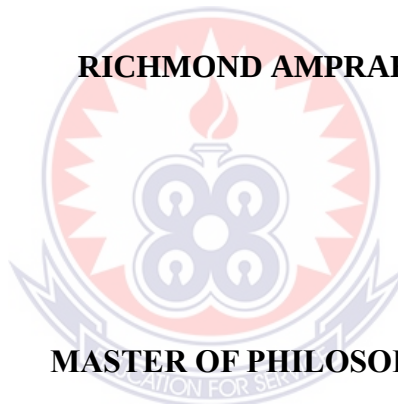


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**Status of transformation geometry learning among Junior High School learners
in Tano South Municipality**

RICHMOND AMPRAH



MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY

2023

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**STATUS OF TRANSFORMATION GEOMETRY LEARNING AMONG
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEARNERS IN TANO SOUTH MUNICIPALITY**



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202146766

**A thesis in the Department of Basic Education, School of Education and Life-
long Learning (SELLL), submitted to the School of
Graduate Studies, in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the award of the degree of
Master of Philosophy
(Basic Education)
in the University of Education, Winneba**

DECEMBER, 2023

DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

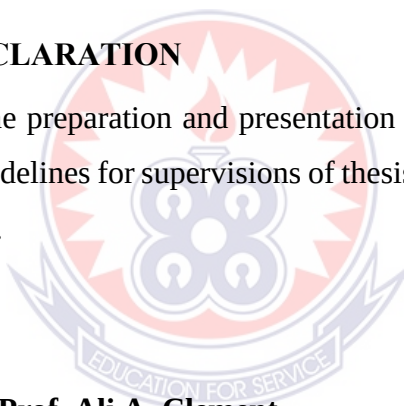
I, **Richmond Amprah**, hereby declare that except reference to other people's works which have been duly cited, this study is my own research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Signature

Date

SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervisions of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.



Principal Supervisor: Prof. Ali A. Clement

Signature

Date

DEDICATION

This work is wholeheartedly dedicated and devoted to my ever-loving and well-treasured father Elder Peter Mensah of Asantekwaa SDA Church, Kintampo in honour and recognition of his labour, toil, and sweat in the process of my entire moral and educational life.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to everyone who supported me in various ways throughout the development of this thesis. First and foremost, my heartfelt thanks go to my supervisors, Prof. Ali A. Clement and Mr. Ahmed Kobina Amihere, for their unwavering support, guidance, and motivation which were instrumental in completing this work. I remain truly indebted to them.

My sincere appreciation also goes to all lecturers in the Department of Basic Education, University of Education, Winneba, for their consistent guidance, encouragement, and the patience they extended during the writing of this script. I am equally thankful to my family for their moral support and for providing the calm environment I needed to complete this thesis.

Above all, I am grateful to God Almighty for granting me the strength, insight, resilience, and the needed resources to bring this project to completion.

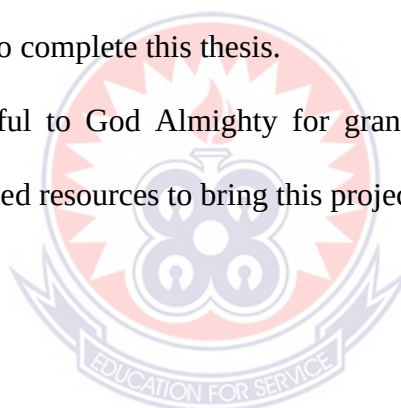


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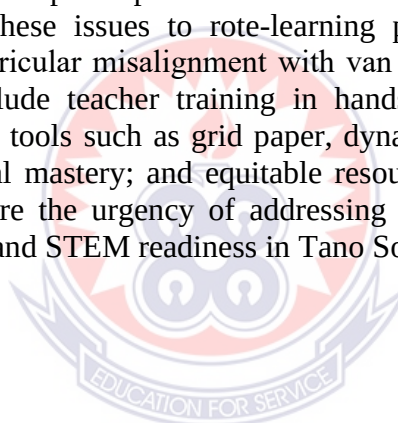
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ABSTRACT

This research explored the difficulties Junior High School (JHS) learners face in learning transformation geometry, specifically rotation, within the Tano South Municipality of Ghana. An concurrent embedded mixed-methods design was employed, integrating both quantitative and qualitative methods. A total of 293 Basic 9 learners participated, with 57% being male and 43% female, selected using simple random sampling for the quantitative aspect and purposive sampling for the qualitative data collection. The instrument of data collection was a 15-item written test aligned with van Hiele's geometric thinking levels, while semi-structured interviews with 8 learners provided deeper insights into learning barriers. The test assessed three van Hiele levels: Visualization (basic recognition), Analysis (informal reasoning), and Abstraction (logical deduction). Results revealed critical underachievement by learners as 91.2% scored below average with no learner achieving above-average marks. Learners stagnated at van Hiele Level 1 (73.3%), demonstrating recognition of rotated figures but inability to analyze properties. Only 5.8% reached Level 2, and none attained Level 3. No gender disparity existed, indicating systemic challenges. Qualitative findings identified key barriers such as confusion between rotation, reflection, and translation poor spatial visualisation and anxiety-driven guesswork. The study attributes these issues to rote-learning pedagogies, limited access to manipulatives, and curricular misalignment with van Hiele's developmental stages. Recommendations include teacher training in hands-on, phased instruction with integration of low-cost tools such as grid paper, dynamic apps, curriculum reforms emphasising conceptual mastery; and equitable resource allocation for technology. The findings underscore the urgency of addressing foundational gaps to enhance geometric proficiency and STEM readiness in Tano South Municipality.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Overview

This chapter includes the background of the study, the problem statement, the aim of the study, research objectives, research question, the study's significance, scope, and the structure of the entire work

1.1 Background to the Study

A key objective of teaching geometry at the basic school level is to foster learners' mathematical reasoning skills and deepen their understanding of the real-world environment (Armah, 2024). To attain this objective, the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) recommends incorporating both coordinate and transformational methods—such as flips, turns, and slides—alongside conventional synthetic strategies. In line with this directive, Ghana's mathematics curriculum transitioned from the traditional deductive Euclidean approach to a more exploratory, transformation-based geometry (Tay, 2023). This shift is rooted in the belief that transformation geometry offers a more intuitive, discovery-based method for learning (Ishartono et al., 2019). Geometry also finds application across diverse disciplines including Astronomy, Architecture, Engineering, and Physics. For instance, expert diamond cutters use geometric understanding to reshape raw stones into brilliant gems, and carpenters apply this knowledge in woodworking and joinery. Juman et al. (2022) define geometry as a mathematical field that addresses points, lines, plane and spatial figures, and the relationships among them. The term "geometry" itself is derived from the ancient Greek words “geo” (earth) and “metria” (measure), highlighting its long-standing origins (Campbell & Hayhurst, 2015).

