicated that a constructivist teaching style affects pupils’ perceptions toward physics teaching and learning. Chang explored views of pupils who were instructed with a constructivist approach and a traditional approach. Pupils placed more value on having the opportunity to actively participate in group discussions and to examine concepts they learned when they were taught through the constructivist approach rather than the traditional approach. Chang added that the constructivist approach guides teachers to adapt various forms of teaching styles and motivational strategies that enable them to teach with ease. It also makes it easier for the pupils to imbibe the content of what the teacher is teaching. This in the long run helps in improving pupils’ academic performance.

Chang’s (2005) study suggested that the constructivist teaching style fosters greater flexibility in teaching and brings about pupils’ use of deep learning strategies (thinking and discussing) and knowledge construction. In contrast to Chang’s study, Kim’s (2005) research in Korea indicated that even though pupils who received a constructivist teaching style for nine weeks had greater use of learning strategies than those who received a traditional teaching style, there was no significant difference between learning strategies used by these two groups. More experience with the new teaching style would help determine the effect of that new teaching style.

Results of research on problem-based learning (PBL) have revealed that the pupil-centred teaching style promotes the self-regulated skills of pupils. Sungur and Tekkaya (2006) administered the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire to 61 high school pupils and divided them into two groups. The
control group was taught using a traditional teaching style while the experimental group received a PBL approach. Teachers who utilised PBL placed emphasis on learner-centred instruction and on teaching pupils how to learn.

Sungur and Tekkaya (2006) found that the PBL approach positively affected pupils’ intrinsic goal orientation and their perceptions of learning biology. In addition, PBL pupils used more cognitive and metacognitive strategies than did the control-group pupils. The results revealed the influence of different teaching styles on pupils’ use of learning strategies.

In looking at the aforementioned examination of teaching styles, one can see that several studies have shown that pupils have greater learning gains when their teacher takes account of the pupils’ needs to experience meaningful learning, encourages active engagement, empowers pupils to direct their own learning and demonstrates flexibility in his or her teaching styles.

**Pupils’ Perceptions of Teaching Styles**

Since pupils’ achievement is influenced by factors other than the teacher’s actions, it is also important to understand pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles, as these relate to their own learning. Accordingly, research studies have been conducted to examine pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles. The studies enable teachers to be aware of pupils’ perspectives and to recognise the need to make adjustments in teaching.

In a study conducted by Norzila, Fauziah, and Parilah (2007), 175 college pupils took a questionnaire adapted from Grasha’s (1996) Teaching Style
Inventory to see if there were differences between pupils’ perceptions and preferences of their English language lecturers’ teaching styles.

Norzila et al. (2007) found that there were no gender differences in pupils’ preferred and perceived teaching styles. However, pupils preferred pupil-centred teaching styles, whereas the most frequently used teaching styles of lecturers were teacher-centred in nature.

Hughes (2009) researched the relationships between teaching styles perceived by pupils and teaching styles adopted by instructors. A total of 117 pupils participated in the study and were put into either a control group or an experimental group. The instructor taught control-group pupils pre-calculus with a conventional lecture-based approach. On the other hand, two instructors in the experimental group adopted a teaching style that increased pupil involvement; they also provided real-life examples and sufficient time for pupils to learn a concept by asking questions. Hughes further added that teaching styles that increases pupils’ involvement must allow teachers to listen to pupils patiently when they ask question. Similarly, he indicated that they must involve pupils in extracurricular activities in the school.

The results of Hughes’ (2009) study showed a significant difference in pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles between the control group and experimental group. The results also revealed that pupils felt they learned better when instructors employed a teaching style that was more interactive than when instructors adopted a conventional lecture style.
Chen (2008) developed an instrument for investigating junior high school pupils’ perceptions of their teachers’ teaching styles as part of his thesis project. Chen produced the Junior High School Teacher’s Teaching Style Questionnaire in an effort to classify teaching styles of educators (i.e., authoritarian, democratic, laissez-faire, or indifferent), based on Sun and Wang’s (2007) teachers’ discipline style inventory. In his research of 1,587 pupils, Chen found that the most prevalent teaching style perceived by pupils was the indifferent teaching style.

The findings of Chen’s (2008) study showed that there were significant differences between pupils’ perceived teaching styles and their academic achievement. Pupils who perceived that their teachers employed an authoritarian or a democratic teaching style scored higher on tests than pupils who perceived laissez-faire or an indifferent teaching style. Chen concluded that pupils performed better academically if they felt that their teacher established rules to manage their learning, but at the same time listened to pupils’ opinions toward learning and gave them feedback.

Several research studies have been conducted to determine if there are differences between teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles. McCollin (2000) used the Principles of Adult Learning Scale (PALS) to investigate instructors’ teaching styles. The PALS was also adapted to measure teaching styles as perceived by pupils. The sample consisted of 84 faculty members and 585 college pupils. The data analysis, utilising an independent t-test, indicated a significant difference between instructors’ self-perceived teaching styles and pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles.
In another study, Kulinna, Cothran and Zhu (2000) also examined teachers’ perceived teaching styles. Kulinna et al. compared the results of their study with those of Cothran, Kulinna and Ward (2000), since the latter investigated college pupils’ views of teaching styles. The study revealed, again, that teachers’ and pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles differed significantly. Teachers used slightly more styles than pupils observed. The study also showed that teachers and pupils valued different teaching styles. However, the two groups had different opinions about which teaching styles enhanced motivation and learning.

Gifford (2009) also studied how instructors and pupils viewed teaching styles. Her research participants were 34 instructors and 519 adult pupils. Gifford discovered that there was a disparity between faculty’s and pupils’ perceptions of teaching styles. Teaching style has been extensively studied, which has increased the understanding of the relationships among how teachers instruct, how pupils learn and the types of teaching styles better suited to promote learning in classrooms. According to Chang (2010), the various teaching styles and motivational strategies teachers use mostly result to high performance of students academically. However, this link emerges when teachers are able to apply appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies that they have acquired through their professional training. Researchers have examined pupils’ perceptions of their teachers’ teaching style and suggested that these perspectives are influential in learning (Chang, 2010).
Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework for this study took into consideration all possible factors from the literature and observations to derive the dependent, independent and mediating variables for descriptive and inferential analysis. The dependent variable is pupils’ academic performance while the independent variables are primary school teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies used in their various schools. Teachers’ effort in transferring or putting into practice the appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies in their teaching process is treated as an intervening variable and it is believed to ignite the potency of the independent variables on the dependent variable. The conceptual framework is illustrated in Figure 1.

One of the independent variables, teaching styles refers to the unique manner in which an individual teacher imparts knowledge or interacts with pupils during the teaching and learning process. Motivational strategies, which is the second independent variable refers to the several ways that teachers actively engage pupils’ attention and sustain it during the teaching learning process.

**Figure 2:** Influences of teaching styles and motivational strategies on pupils academic performances
The study suggests that teachers use of appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies in schools influence pupils’ academic performance, but the study is convinced that this influence becomes more potent and strong when the effort shown by teachers in transferring the knowledge they have received with regards to teaching styles and motivational strategies are present and strong. In other words, teachers who have shown some level of effort in transferring their knowledge on teaching styles and motivational strategies in their day-to-day work schedule are likely to help pupils improve their academic performance. This influence can be long lasting and almost permanent (Alhussain, 2012). The explanation of the individual variables has been well dealt with in the literature.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Different research methods are compatible with different situations; therefore it was important to know which method was best suitable for this study. Research methods are a mix of concepts and ideas utilised to determine through neutral observation and analysis the truth of a situation.

This chapter explains how the study was conducted. This guided the researcher in data collection and method of analysing data that were collected from the field. The chapter further discussed the various methods that were employed in generating research data to answer the research questions and hypotheses. Sub-headings discussed are the research design, population of the study, sample and sampling procedure, instruments for data collection and the procedure for data collection and analysis.

Research Design

As pointed out earlier, the study examined the influence teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies have on pupils’ academic performance in the Cape Coast Metropolis. It focused on the perspective of both teachers and pupils of the selected primary schools. Since the study entailed a survey of teachers and pupils views on the issues, situations and processes, the descriptive survey design was deemed the most appropriate research design.
Descriptive research design involves systematic gathering of data about individuals and collectivises in order to test hypotheses or answer research questions concerning the current status of the subject of the study (Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh & Sorensen, 2006). It determines and reports the way things are. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2007) consider this design to be wholesome when information is needed about conditions or relationships that exist; practices that prevail; beliefs, points of view or attitude that are held or processes that are going on.