In Ghana, the structure of basic education spans nine years, culminating in an external national assessment known as the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE). Mathematics is a core subject within this assessment and remains mandatory at both the junior and senior high school levels. The mathematics syllabus incorporates concepts from Algebra, Trigonometry, and Geometry, which are taught concurrently throughout each academic year (Ministry of Education [MoE], 2020). However, reports from the West African Examination Council (WAEC, 2023) reveal that learner achievement in geometry—particularly in the area of transformation geometry involving rotation—has consistently been weak. Between 2016 and 2023, average scores in this topic remained below 20 percent. This trend is concerning and may suggest a lack of foundational geometric skills among learners, including difficulties in visualizing, rotating, or manipulating shapes—key skills needed for mastering transformation geometry. WAEC (2023) further observed that among the three main transformation concepts—rotation, reflection, and translation—rotation posed the greatest challenge. Learners struggled to correctly identify centers and angles of rotation, lines of symmetry, orders of rotational symmetry, and accurately transform figures based on given coordinates and angles.

To better understand these persistent learning challenges, it is helpful to consider the theoretical insights of Van Hiele (1986), whose framework was influenced by Piaget's developmental theory. Van Hiele proposed five progressive levels of geometric reasoning: visualization, descriptive, abstract, formal deduction, and rigor. He identified two primary factors for learners' struggles in geometry:

1. Learners who do not progress through these levels sequentially often fail to grasp concepts meaningfully, relying instead on rote procedures without understanding.
2. A mismatch between the instructional language or materials and the learner's current cognitive level can lead to miscommunication and hinder comprehension.

According to Van Hiele, many learners fail to reach the higher levels of geometric reasoning because instructional content is not properly sequenced to align with their developmental stage. These insights have significant implications for teaching transformation geometry and may explain why many basic school learners encounter difficulties in grasping geometric concepts.

This study applies the Van Hiele model to examine how learners in the Tano South Municipality understand and approach problems involving rotational transformation in geometry. The model provides a useful framework for analyzing how learners engage with geometry in classroom settings and how their struggles might be alleviated through better-aligned instruction.

Several past studies support the relevance of the Van Hiele model to learners' achievement in geometry. Hoffer (1981), Soon (1989), and Corley (2019) each investigated the link between geometric reasoning levels and academic outcomes. Soon (1989), using interviews, questionnaires, and observations, explored whether the Van Hiele levels formed a clear hierarchy in the understanding of transformation geometry. The results confirmed that tasks aligned well with the proposed levels, supporting the notion of a structured developmental sequence.

Similarly, Corley (2019) examined how learners' cognitive levels in geometry, as defined by the Van Hiele framework, influenced their achievement in a traditional high school geometry course. The findings affirmed a strong correlation between Van Hiele levels and academic success. Corley further highlighted that the model serves as an effective tool for assessing learners' readiness for formal geometric instruction.

From both my professional experience as a teacher and anecdotal observations, I believe that the persistent challenges learners face in understanding transformation concepts such as rotation, reflection, and translation have not received sufficient research attention in the Ghanaian context. Hence, this current study seeks to fill that gap by providing insights into the specific difficulties learners encounter with rotation tasks in transformation geometry.

While both Soon (1989) and Corley (2019) affirm the existence of a structured progression in geometric understanding based on the Van Hiele model, they fall short of offering detailed descriptions of the problem-solving processes learners use, or the specific challenges they perceive in learning geometry. This study aims to contribute more deeply to that discussion by analyzing how learners engage with, and struggle through, rotational transformation tasks in the classroom.

In the Tano South Municipality of, the academic achievement of male and female learners in transformation geometry reflects broader gender disparities observed nationally (Wirekoh, 2023). Gender differences in education often arise from differential treatment and expectations informed by societal norms and parental influences (Darko & Gyasi, 2019). In patriarchal contexts like Tano South Municipality, boys frequently receive more substantial educational investments than girls, leading to literacy and achievement gaps. These dynamics particularly manifest in mathematics and

transformation geometry, where self-concept and self-efficacy diverge by gender (Lindberg et al., 2010). Moreover, even when academic achievement is similar across genders, girls often report higher mathematics anxiety and lower self-perceptions of competence (Anokye Poku & Ampadu, 2020).

This research thus explores and outlines the current state of transformation geometry learning within the Tano South Municipality, with a focus on identifying challenges that may impede learners' understanding of transformation geometry specifically the concept of Rotation in Ghana.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In an ideal mathematics classroom, learners develop strong analytical thinking and problem-solving abilities through active engagement with core concepts, including transformation geometry which is a branch of mathematics that examines how figures move and change under translations, rotations, reflections, and dilations. Transformation geometry not only deepens understanding of spatial relationships but also connects abstract ideas to real world applications in architecture, engineering, and computer graphics (Desai et al., 2021; Jablonski & Ludwig, 2023). Moreover, a robust body of research highlights a consistent, predictive relationship between spatial reasoning and overall mathematical achievement, underscoring the centrality of transformation geometry in fostering mathematical proficiency (Resnick et al., 2020; Medina Herrera et al., 2024).

Despite its importance, empirical studies show that many learners struggle to grasp the abstract nature of geometric transformations, particularly in contexts where instructional resources are limited. Junior high learners often exhibit underdeveloped spatial visualization skills, impeding their ability to mentally manipulate shapes and understand

transformational processes (Akkaya Yılmaz, 2022; Kurt et al., 2023). Interventions comparing dynamic versus static visualization approaches in Ghanaian classrooms further reveal that without interactive, technology enhanced representations, learners' spatial reasoning gains remain minimal (Preciado-Baabb & Tay, 2023). These challenges are exacerbated by a lack of differentiated instruction and insufficient scaffolding of visual and hands on learning experiences (Anggraini et al., 2020).

The situation is particularly acute in Ghana's Junior High Schools. Analysis of the 2023 West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) reports indicates that many learners fail to identify centres of rotation, determine orders of symmetry, or accurately map transformed coordinates (WAEC, 2023). In the Ahafo Region, Junior High School learners achieved an average geometry score of just 53.3%, reflecting gaps in both conceptual understanding and spatial reasoning that likely originate in earlier grades (Sam et al., 2024). Compounding this, only 15.9% of prospective mathematics teachers in Ghana reach the deduction level of van Hiele's geometric thinking model, suggesting systemic weaknesses in teacher preparation for teaching transformation geometry (Armah, 2024).

Within the Tano South Municipality, mathematics educators report significant challenges in implementing differentiated instruction tailored to diverse learners' needs, particularly for complex geometry topics that demand strong spatial skills (Kyeremeh, Amoah, & Sabtiwu, 2021). Many teachers lack access to context specific pedagogical strategies and professional development opportunities, resulting in fragmented and largely algorithmic approaches to transformation geometry (Armah, 2024).

Although frameworks such as van Hiele's levels of geometric thinking offer valuable guidance for structuring geometry instruction, there is a lack of localized empirical

research exploring how these models can be effectively applied in the Tano South context. Systematic reviews emphasize the need for detailed scaffolding and technology mediated interventions to help learners progress through van Hiele's phases and achieve deeper geometric understanding (Trimurtini et al., 2022; Jablonski & Ludwig, 2023).

The persistence of these learning gaps has far reached implications such as hindered mathematical progression, limited spatial reasoning capacity, and reduced access to STEM pathways for affected learners (Mensah & Quansah, 2022; Medina Herrera et al., 2024). Consequently, there is an urgent need for a comprehensive study investigating the learning of transformation geometry particularly on rotation among Junior High School learners in the Tano South Municipality. A study as such should examine the academic achievement of learners and identify barriers learners face in learning of transformation geometry, and develop tailored, evidence-based recommendations to enhance transformation geometry learning in this unique educational setting.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was first to investigate the academic achievement of Junior High School learners in the Tano South Municipality regarding the concept of rotation in transformation geometry; and second, to explore the challenges these learners encounter in learning rotation within the broader context of transformation geometry.

1.4 Research Objectives

The study seeks to:

- 1 Assess the academic achievement level of Junior High School learners in the concept of Rotation under Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality.
- 2 Determine the geometric thinking levels of Van Hiele that reflect in Junior High School learners' geometric thinking with focus on rotation.

- 3 Investigate gender differences in academic achievement in Rotation (Transformation Geometry) among Junior High School learners in Tano South Municipality.
- 4 Identify the specific challenges Junior High School learners face when learning the concept of Rotation in Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality.

1.5 Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the academic achievement level of Junior High School learners in the concept of Rotation under Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality?
2. What geometric thinking levels of Van Hiele reflect Junior High School learners' geometric thinking with focus on rotation?
3. What is the difference in academic achievement between male and female learners in Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality?
4. What challenges do Junior High School learners face in learning the concept of Rotation in Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality?

1.6 Hypothesis

The following null hypothesis was tested in the study:

H_0 : There is no statistically significant difference in the academic achievement of male and female learners in Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study offers critical evidence for educational policymakers at both municipal and national levels by pinpointing learners' specific strengths and gaps in understanding rotation, reflection, and translation. By mapping areas of underperformance, the findings can inform the Ghana Education Service and Ministry of Education in revising and

aligning the Junior High School mathematics curriculum to better emphasize hands-on transformation geometry. Moreover, elucidating which instructional resources such as dynamic geometry software or concrete manipulatives that yield the greatest impact will guide targeted allocation of limited funds and professional development grants. Finally, the study's diagnostic insights support the design of competency-based assessment frameworks, ensuring that future evaluative tools accurately capture students' conceptual mastery of transformation geometry across monitoring cycles.

At the classroom level, this research equips teachers and school-based trainers with nuanced information about common misconceptions whether in plotting rotated figures or recognizing lines of symmetry that hinder students' progress. By translating these insights into concrete recommendations, educators can integrate scaffolded lesson sequences, deploy geoboards and interactive visual aids, and structure collaborative learning activities that foster genuine spatial reasoning rather than rote memorization. Furthermore, the disaggregation of performance data by gender and prior achievement shines a light on subgroups requiring additional support, enabling schools to organize targeted peer-tutoring arrangements, remedial geometry clubs, or after-school workshops designed to bolster confidence and conceptual clarity.

Beyond its immediate local relevance, the study extends established models of geometric cognition by situating transformation geometry learning within the lived context of Tano South Municipality. By testing how learners navigate Van Hiele's levels from descriptive identification of shapes to relational reasoning about transformations that the research both validates and refines theoretical thresholds of geometric thinking. Error pattern analysis also contributes to cognitive load theory by revealing which visual complexities impose undue working-memory demands during transformation tasks. Finally, by

foregrounding sociocultural factors such as language of instruction and community attitudes toward mathematics, the study offers a rich case in applying Vygotskian constructivism to geometry education in West African settings, suggesting pathways for theory to more fully account for contextual influences on mathematical learning.

1.8 Delimitation of the Study

Geographically, the study would be conducted in the Tano South Municipality in Ahafo Region of Ghana. The study would also focus on the learning of transformation geometry specifically on the concept of rotation among Junior High School Learners in the Tano South Municipality of Ghana.

1.9 Limitations of the Study

This study utilized a sequential explanatory design, characterized by substantial time and resource investment required to carry out two distinct, back-to-back phases of data collection and analysis. The first being the quantitative, then qualitative which can extend project timelines and strain available resources (Ivankova et al., 2006). Furthermore, because the qualitative phase must be planned and executed in response to findings from the initial quantitative phase, there is an elevated risk of participant attrition between phases and practical challenges in fully designing interview protocols or focus-group guides in advance (Ivankova et al., 2006).

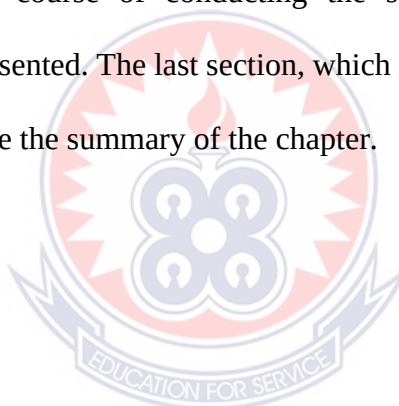
1.10 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one, which is the introduction, captures the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives of the study, research questions, delimitations, and organization of the study. Chapter two deals with the Literature review. Chapter three is the methodology of the study. Chapter four gives details of the results and discussion. Chapter five deals with

the summary, conclusion, recommendations, and limitations of the study. This ends with suggestions for further studies.