In the view of Ary et al. (2006), this type of design is appropriate since it allows the researcher to collect data to assess current practices for improvement. Ary et al. further point out that the design gives a more accurate and meaningful picture of events and seeks to explain people’s perception and behaviour on the basis of data gathered at any particular time. An advantage of a descriptive survey is that it helps the researcher to collect data to enable him draw the relationship between variables. It helps to observe, describe and document aspects of a situation as it naturally occurs (Saunders et al., 2007).

However, it is a relatively laborious and time-consuming method. It is susceptible to distortions through the introduction of biases in the measuring of instruments and so on (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). It is sometimes regarded as focusing too much on the individual level, neglecting the network of relations and institutions of society (Saunders et al., 2007). Due to these disadvantages or challenges, the researcher plan, organise and will be objective and independent as possible. The study presented data systematically in order and arrived at valid and
accurate conclusions. It brought out the issues, views and the characters as they were.

**Population**

Population can be seen as the entire aggregation of cases that meet a designed set of criteria (Ary et al., 2006). It must be noted that whatever the basic unit, the population always comprises the entire aggregation of elements in which the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusions. It can also be seen as the target group about which the researcher will be interested in gaining information and drawing conclusions.

The target population for the study was all public primary school trained teachers and pupils in the Central Region of Ghana while the accessible population was all public primary school trained teachers and pupils in the Cape Coast Metropolis during the 2011/2012 academic year. The accessible population was the aggregate of cases that conform to the designated criteria that was accessible to the researcher as a pool for a study (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). Researchers usually sample from an accessible population and hope to generalise to a target population.

The sample selected from the accessible population was the public primary school trained teachers and pupils. They were considered to be one of the major groups that contribute to the success of Ghanaian education system. This research examined the degree of application of trained teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies and its influence and relationship with pupils’ academic performance within the context of the Cape Coast public primary
schools. Table 1 depicted the population distribution of trained teachers and pupils in public primary schools in the Central Region and Cape Coast as well.

Table 1: Population Distribution of Trained Teachers and Pupils in Public Primary Schools in Central Region and Cape Coast

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of Trained Teacher and Pupils</th>
<th>Central Region</th>
<th>Cape Coast</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pupils Teachers</td>
<td>Pupils Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys/Male</td>
<td>156,637 2571</td>
<td>8356 84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls/Female</td>
<td>149,262 2648</td>
<td>8864 341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>305,899 5219</strong></td>
<td><strong>17220 425</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Republic of Ghana; May 2012.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

The ever increasing demand for research has created a need for an efficient method of determining the sample size needed to be representative of a given population. Researchers such as Krejcie and Morgan (1970), Ary et al. (2006) and Malhota and Birks (2007) are of the view that the most used acceptable approach for determining the sample size in a descriptive study is to specify the precision of estimation desired and then to determine the sample size necessary to ensure it. Approximately, a sample size of 255 trained teachers made up of 72 male trained teachers and 183 female trained teachers was obtained using Krejcie and Morgan, Ary et al. and Malhota and Birks recommended formula below.

\[ S = X^2 NP (1 - P) + d^2 (N - 1) + X^2 P (1 - P) \]

\[ S_1 = X^2 N_1 P (1 - P) + d^2 (N_1 - 1) + X^2 P (1 - P) \]
S = required sample size for male trained teachers; S₁ = required sample size for female trained teachers; X² = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (1.96); N = the population size for male trained teachers; N₁ = the population size for female trained teachers; P = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum sample size); d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

\[ S = (1.96^2) (84) (0.5) (0.5) \div (0.05^2) (83) + (1.96^2) (0.5) (0.5) \]
\[ S = 80.6736 \div 0.2075 + 0.9604 \]
\[ S = 80.6736 \div 1.1679 \]
\[ S = 69.0758 \]

\[ S₁ = (1.96^2) (341) (0.5) (0.5) \div (0.05^2) (340) + (1.96^2) (0.5) (0.5) \]
\[ S₁ = 327.4964 \div 0.85 + 0.9604 \]
\[ S₁ = 327.4964 \div 1.8104 \]
\[ S₁ = 180.89726 \]

With regards to pupils, the sample size was determined using the recommendation of Ary et al. (2006) who were of the view that for the purpose of triangulation, a sample size of 0.5 percent is appropriate. The responses of the pupils (87 elements) were used basically to confirm or disconfirm the views of the trained teachers with regards to the objectives of the study. In all, the study used 63 public primary schools out of the 195 public primary schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis (Republic of Ghana, 2012). The number of elements selected is presented in Table 2.
Table 2: Sample Distribution of Public Primary School Trained Teachers and Pupils in the Cape Coast Metropolis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of Trained Teacher’s and Pupils</th>
<th>Population Size</th>
<th>Sample Size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pupils</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boys/Male</td>
<td>8356</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls/Female</td>
<td>8864</td>
<td>341</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>17220</strong></td>
<td><strong>425</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data, 2012.

The stratified random sampling technique was first used to select the respondents made up of male trained teachers, female trained teachers and pupils both boys and girls. The sample size did not necessarily needed to be large but how it truly represents most of the characteristics of the elements in the target population was what one looked at. The population was divided into two homogeneous groups based on gender of respondents that is, boy/male and girl/female strata or criteria. The table of random numbers was used to select 63 public primary schools within the Cape Coast Metropolis. The table of random numbers was used again to select 255 trained teachers and 87 pupils made up of both boys/males and girls/females elements.

A sampling frame was constructed using public primary schools trained teachers and pupils data from the report on basic statistics and planning parameters for basic education in Ghana 2011/2012 (Republic of Ghana, 2012). This was used to assign numbers on slips of papers and put into an opaque polythene bag. The slips of papers were mixed well and one slip removed at a time from the polythene bag without looking into it. Each assigned number picked
was recorded. The selected and recorded slips were thrown back into the polythene bag before the next one was picked. The process continued until the required number of elements were picked and recorded from the two homogeneous groups. The already drawn assigned numbers that was selected for the second time was ignored, that is, they will be thrown back into the polythene bag.

The intended 255 trained teachers and 87 pupils from the selected 63 public primary schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis were capable of providing data that assisted the researcher in examining the influence of teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies on the academic performance of public primary school pupils within the study area.

**Instruments**

An interview schedule for pupils and research questionnaire for trained teachers were the sole data collection instruments used in collecting data. A questionnaire is an instrument with predetermined items to be answered by the respondents by writing (Ary et al., 2006). The use of the questionnaire on trained teachers was justified in view of the fact that the trained teachers are literate and can read and understand the individual items in the instrument. Ary et al. were of the view that this form of instrument is more flexible than interview guide. It has a high response rate and it is easy to administer. It also created opportunity to observe non-verbal behaviour and also has the capacity for correcting misunderstanding by respondents when administered personally. The interview schedule on the other hand is a questionnaire with predetermined items. The
researcher wrote the answers provided by the respondents (pupils) who were interviewed. The instruments help in collecting reliable and reasonable data within a relatively short space of time.

The questionnaire for trained teachers was made up of five sections: A, B, C, D and E with 60 items. All the items in the instrument were made up of close-ended items with the exception of the sub-section of Section E which was open-ended items. Section A of the instrument was made up of five items that were used to elicit data on the demographic information of respondents. Items included trained teachers gender, age, highest educational qualification, number of years served in the teaching profession and marital status.

Section B of the questionnaire contained 14 items. These items were on trained teachers teaching styles used in the classroom. The items were based on a five-point-Likert scale ranging from 1 to 5. In other words, a discrete quantitative scale with one (1) showing less of the issue while five (5) was used to show more of it. Section C of the instrument was made up of 13 items. These items elicited data on motivational strategies used by trained teachers in the classroom. Section D sought for data on the effort trained teachers make in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies they have acquired through training in their day to day classroom activities. It was made up of 7 close-ended items. The items adopted a five-point-Likert scale ranging from one to five just as the other sections.

Section E elicited data on pupils’ academic performance. It was made up of 17 close-ended items. The items also adopted a five-point-Likert scale also
ranging from one to five. In other words, a discrete quantitative scale with one (1) showing less of the issue while five (5) showed more of it was used. The second part of section E, which was made up of four unrestricted items used to call for a free response in the respondents’ own words on trained teachers additional comments and recommendations for improvement on the issues. These items provided or elicited greater depth of response on the issue.