1.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter gave an overall background which provided focus and direction for the study. The chapter first presented the learning of geometry in Junior High Schools and its challenges. The problem of the study was then presented which underscored the need for conducting the study. The chapter went further to state the purpose of the study and the specific objectives of the study. This was followed by the research question and hypotheses. The significance of the study was then discussed. The limitation encountered during the course of conducting the study was discussed and the delimitation was also presented. The last section, which is the organisation of the study was then presented before the summary of the chapter.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Overview

This chapter reviews the literature on geometry and, more specifically, transformation geometry, beginning with a justification for including transformation geometry in the school curriculum. It examines the teaching and learning of geometry by defining the core concept of geometric transformation and exploring the specific case of rotation. The review then considers how learners' attitudes toward mathematics are measured and how these attitudes relate to achievement, before moving into an empirical overview that addresses Van Hiele levels of geometric thinking and the particular challenges learners face in transformation geometry. Attention is also given to gender differences in academic achievement and the importance of spatial development specifically spatial perception and visualization as a prerequisite for mastering transformation geometry. The chapter concludes by outlining the van Hiele theory of geometric thinking as its theoretical framework, and then provides a concise summary alongside a final empirical review.

2.1 Geometry and Transformation Geometry

Geometry, a foundational branch of mathematics, involves the study of shapes, spatial relationships, and properties of figures through logical reasoning and measurement (Johnson, 2021). Over time, this discipline has diversified into specialized subfields, including Euclidean geometry, non-Euclidean geometry which explores curved spaces like spherical or hyperbolic geometries, transformational geometry which focuses on analysing symmetries and movements, and applied geometry which focuses on addressing real-world problems in engineering and physics (Smith & Patel, 2023). Other notable branches include projective geometry, vector geometry which is using vectors to

model spatial relationships, and Mensuration geometry which focuses on measurement of lengths, areas, and volumes (Lee et al., 2022).

The practical application of geometric principles dates to prehistoric times. Early humans employed intuitive geometric concepts to solve daily challenges, such as crafting arrowheads, weaving baskets, and constructing pottery with symmetrical designs (Daffer & Clemens, 2017; Thompson, 2020). These activities required an implicit understanding of shape, proportion, and spatial organization. Similarly, ancient civilizations utilized geometry to build shelters, such as huts and tents, and to excavate caves for habitation (Garfinkel et al., 2021). Over millennia, this knowledge evolved into more systematic practices. For instance, ancient Egyptians developed geometric techniques to reestablish farmland boundaries after annual Nile River floods, a process critical to their agricultural economy (Rossi, 2019). The term “geometry,” derived from the Greek words *geo* (earth) and *metron* (measurement), reflects its origins in land surveying (Greenberg, 2020). This discipline eventually expanded beyond practical applications to become a formal science analysing structures composed of points, lines, planes, and their relational properties (Greenberg, 2020; Johnson, 2021).

Euclidean geometry is fundamentally rooted in the study of points, lines, and their spatial relationships, emphasizing distinctions between structures, the planes on which they lie, and the congruency of geometric figures (Greenberg, 2020; Smith & Patel, 2023). In contrast, transformational geometry explores how shapes are systematically altered through operations such as reflections (flips over a line or point), translations (slides along a vector), rotations (turns around a central axis), glide reflections (combined translation and reflection), and magnifications (scaling by a factor) on a coordinate plane (Lee et al., 2022). These transformations are governed by matrices that is mathematical

grids that define the direction, angle, or scale of movement which enables precise mapping of an original shape to its transformed image (Burger, 2012; Baccaglini-Frank & Mariotti, 2020). For instance, rotational transformations reposition a shape around a fixed centre point by a specified angle, producing an image congruent to the original, which can be represented algebraically through coordinate rules or vectors (Gutiérrez & Jaime, 2023). Pedagogically, transformational geometry employs a dynamic, hands-on approach, where learners manipulate physical objects such as paper cutouts, mirrors alongside digital tools like dynamic geometry software (DGS) to visualize and analyse transformations (Fuys et al., 2020; Sinclair et al., 2020). This methodology aligns with the NCTM's (2017) standards, which advocate for active learning through tasks such as constructing models, folding paper to explore symmetry, and using technology to test geometric conjectures. Transformations are broadly categorized into rigid motions (translations, rotations, reflections), which preserve shape and size, and non-rigid motions (e.g., dilations), which alter scale but retain proportionality (Battista, 2022). For example, a 180° rotation (a "half-turn") flips a figure about a central point, while a reflection over a line produces a mirror image, both of which maintain congruency (Lee et al., 2022). Such principles underscore the interconnectedness of geometric theory and practical application, bridging abstract reasoning with real-world problem-solving in fields like architecture and robotics (Smith & Patel, 2023).

In contemporary pedagogy, the teaching and learning of transformational geometry emphasize active learner engagement through tasks involving reflections, translations, rotations, and dilations (Battista, 2022; Lee et al., 2022). These tasks encourage learners to solve problems intuitively by manipulating concrete materials, such as folding paper cutouts to analyse symmetry or constructing models with straws to visualize rotational axes, as advocated by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM, 2017).

For example, when studying rotational transformations, learners identify critical properties like the centre, angle (e.g., 90° clockwise), and symmetry of a figure, often using coordinate grids or DGS to map original shapes to their transformed images (Sinclair et al., 2020). This hands-on approach aligns with constructivist learning theories, where tactile activities such as tracing rotated figures or using mirrors to explore reflective symmetry help learners bridge abstract geometric principles with tangible understanding (Baccaglioni-Frank & Mariotti, 2020). The NCTM (2017) further recommends integrating technology, such as coding platforms or interactive simulations, to model transformations and reinforce connections between algebraic rules and visual outcomes. For instance, learners might use GeoGebra to dynamically adjust a polygon's coordinates after a 180° rotation, observing how congruency is preserved (Gutiérrez & Jaime, 2023). By contextualizing transformations in real-world applications such as designing tessellations or animating digital graphics, educators foster spatial reasoning and problem-solving skills while demonstrating the relevance of geometry in STEM fields (Smith & Patel, 2023).

Through the study of geometry, learners learn to analyse the characteristics and relationships of geometric shapes and structures, fostering spatial reasoning and problem-solving skills (Sinclair & Bruce, 2020). Spatial visualization is the ability to mentally manipulate 2D and 3D objects and perceive them from multiple perspectives which is critical to geometric thinking and has been linked to success in STEM fields (Battista, 2020). Geometry provides a natural context for developing reasoning and justification skills, particularly through proof, which helps learners transition from empirical to deductive argumentation in later grades (Herbst et al., 2019). Geometric modelling and spatial reasoning serve as tools for interpreting real-world environments, enabling learners to solve interdisciplinary problems, such as using symmetry in art or coordinate

systems in navigation (Baccaglini-Frank & Mariotti, 2020). Integrating geometry with other mathematical domains, such as algebra via coordinate graphs or data analysis via histograms, reinforces conceptual connections and supports deeper learning (Boaler, 2016). DGS enhances engagement by allowing learners to interactively explore conjectures, test hypotheses, and visualize transformations, though educators must emphasize that empirical examples alone do not constitute proof (Ng & Sinclair, 2021). Research underscores the role of technology, such as computer animations, in strengthening spatial reasoning and abstract thinking (Clements et al., 2017; Sinclair et al., 2022). Early geometric understanding begins with tactile experiences: young learners classify shapes by observable properties, such as recognizing that rectangles tile efficiently due to their right angles (Cross et al., 2021). As learners' progress, they analyse abstract attributes such as side lengths, angles and formalize relationships such as congruent diagonals in rectangles, culminating in deductive reasoning about similarity, congruence, and axiomatic systems in secondary grades (Stylianides & Stylianides, 2018). This trajectory from informal exploration to formal proof aligns with established learning progressions (van Hiele, 1986) and modern frameworks emphasizing active exploration, teacher-guided discourse, and iterative refinement of ideas (Leung et al., 2020). Ultimately, geometry education cultivates not only mathematical proficiency but also critical thinking, creativity, and the ability to "see" structure in the physical and abstract world (Sinclair & Patterson, 2018).

At all levels, learners should learn to formulate and justify conjectures through logical reasoning, progressing from informal explanations to formal proofs (Herbst et al., 2016). This process involves describing relationships within geometric systems, representing them through multiple modalities and constructing evidence-based arguments (Stylianides & Stylianides, 2018). Central to this development is understanding the role

of definitions, axioms, and theorems as foundational tools for validating geometric claims (Baccaglini-Frank et al., 2019). Spatial reasoning begins early, with young children exploring relative positions (e.g., near, between) and later using coordinate grids to locate objects and calculate distances along axes, a skill critical for algebraic problem-solving (Verdine et al., 2017). By middle grades, coordinate systems enable learners to analyse geometric properties (e.g., symmetry, slope) and connect geometry to algebra through dynamic representations (Battista, 2018). Research underscores the importance of iterative refinement: learners initially rely on empirical observations such as measuring angles in triangles but gradually adopt deductive reasoning to generalize patterns into proofs (Leung et al., 2020). This progression aligns with the learning trajectories framework, which emphasizes scaffolded experiences from tactile explorations such as grid navigation to abstract analyses to build spatial and logical competence (Clements et al., 2020). Ultimately, integrating coordinate geometry with other representational systems empowers learners to model real-world phenomena, such as urban planning or robotics, while reinforcing interdisciplinary mathematical habits of mind (Sinclair & Patterson, 2018).

Finding distances between points in the plane whether by reading map scales or by applying the Pythagorean theorem plays a crucial role in middle-grade mathematics. Analytic methods allow lines (in middle school) and more complex shapes like triangles and circles (in high school) to be described using coordinates, thereby linking algebraic and geometric ideas (Battista, 2020). Students should become familiar with various diagrammatic and coordinate-based tools to tackle mathematical problems. For instance, elementary pupils often model whole-number addition on a number line (Sinclair et al., 2021), and later extend that same line to represent operations with other number types. In grades 3–5, grid-and-array models support the understanding of multiplication, paving

the way for tackling more sophisticated tasks (Verdine et al., 2017). A practical middle-school example might ask learners to calculate the shortest street distance an ambulance travels to a hospital, whereas in high school they might compare the most direct flight path between two cities as shown on a flat map versus a globe. To optimize a multi-city road trip, students could employ vertex-edge graphs (Stylianides & Stylianides, 2018). In upper grades, Cartesian coordinates become essential not only for solving such problems but also for formally proving their solutions.

Transformations and symmetry begin with children's intuitive sense that shapes can be slid, flipped, or rotated. Early activities such as using mirrors, folded paper, and traced outlines introduce these ideas informally, which later evolve into precise, systematic descriptions (Leung, 2022). By grades 3-5, pupils investigate how transformations affect figures and learn the vocabulary and properties needed to define them in mathematical terms. Dynamic geometry software can help them specify, for example, the center, direction, and angle of a rotation. Middle-grade students should recognize that translations, rotations, and reflections all preserve distances, and high school students should learn to express these transformations in multiple ways including matrix representations on the coordinate plane and function notation while exploring how composites of transformations behave (Baccaglini-Frank et al., 2020). Across all levels, exploring symmetry deepens both mathematical insight and aesthetic appreciation (Clements et al., 2021).

From the earliest years, hands-on encounters with geometric shapes and technology that lets students manipulate two- and three-dimensional objects foster spatial visualization (Mix et al., 2022). As they progress, learners grow adept at sketching different perspectives, counting unseen components, and inferring hidden attributes of shapes.

They develop systematic strategies for changing an object's position, orientation, and scale—foundational for grasping congruence, similarity, and transformations. One strand of spatial reasoning involves shifting between 2D patterns (nets) and the 3D solids they form: elementary pupils experiment by folding paper nets into blocks (Lowrie et al., 2019), and by the middle grades they can read and draw top or side views, such as constructing a model from only its front and side elevations (Battista, 2018). In grades 3–5, students might investigate whether multiple assemblies satisfy those views and determine the minimal number of blocks required. High school learners extend this further by visualizing and sketching various cross-sections of a wide array of geometric solids (Clements et al., 2021).

2.2 Rationale for the Inclusion of Transformation Geometry into the School Curriculum

The discussion over how geometry should be taught intensified in the mid-1800s when it was shifted from college to secondary schools without a corresponding realignment of its syllabus. Although younger learners were now the audience, the content remained largely unchanged. Since that time, various commissions have proposed a spectrum of reforms aimed at modernizing geometry instruction, yet few of these recommendations have been systematically incorporated into everyday classroom practice, in part due to resistance to substantive change (Allendoerfer, 2018). William's (2018) research underscores that Euclid's axiomatic approach retains considerable cultural prestige, even as students continue to struggle with proof writing and problem solving—a trend documented by Usiskin (2013) and Hoffer (2016). It was largely for these reasons that curricula in many countries began to introduce transformation geometry as an alternative emphasis.

During the 1960s and 1970s, numerous international organizations and individuals advocated for transformation geometry's inclusion in basic-school mathematics (Usiskin, 1983). Notable examples include the Cambridge Conference Committee on the Goals of School Mathematics (1963) and the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education's Geometry Committee (1967), both of which recommended that transformation concepts be taught at every level, accompanied by rationales for their adoption. In his influential 1969 article "Dilemma in Geometry," Allendoerfer argued that understanding reflections, rotations, and translations should be central goals of geometry courses, and even suggested that elementary pupils be introduced to coordinate methods and linear equations (as cited in Soon, 2012). Usiskin (1971) similarly asserted that transformation serves as a unifying theme in secondary mathematics, while Peterson (2013) praised its dynamic nature for fostering an intuitive, exploratory approach. Fletcher (2015) further noted that engaging with transformations helps students grasp abstract ideas such as congruence, symmetry, similarity, and parallelism thereby enriching their spatial reasoning and mathematical imagination. Schuster (1973) and Pickreign (2010) also recognized transformation as a solid foundation for later mathematical concepts.