The interview schedule that was administered to pupils also elicited similar data just as the one that was elicited by the questionnaire. The interview schedule was used basically for triangulation purposes. In other words, the data that was collected from the pupils using the interview guide was used to confirm or disconfirm the views of the trained teachers with regards to the objectives of the study. These instruments constructed by the researcher were piloted at the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abirem Municipal, Central Region. This helped in refining the instruments. The pilot testing of the instruments again helped in establishing the internal consistency of the instruments using Cronbach alpha.

**Validity and Reliability of the Instruments**

Pallant (2001) explained validity as a term describing a measure that accurately reflects the concept it is intended to measure. In this regard validity simply refers to how accurate the questionnaire was able to collect the responses from the respondents as intended by the researcher. Validity is the degree to which the study accurately answers the questions it was intended to answer. It examines the truthfulness or the quality of the research process and the accuracy of the results. Gravetter and Forzano (2006) on the other hand defined content
validity as the degree to which a test measures an intended content area. For them, content validity is determined by expert judgment and that content validity cannot be calculated through quantitative technique.

To enhance the validity of the research instruments, the questionnaire and interview schedule were made available to the researcher’s supervisors, both the principal and the co-supervisor, to review and comment on with the view of establishing content validity. Under the guidance of the principal supervisor, the research instruments were modified. Others that the supervisors taught would infringe on the confidentiality of the respondents were deleted. The two supervisors further scrutinised unclear, biased and deficient items, and evaluated whether items were members of the subsets they had been assigned.

Reliability is the degree of stability or consistency of measurement (Gravetter & Forzano, 2006). In finding the reliability of the instrument, it was pilot-tested in June, 2013, on a sample of 41 respondents made up of 11 trained teachers and 30 pupils in the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abrem (KEEA) Municipality to refine it. The number of respondents used for the pilot study was sufficient to include any major variations in the population as confirmed by Ary et al. (2006) that for most descriptive studies using questionnaires, a range of five to ten percent (5% - 10%), of the sample size, for pilot study is sufficient. The respondents were selected because they share similar characteristics as those in the Cape Coast Metropolis. These selected respondents at the KEEA Municipality were also selected due to their closeness and easy accessibility to the researcher.
The instrument was administered personally to the respondents. The internal consistencies of the instruments were calculated using Cronbach’s alpha. The Cronbach’s alphas of the questionnaire and interview schedule generated were as 0.812 and 0.712 respectively with the help of Test Analytics for Surveys (T AfS), a tool of Predictive Analytic Software (PASW) Version 18.0. Research has shown that scales with Cronbach’s alpha co-efficient of 0.70 or more are considered to be reliable (Pallant, 2001). Based on the responses given during the pre-testing of the instrument, few modifications were effected to improve the final instrument for the main survey. Items that were not clearly stated were corrected.

**Data Collection Procedure**

A period of one month was used to collect the data. The data collection was conducted in August, 2013. The trained teachers were given at most 30 minutes to complete the questionnaires while 45 to 50 minutes were spent on each pupil during the interview sessions. The interview sessions were done simultaneously with the administering of the questionnaire with some help from some of the trained teachers in the selected schools.

The Cape Coast Metropolitan Director of Education was written to for permission to carry out the study in her jurisdiction. The introduction letter was shown to the heads of the schools for their permission to carry out the study in their respective schools. Prior to the administration of the questionnaire and the interview schedule, a familiarisation visit was made to the selected schools for the confirmation of the number of trained teachers and to seek more information concerning the trained teachers and pupils.
The instruments were self-administered, but with some support from the heads of the schools and other trained teachers. For the purpose of data collection, respondents in each school were gathered together during break time with assistance from the heads to explain the purpose of the study and to administer the questionnaire and the interview schedule. Respondents were taken through all the questionnaire items and anything that was not clear was explained to them. The trained teachers were again taken through how to respond to the items. The trained teachers were asked to complete the questionnaires during break time or immediately after working hours in order not to disturb teaching hours.

The trained teachers were encouraged to complete the questionnaire the same day and as independently and honestly as possible. Completed questionnaires were retrieved the same day the instrument was administered. The administering of the two instruments was done from school to school and from class to class. The interview session was done on one-on-one bases.

**Data Analysis**

The data that were collected was first grouped and coded using numerical values (coded manual) of the Test Analytics for Surveys (TAls), a tool of Predictive Analytic Software (PASW) Version 18.0. This software was used to code the data and analyse responses of the close and open-ended items in the questionnaire and the interview schedule. The data was transformed into tables for presentation and discussion in the subsequent chapter of the study.

The tables were used for illustrations in order to clarify meaning and enhance understanding. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used for
the data analysis. Cross tabulation was used to analyse the background information, research questions one, two and three. Research question three was analysed using descriptive statistics. The first and second research hypotheses were tested using Pearson Product Moment correlation while the third research hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analyses.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents findings emanating from the data collected from questionnaire for trained teachers and an interview guide for pupils. The discussion includes the interpretation of the findings in reference to previous research findings and theory. Through logical deduction, each finding was evaluated and its implications were examined with teaching styles and motivational strategies of primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

The purpose of the study was to find out the teaching styles and motivational strategies of public primary school trained teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The study further investigated the challenges that teachers were confronted with, when they were teaching and motivating their pupils. Lastly, the study determined the contribution of teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies on pupils’ academic performance.

The chapter is organised into two main parts. The first part deals with the demographic information of the first respondents that is the teachers and covers areas such as respondents’ gender, age, highest educational qualification, length of service in the teaching profession and marital status whiles that of the pupils covered the gender and age of the respondents. The second part is devoted to responses given by the respondents in accordance with the research questions. It
must be noted that at the end of data collection, 255 primary school trained teachers and 87 pupils were captured for the administering of the questionnaires.

**Background Characteristics of Respondents**

This section deals mainly with the distributions of the sample by gender, age, highest educational qualification, length of service in the teaching profession and marital status whiles that of the pupils covers the gender and age of the respondent. The results are presented as follow:

**Table 3: Gender Distribution of Trained Teachers and Pupils**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of Respondents</th>
<th>Category of Respondent</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>51.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>87</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data, 2013.

As contained in Table 3, majority (74.6%) of the respondents were trained teachers. However, greater number of the respondents made up of trained teachers (71.8%) and pupils (51.7%) were females. In other words, majority (66.7%) of the respondents were females. Based on the percentage distribution of the respondents, it is clear that female trained teachers were more than male trained teachers in the primary level of education in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The finding avers the submission of Battistich et al. (2004) who posit that in most countries trained teachers at the primary level of education are usually female.
The study further elicited data on age group of respondents. The data shows that most of the pupils were 12 years and above while greater number of the trained teachers were less than forty years. The findings are in line with the norms in the Ghana Education System because pupils at that stage should be between 11 to 13 years in class six. The findings on the age group of trained teachers are good indicators in our educational system since large chunk are within the youth age group which presuppose that the future of the teaching corps is bright.

Table 4: Distribution of Trained Teachers by their Highest Professional Qualification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Professional Qualification</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non – Professional</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cert A</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor’s Degree</td>
<td>143</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post – graduate or equivalent</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>255</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>%</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data, 2013.

Table 4 shows findings on respondents’ highest professional qualification. The table shows that majority (56.1%) of the respondents had Bachelor’s Degree. However, 3.1% of the primary school teachers did not have any professional qualification. As shown in Table 4, majority (31.8%) primary school trained teachers had Diploma Certificates in teaching. This may mean that the future of the teaching profession is bright in the study area since majority of the trained
teachers had higher credentials that are linked with high level skills required for effective teaching in public primary schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

**Table 5: Distribution of Trained Teachers by their Length of Service in the Teaching Profession**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Service</th>
<th>Frequency (No.)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 6 years</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 10 years</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 15 years</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 - 20 years</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>8.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 – 25</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 25 years and above</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>255</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data, 2013.

Table 5 shows findings on trained teachers’ length of service in the teaching profession. The table depicts that majority (32.2%) of the public primary school trained teachers have been in the teaching profession for less than 6 years. However, 42.3% of the respondents had served more than 10 years. This clearly shows that majority of the trained teachers are experienced. This presupposes that all things being equal, most of the trained teachers in the study area have more working experiences.
Table 6: Distribution of Trained Teachers by their Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status of Respondents</th>
<th>Frequency (No.)</th>
<th>Percent (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>47.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>52.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>255</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data, 2013.

Table 6 contains results on the distribution of trained teachers by their marital status. As contained in the table, majority (52.5%) of the trained teachers were married. It is not surprising that most of the respondent were married since majority of them were females. Based on percentage distribution of the trained teachers, it is clear more teachers were married in the Cape Coast Metropolis.

**Analysis Pertaining to Research Questions and Hypotheses**

This section presents the results pertaining to the research questions and hypotheses. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. Specifically, the research questions were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages while the research hypotheses were tested using inferential statistics such as Pearson Product Moment Correlation and Multiple Regression analysis.

**Research Question One**

**Which teaching styles are used by public primary school trained teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis?**

The first substantive research question of the study focused on the teaching styles used in the public primary schools. Fourteen items were used to elicit data from both trained teachers and pupils. Issues considered were teacher
complement, decision-making in the class by the teacher, classroom climate, instructional procedure and comforting of students by teachers. Other issues considered were teachers’ assistance to pupils and teachers participation in co-curricular activities. The items were measured with five-point likert scale where one (1) represented the least agreement to the issues while five (5) represented the strongest agreement to the issues. The responses for the extreme scale that is strongly agree and strongly disagree were insignificant. Therefore the study transformed the five-point scales to three-point scale by merging strongly agree and agree to agree and strongly disagree and disagree to disagree. The percentage distributions of the combined responses are represented in Table 7.
Table 7: Respondents view on the Teaching Styles that are used by public Primary School Trained Teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements on teaching styles</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N/S %</td>
<td>ST %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My colleague teachers and pupils compliment me on my good manners</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always ask my pupils opinions before making any decisions or rules in the class.</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always share my experience with my pupils.</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respect my pupils’ privacy.</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always encourage my pupils to finish their work independently.</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accept my pupils’ opinions.</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When pupils accidently make mistakes, I forgive and give them a chance to fix them.</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>24.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use a caring voice to ask my pupils to maintain good behaviours.</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Create comfortable atmosphere for my pupils in the classroom.</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comfort pupils when they do not perform well academically.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>23.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explain to pupils to understand their homework if they have a problem.</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen to my pupils patiently when they ask questions.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talk to my pupils about their daily</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Join my pupils to participate in co-
curricular activities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>9.2</th>
<th>3.4</th>
<th>87.4</th>
<th>5.5</th>
<th>29.8</th>
<th>64.7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source: Field Data, 2013. Total number of Pupils (N1= 87); Total number of Teacher (N2=255). N/S=Never/Seldom; ST=Sometimes; O/A=Often/Always</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As contained in Table 7, majority (77.0%) of the pupils indicated that the colleagues of their trained teachers and the pupils often compliment the trained teachers on their good manners. However, few (47.8%) trained teachers were of the view that they sometimes received complement from their colleague trained teachers and pupils on their good manners.

The views of the trained teachers and pupils corroborate with that of Jarvis (2004) who posits that teachers who exhibit good manners in their instructions normally receive non-financial motivation and other complements from their fellow trained teachers and pupils. With regard to involvement of pupils, greater number of the pupils admitted that their trained teachers always ask them of their opinions before making any decisions or rules in the class (77.1%), they always share their experience with them (72.4%) and also they respect their privacy (71.3%). The views of the pupils confirm that of the trained teachers who also indicated that they always ask pupils their opinion before making decision or rules in the class, share experiences with them and respect their privacy.

The findings are congruent with the submission of Cothran et al. (2005) who explored teachers teaching styles using Mosston’s Spectrum Teaching Styles. According to them, the Spectrum provides a way to study the various approaches to teaching on a continuum of decision-making from a direct, teacher-led approach to a more open-ended and pupil-centred approach. In other words, it
makes the trained teacher to involve pupils in classroom decision and also respect pupils’ privacy.

Apart from trained teachers and pupils admitting that pupil’s opinion are always accepted by their trained teachers, majority of both trained teachers (87.0%) and pupils (79.3%) asserted that trained teachers always encouraged their pupils to finish their work independently. This finding confirms the earlier one that pupil-centred approach is used by trained teachers. The encouragement of pupils by trained teachers to finish their work independently is a finding which is consistent with Slavin (1990) who commented that, pupils must work cooperatively on well-defined tasks under the assumption that they will be rewarded on the basis of the success of the group. This is one of the effective instructional strategies recommend by Slavin. Slavin further added that teachers must always encourage pupils to finish their assigned task independently and honestly as possible. This will help in developing pupil sense of initiative and creativity which may place them in a position to solve problems in the near future.

A large chunk of the trained teachers (74.1%) and pupils (71.2%) indicated that when pupils accidentally make mistakes, they are often forgiven by their trained teachers who give them a chance to fix the mistake. Similarly, both trained teachers (79.2%) and pupils (82.7%) admitted that trained teachers use caring voice to ask pupils to maintain good behaviour. The findings are in line with the submission of Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006) who contended that it is always appropriate for teachers to exhibit some level of effectiveness in dealing with pupils’ characteristics or behaviour in the classroom. This in a long
run will strengthen teachers’ ability in showing concern about pupils’ total well-being and understanding pupils’ emotional feelings.

With regards to creating comfort to pupils in the classroom, greater number of trained teachers (93.0%) and pupils (90.8%) admitted that trained teachers create comfortable atmosphere for pupils. Similarly, majority of the trained teachers (68.8%) always comfort pupils when they do not perform well academically. Again, majority of the trained teachers (85.9%) and pupils (86.3%) indicate that trained teachers always explain to pupils in order for them to understand their homework in case they had a problem. These findings go further to suggest that trained teachers in the study area dwell much more on the learner-centred styles. Zhang (2007) is of the view that for effective teaching strategies, teachers must create comfortable atmosphere and be able to explain concepts to pupils to understand and ensure accommodative climate within the school setup. This will lead to general improvement in academic performances.

Concerning listening and talking to pupils, majority (89.8%) of the trained teachers were of the view that they listen to their pupils patiently when they ask them questions and talk to their pupils about their daily life beyond class time. Majority (86.2%) of pupils were of the view that their trained teachers listen to them patiently when they ask them questions and their trained teachers talk to them about their life beyond class time. Also, majority of the trained teachers asserted that they join pupils to participate in co-curricular activities whiles a chunk (82.7%) of the pupils were of the view that their trained teachers join them to participate in co-curricular activities. Hughes (2009) further added that
teaching styles that increase pupils’ involvement must allow teachers to listen to pupils patiently when they ask questions. Similarly, he indicated that they must involve pupils in co-curricular activities in the school.

Research Question Two

Which motivational strategies are applied in the classroom by public primary school trained teachers?

The second substantive research question of the study focused on some of the motivational strategies that are applied in the classroom by public Primary school trained teachers. Thirteen items were used to elicit data in answering this research question. Some of the motivational strategies considered were trained teachers care about pupils, trained teachers’ provision of feedback, trained teachers recognising pupils’ achievements and efforts and trained teachers establishing good rapport between them and the pupils. Other issues considered were avoidance of social comparison, designing task within the ability of pupils, introduction of various interesting topics to pupil and trained teachers’ ability to adopt the role of a facilitator.

These issues were measured with five-point scales ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The responses were scored from one to five, where one represents the least agreement of the issues and five represent the strongest agreement to the issue. The percentages for the extreme responses were insignificant. Therefore, the study pulled agree and strongly agree to form agree while strongly disagree and disagree were pulled to form disagree. In other words,
the five-point scale was transformed into three-point scale. The results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Respondents view on the Motivational Strategies that are applied by Public Primary School Trained Teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements on Motivational Strategies</th>
<th>Pupils</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N/S %</td>
<td>ST %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always show to pupils that I care about them.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide pupils with positive feedback.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always show my enthusiasm for teaching.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourage pupils to try harder.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stand in front of the pupils during teaching.</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recognise pupils’ effort and achievement.</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is good rapport between my pupils and I.</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Give clear instructions for academic work.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I avoid social comparison.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades I give to pupils reflect effort.</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design tasks that are within the pupils’ ability.</td>
<td>9.2</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduce various interesting topics.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adopt the role of a “facilitator”</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Data, 2013. Total number of pupils (N1=87); Total number of trained teachers (N2=255) N/S=Never/Seldom; ST=Sometimes; O/A=Often/Always
As contained in Table 8 majority of the pupils (89.6%) and trained teachers (92.1%) were of the view that trained teachers always show to pupils that they care about them. Similarly, greater number of the trained teachers (91.4%) and pupils (83.9%) admitted that trained teachers provide pupils with positive feedback. The finding is consistent with the views of Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006) who posit that trained teachers must exhibit level of effectiveness in dealing with pupils’ characteristics or behaviour in the classroom since this will strengthen trained teachers’ ability to care about and to understand pupils’ emotional feelings more. Similarly, the finding on trained teachers’ provision of feedback to pupils corroborates with that of Chen (2008) who found out that pupils performed better academically if they felt that their teacher established rules to manage their learning, but at the same time listened to pupils’ opinions toward learning and gave them feedback.