Transformation geometry offers several pedagogical and conceptual benefits. Specifically, it:

- Introduces the notion of mapping and function in a natural context
- Provides a tangible basis for early studies of vectors
- Supplies a straightforward route to the concept of congruence
- Demonstrates how physical spatial relationships can be abstracted into isometric transformations, illustrating the mathematization of the real world (Schuster, 2013)

Coxford (2013) further identified key roles of transformation:

- It reveals structural parallels between algebraic/arithmetic entities and geometric figures
- It emphasizes the power of abstraction and the importance of shared mathematical structures
- It can be visualized through slides, reflections, translations, and dilations, or expressed algebraically via matrices, thereby highlighting algebra–geometry interplay
- Pedagogically, it aligns with students’ intuitive ideas and grants them creative freedom in constructing proofs

According to the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) Standards, transformation geometry merits inclusion in school curricula because it promotes geometric investigation and cultivates abstraction and generalization skills. From my perspective, if a geometry course truly achieved its transformation objectives, learners would emerge with a working understanding of transformational terminology and methods, capable of applying these ideas to both personal and societal problems. Yet, evidence suggests that many students complete geometry courses without even basic familiarity with transformation concepts (Coxford, 2013), highlighting an urgent need for researchers and educators to examine and improve how both classical and transformation geometries are taught and learned.

2.3 Teaching and Learning of Geometry

Geometry instruction can take many forms, with the choice of activity driven by lesson goals. Such tasks significantly shape students’ geometric understanding. A foundational

strategy is using diagrams to convey and clarify concepts and relationships. Schwartz and Heiser (2006) assert that diagrams bolster learners' spatial reasoning, so teachers must skillfully craft visual representations and guide pupils in interpreting the geometrical relationships they depict.

Yerushalmy, Chazan, and Gorgon (1990) examined how high-school students use diagrams in geometry by implementing an inquiry-based approach with "Geometric Supposers" from 1984 to 1988. They identified three diagram-related obstacles: overly specific figures, confusion between novel and standard diagrams, and multiple valid interpretations of a single drawing. Comparing students who did and did not use the Supposer across several schools, they found those with Supposer experience demonstrated superior diagram comprehension.

Noss, Healy, and Hoyles (1997) explored spatial reasoning's role in geometry learning through Microworld Mathsticks a tool linking physical manipulations to symbolic representations. In a two-student case study, they discovered that learners' visualizations not only helped them interpret spatial scenarios but also supported the translation of those insights into algebraic relationships.

Jones, Fujita, and Ding (2006) investigated geometry pedagogy in China and Japan, emphasizing models that integrate geometric concepts, deductive logic, and problem-solving across contexts. They concluded that robust teaching models underpinned by well-designed tasks and instructional supports are crucial for deepening students' geometric reasoning.

Games also present powerful geometric activities. Herbst, Gonzalez, and Macke (2005) studied a "Guess My Quadrilateral" game with two high-school classes (53 students). After pre-testing, students spent three weeks exploring a neighborhood of quadrilaterals,

focusing on distinguishing each shape from its neighbors. Post-game analysis showed learners used diagram properties to draw, rather than merely describe, quadrilaterals, indicating enhanced conceptual grasp.

Foster and Shah (2015) assessed the year-long impact of three games taught via the Play–Curricular Activity-Reflection-Discussion (PCaRD) model in a senior high school setting. Using mixed methods with experimental and control groups, and pre- and post-tests, they reported that PCaRD not only boosted students’ geometric achievement but also helped teachers integrate games into their pedagogy.

Investigating learners’ cognitive strategies, Moscucci et al. (2005) studied how 105 Italian third-graders reason about isosceles triangles. They found that the orientation of a drawing influenced students’ naïve measurement methods and that brief activities yielded better conceptual understanding.

Marchett, Medici, Vighi, and Zaccomer (2005) explored fourth- and fifth-grade pupils’ reasoning about area and perimeter with two worksheets. Among 130 Italian students, they observed that learners more readily compared areas than perimeters and were often misled by visual appearances. Pupils preferred single-shape tasks over comparative ones and adopted more effective strategies for area problems.

At the university level, Kaisari and Patronis (2010) examined how undergraduates develop models of elliptic geometry. Over a semester, learners reformulated Euclid’s axioms and collaborated on geometric constructions, demonstrating that contextualized activities and peer interaction deepen understanding of both classical and non-Euclidean geometry.

Circle geometry research remains limited but insightful. Canada and Blair (2006) tasked learners and pre-service teachers with constructing intersections between a circle and square. Despite imperfect drawings, participants identified up to three intersection points and, with precision, even six. Their work showed that accuracy in diagramming directly affects learners' ability to conjecture and prove geometric properties.

Neel-Romine, Paul, and Shafer (2012) engaged sixth-grade students in drafting and critiquing circle definitions. Working in groups, pupils proposed everyday descriptions ("looks like a coin") before refining them into accurate mathematical definitions. Although many initially struggled to state equidistance for a radius, iterative activities enabled them to articulate correct properties.

Finally, González and DeJarnette (2013) used a problem-based lesson to cultivate reasoning with circle problems. Twenty-two students, having learned all prerequisite concepts, applied multiple strategies such as marking right angles, drawing auxiliary lines, and invoking the Pythagorean theorem to solve a single task. The study demonstrated that well-structured problems encourage analysis, strategic planning, conceptual connections, and reflection.

2.4 The concept of Geometric Transformation

Geometric transformations encompassing translation, reflection, and rotation form the cornerstone of Euclidean geometry, enabling the manipulation of figures while preserving or altering spatial properties such as distance, angle, and orientation (Jones, 2021). These operations are foundational to mathematical reasoning and critical to modern technological applications, from robotics to computer graphics. Below is an expanded analysis of their characteristics, pedagogical approaches, challenges, and interdisciplinary relevance.