A large chunk of the trained teachers (92.2%) and pupils (87.4%) admit that trained teachers always show their enthusiasm for teaching. Again, 85.0% of pupils and 94.5% of the trained teachers indicated that trained teachers encourage pupils to try harder. The findings are congruent with the submission of Slavin (1990) who commented that teachers must always encourage their pupils to finish their assigned task independently and honestly as possible since this will help in developing pupils’ sense of initiative and creativity which may place them in a position to solve problems in the near future.

Table 8 further shows that 88.5% of pupils and 88.2% of the trained teachers agreed that trained teachers stand in front of the pupils during teaching.
The respondents further agreed that trained teachers recognise pupils’ efforts and achievements. With regards to the establishment of good rapport between pupils and trained teachers majority of the respondents (86.2% pupils and 93.3 teachers) agreed to the issue. The findings are consistent with the view of Alhussain (2012) who suggests that teachers use of appropriate teaching style and motivational strategies and their recognition of pupils efforts and achievement helps in improving pupils’ academic performance. Alhussain further posits that this influence becomes more potent when teachers are able to establish good rapport between them and their pupils.

Majority of the trained teachers (89.8%) and pupils (88.5%) admitted that trained teachers give clear instruction for academic work. Similarly 85.1% of the pupils and 82.0% of the trained teachers agreed that trained teachers avoid social comparisons among pupils. Again, majority of the pupils 88.5% and trained teachers (90.2%) asserted that the grades trained teachers give to pupils reflect their efforts. The findings are consistent with the submission of Guthrie (2009) who indicated that various pupil-centred educational activities and teachers use of clear instructions for academic work has a link with pupil achievement. Saani (2012) also posits that teachers’ avoidance of social comparison among students and their intake of active control of the entire process of instruction that affects pupils learning have a significant influence on pupils’ academic performance.

A large number of trained teachers (88.2%) and pupils (87.4%) agree that trained teachers design task that are within the pupils ability. Majority (90%) of the respondents further agree that trained teachers introduce interesting topics to
them. With regards to trained teachers adopting the role of a facilitator majority of
trained teachers (91.4%) and pupils (83.9%) agree to the idea that trained teachers
are perceived as facilitators. The findings are consistent with the comment of
Farkas (2003) who posits that when teachers use teaching styles that match pupils
preferred learning styles and also when they design tasks that are within the
abilities of the pupil, it helps them to perform better. It influences them to show
more positive attitudes toward learning, more understanding of the content and an
increased ability to transfer what they had learned from one area to another.

Also, the finding that trained teachers adopt the role of a facilitator
supports the views of Opdenakker and Van Damme (2006) who assert that
creating an environment where pupils have a voice allows the trained teacher to
be more of a facilitator of teaching. Teaching styles identify the pupils’ as a major
factor in enhancing pupils’ achievement. The teacher-focused style puts control
for learning in the hands of teachers who resolve what learners learn and how the
teachers use their knowledge in content knowledge to assist pupils in making
relationships.

Research Question Three

What are the challenges confronting public primary school trained teachers
in teaching and motivating their pupils in the classroom?

The third focus of the study was to look at some of the challenges
confronting public primary school trained teachers in teaching and motivating
their pupils in the classroom and to tackle this, four open-ended items were used
to elicit data on the issues. Respondents were to write as many as possible with
regard to some of the challenges they face when teaching or motivating their pupils.

With regard to the challenges trained teachers are confronted with when teaching pupils in the classroom, the respondents stated that teachers are faced with large class size which makes class control, remedial teaching and marking exercises a problem. The respondents further indicated that the preparation of lesson notes, inadequate teaching and learning materials, textbooks are some of the problems they face. Again, furniture and lack of parental support to provide food and writing materials were some of the challenges they face when teaching or motivating their students. Specifically, with regard to challenges trained teachers are confronted with when motivating pupils in the classroom, the respondents added that challenges such as lack of effort towards learning by pupils, misbehaviour of some pupils and delay in giving feedback to pupils were difficulties that they face when motivating their pupils.

The views of the respondents are consistent with that of Mantei and Kervin (2012) who asserted that primary school teachers today operate within a climate of great change with the rapid infusion of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) into schools with the expectation that these be included within classroom experiences. Mantei and Kervin (2012) aver that challenges such as large class size make class control, remedial teaching and marking exercises a problem to teachers. They postulated further that the preparation of lesson notes, inadequate teaching and learning materials, textbooks are some of the common problems teachers face in most public basic schools.
Similarly, the views of the respondents are congruent with the submissions of Anstey and Bull (2012) who aver that the enormous advances in technology have impacted on literacy practices, rendering the tools of reading and writing that pupils used in the past insufficient, although still necessary. Anstey and Bull added that furniture and lack of parental supports with regard to the provision of food and writing materials are some of the challenges pupils in the primary school face in most developing countries.

The study further elicited data on the ways trained teachers can improve upon their teaching styles use in the classroom. Some of the issues raised by the trained teachers were to vary teaching styles, use teaching learning materials, prepare before lesson delivery, educate oneself through workshops, seminars and in-service training and adoption of appropriate measure to control pupils. The views of the respondents corroborate with that of Zeeb (2004) who asserted that teachers can improve upon their teaching styles use in the classroom by varying their teaching styles, make use of appropriate teaching learning materials, and also prepare before lesson delivery. Zeeb added that teachers can educate themselves through workshops, seminars and in-service training and adoption of appropriate measure to control pupils in the classroom.

Lastly, the respondents added that, in order to improve their motivational strategies use in the classroom they must vary their ways of motivating pupils, educating oneself on motivational strategies, involve Parent Teacher Association in educating pupils, use teaching learning materials in lesson delivery and adequate preparation before lesson delivery. The views of the respondents again
is in line with that of Zeeb (2004) who posits that teachers can improve upon their teaching and motivational styles use in the classroom by varying their teaching and motivation strategies respectively. However, Zeeb added that teachers can do that better when they educate themselves through workshops, seminars and in-service training and adoption of appropriate measures to control and motivate pupils in the classroom.

Testing of the Research Hypotheses

The fourth and fifth objectives of the study examine the significant positive relationship between teachers’ teaching styles, motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance. The last objective also examines the influence of teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies on pupils’ academic performance. Even though researchers (Stitt-Gohdes, 2001; Henson, 2004; Hou, 2007) have commented a lot on the relationships that exist between teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies and their pupils academic performance, the literature fails to show clear relationships between the variables and the influence these two main variables have on pupils’ academic performance, especially within the Ghanaian cultural context.

The main focus of the first two hypotheses was to examine the associations that exist among trained teachers teaching styles, motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance. The individual variables were made up of many items as indicated earlier. These items were pulled together with the help of the SPSS Predictive Analytic Software Version 18.0 to form each of the main variables that are: trained teachers’ teaching styles, trained teachers’
motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance. The Pearson Product Moment correlation was used to examined the assume association between the main variables. The results of the assumed association between the main variables are presented in Table 9.

Research Hypothesis One

H₀: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ teaching styles and pupils’ academic performance.

H₁: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ teaching styles and pupils’ academic performance.

Research Hypothesis Two

H₀: There is no statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance.

H₁: There is a statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance.

**Table 9: Relationships among Teachers Teaching Styles, Teachers Motivational Strategies and Pupils Academic Performance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Correlation coefficient (r)</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teachers teaching styles</td>
<td>4.123</td>
<td>0.532</td>
<td>0.574**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers motivational</td>
<td>4.322</td>
<td>0.642</td>
<td>0.564**</td>
<td>0.002</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
strategies                 |

Source: Field Data, 2013. **p<0.01 (n = 342)**

As contained in Table 9, teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies were statistically significant and positively related to pupils’ academic performance. Both trained teachers teaching styles (Mean = 4.123, Std. Dev. =
0.532) and motivational strategies (Mean = 4.322, Std. Dev = 0.642) were perceived positively and high. Trained teachers teaching styles (r = 0.574, p = 0.000) and trained teachers motivational strategies (r = 0.564, p = 0.002) were statistically significant and positively correlated with pupils’ academic performance. Using Ary et al. (2006) suggestion for interpreting correlation coefficient, the associations between trained teachers’ teaching styles, trained teachers’ motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance were high.

In other words, there was positive and strong relationship between trained teachers’ teaching styles and pupils’ academic performance. Similarly, there was a positive and strong relationship between trained teachers motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance. This means, if trained teachers use appropriate and diverse teaching styles and motivational strategies, pupils are likely to perform high in their academic work. Based on the findings, the study therefore rejects the hypothesis since there are statistically significant positive relations among trained teachers’ teaching styles, trained teachers’ motivational strategies and pupils’ academic performance.

The findings corroborate with that of Farkas (2003) who found out that pupils who received a teaching style that matched their preferred learning styles, outperformed better academically as compared to those who had not received such teaching style. Farkas findings further indicated that pupils who received appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies show more positive attitudes toward learning, more understanding of people feelings, and an increased ability to transfer what they had learned from one area to another. Furthermore,
the findings in Farkas’s study asserted that the various forms of teaching styles and motivational strategies adapted and used by the trained teacher increases pupils’ academic performance significantly.

The main focus of the last hypothesis was to examine the influence of teachers teaching styles and teachers motivational strategies on pupils’ academic performance. The individual variables were made up of many items as indicated earlier. These items were pulled together to form each of the variable. The multiple regression analysis was used to test the hypothesis. The results are presented in Table 10.

Research Hypothesis Three

H₀: Teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies do not influence pupils’ academic performance.

H₁: Teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies influence pupils’ academic performance.
As depicted in Table 10, the multiple regression analysis involved testing of the hypothesis that trained teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies do not influence pupils’ academic performance. The two main variables, trained teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies were entered as independent variables in the regression model and they contributed significantly to pupils’ academic performance. The Table further shows that teachers teaching styles ($\beta = 0.393 (0.039), p = 0.001$) contribute more to pupils’ academic performance than trained teachers’ motivational strategies ($\beta = 0.375 (0.032), p = 0.003$). This

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Model One</th>
<th>Model Two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta ($\beta$)</td>
<td>SE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers teaching styles</td>
<td>.393** .039</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers motivational strategies</td>
<td>.375** .032</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers efforts in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies</td>
<td>.372** .029</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>1.753</td>
<td>.661</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R</td>
<td>.437</td>
<td>.541</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R$^2$</td>
<td>.434</td>
<td>.537</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R$^2$</td>
<td>**p&lt;0.01</td>
<td>(n = 342)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dependent variable = Pupils’ academic performance

Source: Field Data, 2013.
means that trained teachers’ teaching styles influence pupils’ academic performance more than that of teachers’ motivational strategies. The first model depicts that the total contribution of the independent variables to the variance in the dependent variable is 0.437 with an adjusted $R^2$ of 0.434. This means that trained teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies are able to predict or explain about 43 percent of the variance in pupils’ academic performance.

It therefore means that besides trained teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies, other factors not yet in the equation have a chance of contributing or predicting about 57 percent to pupils’ academic performance. The result suggests that trained teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies alone do not contribute significantly to pupils’ academic performance, and that they do so when other variables are considered. The findings are congruent with the view of Curtin (2005) who suggested that teachers who adopt an interactive teaching style can better meet the unique needs of their pupils. According to Chang (2005), a constructivist teaching style affects pupils’ perceptions toward physics teaching and learning. Chang further posits that pupils placed more value on having the opportunity to actively participate in group discussions and to examine concepts they learned when they were taught through the constructivist approach rather than the traditional approach. Furthermore, Chang avers that the constructivist approach guides teachers to adapt various forms of teaching styles and motivational strategies that enable them to teach with ease. It also makes it easier for the pupils to imbibe the content of what the teacher is teaching. This in the long run helps in improving pupils’ academic performance.
In the second model, as presented in Table 10, trained teachers’ effort in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies to the learning situation was entered into the model. The theory here is that trained teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies do not influence pupils’ academic performance strongly unless the trained teachers are able to exert effort in transferring the various teaching styles and motivational strategies they have been taught to the teaching and learning situation. When trained teachers’ effort in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies variable was entered into the equation, the beta co-efficient of teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies shrank. However, all the variables were still significant. The percentage shrinkages for trained teachers’ teaching styles were 36.9 percent while that of trained teachers’ motivational strategies was 17.6 percent.

The resultant shrinkages in the beta co-efficient mean that trained teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies on their own do not influence pupils’ academic performance and that they do so only when the teachers are able to exert effort in transferring the various teaching styles and motivational strategies that they have been taught to the teaching and learning situation. However, it is important to observe that the unique proportional contribution of trained teachers’ teaching styles, trained teachers’ motivational strategies and trained teachers’ effort in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies in the classroom to the dependent variable that is pupils’ academic performance was 0.541 with an adjusted $R^2$ of 0.537.
This means that the trained teachers’ teaching styles, trained teachers’ motivational strategies and trained teachers’ effort in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies are able to predict or explain about 54 percent of the variance in pupils’ academic performance. It therefore means that besides these three main variables identified, other variables not yet in the model have a chance of predicting about 46 percent to pupils’ academic performance. The significant increase with regard to the unique proportional contribution of the three entered variables to pupils’ academic performance mean that when teachers are able to exert some level of effort in transferring the various teaching styles and motivational strategies that they have been taught during their training, the predictability of the trained teachers’ teaching styles and motivational strategies becomes more potent on pupils’ academic performance.

The findings corroborate with the comments of Chang (2010) who asserted that the various teaching styles and motivational strategies trained teachers use mostly result to high performance of pupils academically. However, this link emerges when teachers are able to apply appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies that they had acquired through their professional training. Researchers have examined pupils’ perceptions of their trained teachers’ teaching style and suggested that these perspectives are influential in learning (Chang, 2010).
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents the summary of major findings of the study and the conclusions drawn from the study. The key findings are reported, based on the objectives of the study. These are followed by the conclusions and recommendations. The last section provides suggestions for further research.

Summary
The summary of the study is presented in two main sub-topics. The first focused on the overview of the study while the second focused on the main finding of the study. The key findings were presented based on the specific objectives of the study and also the hypotheses tested.

Overview of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the teaching styles and motivational strategies of public primary school trained teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The descriptive survey design was deemed the most appropriate research design to use in conducting the study. A sample size of 342 made up of 255 trained teachers and 87 pupils were captured for the study. The table of random numbers was used first to select 63 public primary schools within the Cape Coast Metropolis. The stratified random sampling was used to select the respondents made up of male trained teachers, female trained teachers and pupils both boys and girls.
An interview schedule for pupils and research questionnaire for trained teachers were the sole data collection instruments. The questionnaire for trained teachers was made up of five sections with 60 items. The interview schedule that was administered to pupils also elicited similar data just as the one that was elicited by the questionnaire. The interview schedule was used basically for triangulation purposes. These instruments constructed by the researcher were piloted at the Komenda-Edina-Eguafo-Abirem Municipal, Central Region.

The data that was collected was first grouped and coded using numerical values (coded manual) for the data view of the Test Analytics for Surveys (TAFS), a tool of Predictive Analytic Software (PASW) Version 18.0. Cross tabulation was used to analyse the background information while frequency and percentage were used to analyse research questions one and two. The first and second research hypotheses were tested using Pearson Product Moment correlation while the third research hypothesis was tested using multiple regression analyses.

**Key Findings**

The first research question of the study explores the various teaching styles used by public primary school trained teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis. The main findings emerged were:

1. Majority of the pupils indicated that the colleagues of the trained teachers and the pupils often compliment the trained teachers on their good manners.
2. Apart from, trained teachers and pupils admitting that pupil’s opinion are always accepted by the trained teachers, majority of both trained teachers and
pupils asserted that trained teachers always encourage their pupils to finish their work independently.

3. Both trained teachers and pupils admitted that trained teachers use caring voice to ask pupils to maintain good behaviour.

4. With regards to creating comfort to pupils in the classroom, greater number of trained teachers and pupils admitted that trained teachers create comfortable atmosphere for pupils.

5. Again, majority of the trained teachers and pupils indicate that trained teachers always explain to pupils in order for them to understand their homework in case they have a problem.

6. Also, majority of the trained teachers asserted that they join pupils to participate in co-curricular activities whiles a chunk of the pupils were of the view that their trained teachers join them to participate in co-curricular activities.

Motivational strategies that are applied in the classroom by public primary school trained teachers were examined as the second research question of the study and the key findings were that:

1. Majority of the pupils and trained teachers were of the view that trained teachers always show to pupil that they care about them.

2. Similarly, greater number of the trained teachers and pupils admitted that trained teachers provide pupils with positive feedback.