A translation displaces every point of a figure by a fixed vector $\vec{v}=(a,b)$ maintaining distances and angles, thus qualifying as an isometric transformation (Jones, 2021). For example, translating a polygon by $\vec{v}=(2,-3)$ repositions each vertex (x,y) to $(x+2,y-3)$, with the zero vector preserving the figure's original location (Brown, 2019). The vector's direction dictates the movement's path (e.g., horizontal, vertical, or diagonal), while its magnitude determines displacement distance (Nguyen, Smith, & Lee, 2022). Pedagogically, translations are often introduced using dynamic geometry software like GeoGebra, which allows learners to visualize real-time shifts and experiment with vector components, fostering spatial reasoning through interactive exploration (Dahal, Shrestha, & Joshi, 2022). Studies show that such tools help learners internalize abstract concepts like coordinate mapping and invariants by linking algebraic representations to geometric outcomes (Chen, Wang, & Kim, 2020). However, challenges persist in contexts requiring non-integer vectors or 3D translations, where learners may struggle with extrapolating 2D intuition to higher dimensions (Khan & Ali, 2022).

A reflection flips a figure over a line (or plane in 3D), preserving distances but reversing orientation (García & Nguyen, 2021). For instance, reflecting point $P(x,y)$ over the y -axis maps it to $P(-x,y)$, with the axis acting as the perpendicular bisector of segments connecting original and reflected points (Chen et al., 2020). While reflections maintain side lengths and angles, they invert directional properties, such as rotational order, posing challenges when applied to diagonal axes or composite transformations (Lestari, Suryadi, & Dahlan, 2020). Tactile strategies, like using mirrors or folding paper, help ground these abstract concepts in physical manipulation, addressing misconceptions about symmetry and congruence (Patel, 2019). Cooperative learning models, such as the Learner Teams Achievement Division (STAD), have also proven effective in fostering conceptual clarity by encouraging peer discussions and collaborative problem-solving

(Lestari et al., 2020). For example, group activities where learners derive reflection rules for non-vertical axes or analyze tessellations in Islamic art enhance both procedural fluency and contextual understanding (Jones, 2021).

A rotation pivots a figure around a central point by a specified angle θ , preserving shape and size (Gupta, Sharma, & Patel, 2020). Defined by a center C and angle θ , rotations can be decomposed into two successive reflections over intersecting lines, with the rotation angle equal to twice the angle between the lines (Park & Singh, 2019). For example, rotating a triangle 90° about the origin repositions vertices via matrix operations, a concept integral to robotics and animation for simulating smooth motion (Walter, Thompson, & Harris, 2021). Interactive platforms like Desmos enable learners to adjust sliders for angle and center parameters, bridging theoretical principles with real-time feedback (Mueller, Adams, & Lee, 2023). Despite these tools, learners often grapple with visualizing 3D rotations, particularly when reconciling Euler angles with quaternion representations in computer graphics (Khan & Ali, 2022). Scaffolded instruction such as starting with protractor-based manual rotations before progressing to digital simulations helps mitigate these difficulties by building incremental complexity (Lestari et al., 2020; Jones, 2021).

Teaching geometric transformations requires addressing persistent conceptual hurdles. For translations, learners may conflate vector direction with coordinate axes, leading to errors in composite translations (Jones, 2021). Reflections often elicit confusion about orientation reversal, especially with diagonal axes, necessitating multimodal approaches that combine tactile, visual, and algebraic representations (García & Nguyen, 2021). Rotations pose challenges in linking angular measures to coordinate transformations, particularly in non-Euclidean contexts (Khan & Ali, 2022). To address these, curricula

increasingly integrate transformations with algebra and physics. For instance, linking rotation matrices to torque calculations in physics helps learners appreciate their real-world utility (Lestari et al., 2020; Jones, 2021).

Professional development programs emphasize the transition from novice to expert teaching practices, as outlined in the expert-novice framework (Jones, 2021). Expert teachers leverage dynamic tools like GeoGebra to create "action, production, and communication" spaces where learners reinvent transformations through guided exploration (Dahal et al., 2022). Such environments align with Realistic Mathematics Education (RME) principles, which prioritize experiential learning through meaningful contexts, such as designing tessellations or simulating planetary motion (Lestari et al., 2020). Additionally, AI-driven platforms like Khanmigo are emerging as personalized tutors, using Socratic dialogue to probe learner reasoning and address misconceptions in real time (Mueller et al., 2023).

Transformations underpin advancements in diverse fields. In computer graphics, translation and rotation matrices drive 3D modeling and animation, while reflections generate symmetrical textures in game design (Walter et al., 2021). Robotics relies on transformation hierarchies to calculate joint movements and spatial trajectories, with quaternion rotations ensuring smooth interpolations (Mueller et al., 2023). Architecture employs reflections and rotations to optimize structural aesthetics and functional layouts, as seen in geodesic domes and fractal-based designs (Park & Singh, 2019).

2.5 The Concept of Rotation in Geometric Transformation

A rotation is defined as a transformation that turns a figure around a fixed point, called the centre of rotation, by a specific angle and direction, either clockwise or counterclockwise. Unlike translations, which slide a figure, or reflections, which flip it,

rotations preserve the shape and size of the original figure, making them rigid transformations (Johnson et al., 2022). For instance, rotating a triangle 90 degrees around one of its vertices does not alter its side lengths or angles—it simply changes its orientation in space. Three key components define a rotation: the centre of rotation, the fixed point about which the figure turns; the angle of rotation, measured in degrees (e.g., 45°, 180°); and the direction, which determines whether the movement follows a clockwise or counterclockwise path (Lee, 2019). These elements work together to reposition the figure while maintaining its intrinsic geometric properties. For simplicity, high school curricula often focus on common rotations like 90°, 180°, and 270°, which have straightforward coordinate rules. A 90° counterclockwise rotation (or 270° clockwise) transforms (x,y) to $(-y,x)$, while a 180° rotation flips both coordinates to $(-x,-y)$. A 270° counterclockwise rotation (or 90° clockwise) changes (x,y) to $(y,-x)$ (Smith & Jones, 2023). These rules help learners visualize how figures move on a grid without altering their dimensions.

Rotations exhibit critical geometric properties. First, they preserve *congruence*, meaning the rotated figure is identical in size and shape to the original (NCTM, 2021). Second, the centre of rotation remains fixed, serving as the anchor for the transformation. Third, unlike reflections, which reverse orientation (e.g., turning a “b” into a “d”), rotations maintain the original orientation unless combined with other transformations (Carter & Richards, 2020). These properties make rotations essential in fields requiring precision, such as engineering and architecture.