3. A large chunk of the trained teachers and pupils admitted that trained teachers always show their enthusiasm for teaching.
4. Again, pupils and trained teachers indicated that trained teachers encourage pupils to try harder.

5. Majority of the trained teachers and pupils admitted that trained teachers give clear instruction for academic work.

6. Similarly, pupils and trained teachers agreed that trained teachers avoid social comparisons among pupils. Again, majority of the pupils and trained teachers asserted that the grades trained teachers gave to pupils reflect their efforts.

7. A large number of trained teachers and pupils agree that trained teachers design task that are within the pupils ability.

The third research question of the study focused on the challenges confronting public primary school teachers in teaching and motivating their pupils in the classroom. The key findings emerged were:

1. With regard to the challenges trained teachers are confronted with when teaching pupils in the classroom, the respondents stated that trained teachers are faced with large class size which makes class control, remedial teaching and marking exercises a problem.

2. The respondents further indicated that the preparation of lesson notes, inadequate teaching and learning materials, textbooks are some of the problems they face.

3. Again, furniture and lack of parental support to provide food and writing materials were some of the challenges they face when teaching or motivating their pupils.
4. Specifically, with regard to challenges trained teachers are confronted with when motivating pupils in the classroom, the respondents added that challenges such as lack of effort towards learning by pupils, misbehaviour of some pupils and delay in giving feedback to pupils were difficulties that they face when motivating their pupils.

5. In relation to what trained teachers can do to improve upon their teaching styles use in the classroom, some of the issues raised by the trained teachers were to vary teaching styles, use teaching learning materials, prepare before lesson delivery, educate oneself through workshops, seminars and in-service training and adoption of appropriate measures to control pupils.

6. Lastly, the respondents added that, in order to improve their motivational strategies use in the classroom they must vary their ways of motivating pupils, educating one on motivational strategies, involve Parent Teacher Association in educating pupils, and use teaching learning materials in lesson delivery as well as adequate preparation before lesson delivery.

With regard to the testing of the research hypotheses, the key findings that emerged were that:

1. Trained teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies were statistically significant and positively related to pupils’ academic performance.

2. Both trained teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies were perceived positively and high.

3. Trained teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies were statistically significant, and positively correlated with pupils’ academic performance.
4. Trained teachers teaching styles contribute more to pupils’ academic performance than trained teacher motivational strategies.

5. Teaching styles and motivational strategies of trained teachers were able to predict or explain about 43 percent of the variance in pupils’ academic performance.

6. Again, teaching styles, motivational strategies and teachers’ effort in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies of trained teachers are able to predict or explain about 54 percent of the variance in pupils’ academic performance.

Conclusions

Trained teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis use appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies which make it easy for them to help boost pupils’ academic performance in the various public schools. However, there are still some challenges confronting these trained teachers in the process of teaching and motivating pupils in the classroom. The results of this study show that the various teaching and motivational strategies used by trained teachers in the various public primary schools within the metropolis do not influence or predict pupils’ academic performance directly. It does so only if trained teachers are able to exert some level of effort in transferring the various teaching styles and motivational strategies that they had acquired and/or learnt during training. If trained teachers are able to transfer such knowledge to their work, they are likely to impact positively to pupils’ academic performance, or even help in boosting
pupils’ academic performance. This will in turn ignite them to be motivated and committed to the teaching profession.

It is therefore necessary for public primary schools to nurture the kind of atmosphere that will support trained teachers in order to use the various teaching styles and motivational strategies. This will help increase pupils’ academic performance significantly in the long run.

One can therefore theorise that, the adoption of effective teaching styles and motivation strategies by teachers do not necessarily lead to effective teaching and learning process and high students’ performance. They do so only when the subjects in question are able to imbibe the concepts of teaching styles and motivational strategies, and also are able to practicalised the said concepts in the classroom situation and the teaching and learning process.

Recommendations

Based on the key findings and conclusions of this study, it is recommended to the heads of the public primary schools teachers to ensure that:

1. Trained teachers use caring voices when teaching in order to make learning interesting for pupils.
2. There is reasonable class size in the school to create room for trained teachers to have concentration on all pupils in the class.
3. The school environment is more conducive to motivate pupils to learn.

It is also recommended to trained teachers that they should ensure that:

1. They engage pupils more during the teaching process (learner-centred).
2. They use time-out strategies to discipline pupils who misbehave in class rather than corporal punishment.

3. Feedbacks will not delay. That is, students exercise must be marked and scored on time to motivate them to learn hard.

4. They prepare well ahead of time in order to deliver as expected.

5. Give room for pupils to come out with their own answers and opinions on issues and listen to them attentively.

6. Distribute questions equitably among pupils when teaching.

7. They transfer the methods and strategies they have imbibed during training to the classroom situation.

Lastly, it is recommended to pupils to exert some level of effort to learn. Furthermore, they must be disciplined and behave appropriately during the teaching and learning process. Again, they must be attentive in class.

**Suggestions for Further Research**

The following related areas can be researched to add up to the knowledge of what this study has achieved. First, there is a need to carry out a comparative evaluation of the contribution trained teachers teaching styles and motivational strategies have on pupils’ academic performance in all pre-tertiary level in the Central Region of Ghana to have a general view of the issues. Secondly, a research should be done to evaluate the contribution of the school’s environment, teacher’s compensation and teacher’s commitment to pupils’ academic performance. Lastly, a comparative study should be done to compare the views of
trained teachers and pupils on the issues of this study from the perspectives of public and private primary schools.
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APPENDICES
APPENDIX A

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM: Teaching styles and motivational strategies of primary school teachers in the Cape Coast Metropolis

INTRODUCTION

Dear Respondent,

This study is being undertaken by a graduate student in the University of Cape Coast. The purpose is solely academic. So, please, answer each item as frankly as possible. You are assured of absolute confidentiality. Please, do not write your name. I wish to thank you so much in advance for your time and cooperation. Please tick [✓] the appropriate answer.

Section: A (Demographic information)

1. Gender of respondent
   1. Male [       ]
   2. Female [       ]

2. Age of respondent
   1. Less than 31 years [       ]
   2. 31 – 35 years [       ]
   3. 36 – 40 years [       ]
   4. 41 – 45 years [       ]
   5. 46 – 50 years [       ]
   6. 51 years and above [       ]
3. What is your highest professional qualification?
   1. Non-professional [   ]
   2. Cert A [   ]
   3. Diploma [   ]
   4. Bachelor’s Degree [   ]
   5. Post-graduate or equivalent [   ]

4. Respondent length of service in the teaching profession
   1. Less than 6 years [   ]
   2. 6 – 10 years [   ]
   3. 11 – 15 years [   ]
   4. 16 – 20 years [   ]
   5. 21 – 25 years [   ]
   6. More than 25 years and above [   ]

5. What is your marital status?
   1. Married [   ]
   2. Single [   ]

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**Section: B (Teachers Teaching Styles used in Class)**

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on teachers teaching styles as you use it in class. Please tick [✓] against the one which applies to your choice of response. Note that one (1) represents the least agreement to the issues while five (5) represents the strongest agreement to the issues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. Statements on teachers teaching styles</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. My colleague teachers and pupils compliment me on my good manners.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Always ask my pupils opinions before making any decisions or rules in the class.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Always share my experience with my pupils.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Respect my pupils’ privacy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Always encourage my pupils to finish their work independently.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section: C (Motivational Strategies used by Teachers in the Classroom)

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on teachers motivational strategies as you use it in classroom. Please tick [✓] against the one which applies to your choice of response. Note that one (1) represents the least agreement to the issues while five (5) represents the strongest agreement to the issues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. Statements on teachers motivational strategies</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Always show to pupils that I care about them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Provide pupils with positive feedback.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Always show my enthusiasm for teaching.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Encourage pupils to try harder.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Stand in front of the pupils during teaching.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Recognise pupils’ effort and achievement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. There is good rapport between my pupils and I.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
h. Give clear instructions for academic work.

i. I avoid social comparison.

j. Grades I give to pupils reflect effort.

k. Design tasks that are within the pupils’ ability.

l. Introduce various interesting topics.

m. Adopt the role of a “facilitator”.

Section D: (Teachers Effort in Transferring Teaching Styles and Motivational Strategies in the Classroom)

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on your effort to transfer training to the workplace: Please, tick [✓] against the one which applies to your choice of response. Note that one (1) represents the least agreement to the issues while five (5) represents the strongest agreement to the issues.

8. Statements on teachers effort in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies in the classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. The knowledge, skills and abilities I acquired with regards to teaching styles, am able to apply at the classroom.

b. The knowledge, skills and abilities I acquired with regards to motivational strategies, am able to apply at the classroom.

c. The course contents in my training are very relevant to my work in the classroom.

d. Due to my knowledge in the use of different of teaching styles, am able to teach pupils effectively.

e. Due to my knowledge in the use of different motivational strategies, am able to teach pupils effectively.

f. My application of the different teaching styles I acquired during training is maximal.
g. My application of the different motivational strategies I acquired during training is maximal.

### Section E: (Pupils Academic Performance)

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on your performance as a result of training and development interventions: Please, tick [✓] against the one which applies to your choice of response. Note that one (1) represents the least agreement to the issues while five (5) represents the strongest agreement to the issues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9. Statements on pupils academic performance as a result of teaching styles and motivational strategies used by teachers in the classroom</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Pupils are able to acquire more information to improve their academic performance.</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. Pupils’ academic performance level has increased as a result of appropriate teaching styles used in the classroom</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. Pupils’ academic performance level has increased as a result of appropriate motivational strategies used in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. The pupils have developed positive attitude towards teaching and learning as a result of the different teaching styles used in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. The pupils have developed positive attitude towards teaching and learning as a result of the different motivational strategies used in the classroom</td>
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<tr>
<td>f. I have developed more skills and efficiency through my use of appropriate motivational strategies in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>g. Developed more skills and efficiency through my use of appropriate teaching styles in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>h. My pupils still need close classroom supervision for their</td>
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<tr>
<td>i.</td>
<td>Due to the appropriate teaching styles I use in the classroom, I am now able to complete my scheme of work on time.</td>
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<tr>
<td>j.</td>
<td>Due to the appropriate motivational strategies I use in the classroom, I can now complete my work faster.</td>
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<tr>
<td>k.</td>
<td>Communication skills with my pupils have improved as a result of appropriate teaching styles I use in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>l.</td>
<td>Communication skills with my pupils have improved as a result of appropriate motivational strategies I use in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>m.</td>
<td>Optimise the use of resources as a result of appropriate use of teaching styles.</td>
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<tr>
<td>n.</td>
<td>Optimise the use of resources as a result of appropriate use of motivational strategies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>o.</td>
<td>Contribute my quota to the achievement of the academic performance objectives of my school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>p.</td>
<td>Effective in the performance of my work as a result of my teaching styles I use in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>q.</td>
<td>Effective in the performance of my work as a result of my motivational strategies I use in the classroom.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Challenges confronting trained teachers in teaching and motivating their pupils**

1. What are some of the challenges you are confronted with when teaching pupils in the classroom?

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2. What are some of the challenges you are confronted with when motivating pupils in the classroom?
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3. What can you do to improve upon your teaching styles use in the classroom?
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4. What can you do to improve upon your motivational strategies use in the classroom?
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APPENDIX B
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOL PUPILS

Section: A (Demographic information)

1. Gender of respondent
   1. Boy [   ]
   2. Girl [   ]

2. Age of respondent
   1. Less than 10 years [   ]
   2. 10 – 12 years [   ]
   3. 12 years and above [   ]

Section: B (Pupils view on Teachers Teaching Styles used in Class)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>6. Statements on teachers teaching styles</th>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Compliment my teacher on his/her good manners.</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. Asks our opinions before making any decisions or rules in the class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. Shares his/her experience with us.</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Respects our personal privacy.</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. Encourages us to finish our work independently.</td>
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<tr>
<td>f. Accepts our opinions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>g. When we accidently make mistakes, our teacher forgives and gives us a chance to fix them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>h. Uses a caring voice to ask us to maintain good behaviours.</td>
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<tr>
<td>i. Creates comfortable atmosphere for us in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>j. Comforts us when we do not perform well academically.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
k. Explains and helps us fully to understand the homework if we have a problem.

l. Listens to us patiently when we go to ask him/her questions.

m. Talks to us about his/her daily life beyond class time.

n. Joins us to participate in extracurricular activities.

### Section: C (Pupils view on Motivational Strategies used by Teachers in the Classroom)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>7. Statements on teachers motivational strategies</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
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<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Shows to us that he/she care about us.</td>
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<tr>
<td>b. Provides us with positive feedback.</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. Shows enthusiasm for teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Encourages us to try harder.</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. Stands in front of us whiles teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>f. Recognises our effort and achievement.</td>
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<td>g. There is good rapport between our teacher and us.</td>
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<td>h. Gives clear instructions to us by modelling.</td>
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<tr>
<td>i. Avoids social comparison.</td>
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<td>j. Our grades reflect our efforts in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>k. Design tasks that are within our ability.</td>
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<tr>
<td>l. Introduces various interesting topics to us.</td>
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<tr>
<td>m. Adopts the role of a “facilitator”.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Section C: (Pupils view on Teachers Effort in Transferring Teaching Styles and Motivational Strategies in the Classroom)

#### 8. Statements on teachers effort in transferring teaching styles and motivational strategies in the classroom

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. The knowledge, skills and abilities my teacher acquired with regards to teaching styles, he/she is able to apply at the classroom.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b. The knowledge, skills and abilities my teacher acquired with regards to motivational strategies, he/she is able to apply at the classroom</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. The course contents in my teachers training are very relevant to his/her work in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Due to my teacher’s knowledge in the use of different teaching styles, he/she is able to teach us effectively.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Due to my teacher’s knowledge in the use of different motivational strategies, he/she is able to teach us effectively.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. My teacher’s application of the different teaching styles, he/she acquired during training is maximal.</td>
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<tr>
<td>g. My teacher’s application of the different motivational strategies he/she acquired during training is maximal</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. It is easy for my teacher to apply to his/her work in the classroom what he/she have learnt during his/her training with regards to different teaching styles.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. It is easy for my teacher to apply to his/her work in the classroom what he/she have learnt during his/her training with regards to different motivational strategies</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Pupils Academic Performance

To what extent do you agree or disagree with each of the following statements on your performance as a result of training and development interventions: Please, tick [✓] against the one which applies to your choice of response. Note that one (1) represents the least agreement to the issues while five (5) represents the strongest agreement to the issues.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements on pupils academic performance as a result of teaching styles and motivational strategies used by teachers in the classroom</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Have acquired more information that has helped me in improving my academic performance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b. My academic performance level has increased as a result of appropriate teaching styles used in the classroom by my teacher.</td>
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<tr>
<td>c. My academic performance level has increased as a result of appropriate motivational strategies used in the classroom by my teacher.</td>
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<tr>
<td>d. Developed positive attitude towards teaching and learning as a result of the different teaching styles used in the classroom by my teacher.</td>
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<tr>
<td>e. Developed positive attitude towards teaching and learning as a result of the different motivational strategies used in the classroom by my teacher.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. My teacher has developed more skills and efficiency through his/her use of appropriate teaching styles and motivational strategies in the classroom.</td>
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<tr>
<td>g. We still need close classroom supervision for our effective classroom activities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>h. Due to the appropriate teaching styles my teacher use in the classroom, he/she is now able to complete his/her scheme of work on time.</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Due to the appropriate teaching motivational strategies my</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
teacher use in the classroom, he/she is now able to complete
his/her scheme of work on time.

j. Due to my teachers teaching styles, he/she can now
complete his/her work faster.

k. Due to my teachers motivational strategies, he/she can now
complete his/her work faster

l. My teacher’s communication skills with us have improved
as a result of appropriate teaching styles he/she uses in the
classroom.

m. My teacher’s communication skills with us have improved
as a result of appropriate motivational strategies he/she uses
in the classroom.

n. My teacher optimises the use of resources as a result of
his/her appropriate use of teaching styles

o. My teacher optimises the use of resources as a result of
his/her appropriate use of motivational strategies.

p. My teacher is now able to contribute his/her quota to the
achievement of the academic performance objectives of the
school.

q. My teacher is now very effective in the performance of
his/her work as a result of the teaching styles he/she uses in
the classroom.

r. My teacher is now very effective in the performance of
his/her work as a result of the motivational strategies he/she
uses in the classroom
Pupils’ comments on the challenges their teachers face in teaching and motivating them.

1. What are some of the challenges your teachers are confronted with when teaching you in the classroom?

2. What are some of the challenges your teachers are confronted with when they are motivating you in the classroom?

3. What do you think your teachers can do to improve upon their teaching styles use in the classroom?

4. What do you think your teachers can do to improve upon their motivational strategies use in the classroom?