The real-world relevance of rotations is vast and observable in everyday phenomena. Clock hands rotate around the clock’s centre, gymnasts perform mid-air spins, and gears in machinery rotate to transfer motion and energy (Brown, 2018). In technology,

rotations are vital to computer-aided design (CAD) software and video game graphics, where 3D animators use rotation matrices to simulate object movement in virtual environments (Davis, 2021). Even celestial movements, such as the Earth's rotation on its axis, exemplify this concept on a planetary scale. In coordinate geometry, learners often practice rotating polygons like triangles or quadrilaterals on graph paper. For example, rotating triangle ABC with vertices at A(1,2), B(3,4) and C(5,2) 90° counterclockwise around the origin involves applying the formula $(x,y) \rightarrow (-y,x)$. The new coordinates become A'(-2,1) B'(-4,3) and C'(-2,5) demonstrating how the triangle's position changes while its dimensions remain identical (Lee, 2019). Such exercises reinforce the connection between algebraic formulas and geometric visualization.

Rotations also frequently combine with other transformations, such as translations or reflections, to create composite transformations. For example, a figure might be translated (shifted) and then rotated, or reflected and then rotated. These combinations are foundational to robotics, where a robotic arm might rotate and translate simultaneously to place objects accurately (Thompson, 2022). Understanding composite transformations prepares learners for advanced topics in physics and calculus, where multiple motions interact.

Despite its practicality, learners often face challenges in visualizing rotations, particularly in three dimensions. Common errors include confusing clockwise and counterclockwise directions, misplacing the centre of rotation, or neglecting to apply the rotation to all vertices of a polygon (Johnson et al., 2022). Teachers address these misconceptions using hands-on tools like tracing paper or digital apps such as GeoGebra,

which allow learners to dynamically manipulate figures and observe rotational effects in real time (Hohenwarter et al., 2021).

2.6 Measurement of Attitude toward Mathematics

The measurement of attitude towards mathematics dates back to Thurstone's method for attitude assessment in 1929 (Leder, 1985). Thereafter, a number of different instruments have been employed by mathematics education researchers. Leder (1985) opines that, in order for one to understand why such variety of instruments to measure attitude to mathematics have been developed, it is essential to consider the components within the definition of attitude. In an attempt to discuss various attitude toward mathematics measurement instruments Leder (1985) identified quantitative approaches such as Thurstone's scales, summated rating scales (Likert-type scales) and semantic differential scales. Other qualitative approaches include: interviews, observations, interest inventories and check lists, preference ranking, projective techniques, enrolment data and other forms of data such as clinical and anthropological methods. Considering the calibre of participating learners in the study: learners from low socio-economic status who have some level of difficulty comprehending write ups in English as well as expressing themselves entirely in English, the researcher employed the qualitative approach for the measurement of learners' attitude toward Geometry (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2012). The qualitative approach has a number of advantages, making it suitable for this study. Its advantages include maintenance of the natural setting; the researcher being the key instrument; possibility of multiple sources of data; inductive and deductive data analysis; ensuring participant's meaning etc. (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This study made use of written and oral interview to collect data on the attitude of learners towards Geometry. Also, the attitude of learners who participated in the geometry lessons supported with music was also measured using interviews. With interviews, the researcher works

inductively and deductively. Inductively, the researcher builds patterns, categories and themes in a bottom-up manner, organizing data in more abstract units of information (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The inductive process is usually characterized by the back-and-forth movement between the themes and the database until comprehensive set of themes are arrived at. The deductive process occurs when the researcher looks back to the data from the themes to determine if more evidence could be gotten to support each theme or to gather more information. Thus, both inductive and deductive data analysis goes on complementarily. Interviews also help the researcher to keep focus on the participant's meaning that they hold about the research problem. It does not focus on the meaning that the researcher brings to the study nor the meaning expressed by the body of literature (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

2.7 Learners' Achievements in Mathematics

It is generally known that learners' achievement in mathematics at all levels is becoming an issue of concern to all and sundry. Regarding the reasons assigned to such low-achievement of learners, Kushwaha, Education, College, & Hathras (2014) argue that mathematics achievement is determined by various variables that are psychological, social, cognitive entry behaviour, instructional and many more. Literature has enough data to buttress the relationship between the afore listed variables and achievement in mathematics. For instance, Yeh, Cheng, Chen, Liao, and Chan (2019) opine that the dominance of the teacher-centred approach in mathematics classrooms accounts for the significant percentage of low-achievement of learners in mathematics. This opinion may be questionable in situations where learners' achievements are low in spite of teachers' use of child-centred teaching methods. These variations simply suggest that the factors that lead to low achievement in mathematics are varied. Besides, cognitive entry behaviour refers to the pre-learning required to learn specific content matter has been

considered as key indicator of the level of learning attainable by learners at any given level (Çalışkan, 2016). Çalışkan points out how significantly cognitive entry behaviour explains the extent of achievements in learners. Yunt as cited in Çalışkan (2016) posits that cognitive entry variables have a much stronger effect on achievement level than those of an affective nature. This assertion by Yunt may have to be subjected to more tests to ascertain its validity anyway. Holding achievement motivation (an affective entry characteristic) constant, Yunt concluded that the achievement levels of learners with high cognitive entry behaviours were higher than those of the other learners. Simply put, Yunt concluded that when the effect of cognitive entry behaviours was kept constant, achievement motivation did not have a significant effect on learning level. Aside cognitive entry behaviour being a determining variable as far as achievement in mathematics is concerned, the heterogeneous nature of a typical mathematics classroom accounts partly to the level of achievement. Each mathematics classroom is characterized by mixed ability learners. Hence, learners' demonstration of different levels of achievement, although they are taught by the same teacher under the same conditions (Yeh, Cheng, Chen, Liao & Chan, 2019). The low achieving learners are left with the option of receiving knowledge passively. It is against this backdrop that Barr and Tagg (1995) as cited in Yeh et al. (2019) posit that it has become very necessary to create more opportunities for low-achieving learners to learn in school. The literature is replete with a number of teaching approaches in mathematics education that have been advocated for as alternative to the conventional methods. ICT integration, one of the effective approaches known from research has been embraced across the globe (Corbett, 2014; Skryabin, Zhang, Liu, & Zhang, 2015; and Eickelmann, Gerick, & Koop, 2016). Some have questioned the feasibility of some ICT resources due to difficulty of access by some communities, thus, limiting its use within some contexts. This limitation makes room for

the use of mathematical games as an alternative teaching approach (Yeh et al., 2019). The fact remains that, even some mathematical games need ICT to implement. Arts integration (An, et al., 2014; Buxton, 2017; Civil, 2007; Holmes & Hallam, 2017; Still, 2014; Yoho, 2011; An, Capraro, & Tillman, 2013; Duma & Silverstein, 2014; Press, 2016; Trinick, Ledger, Major, & Perger, 2016), presents another suitable alternative when access to modern technological approaches become problematic. The integration of arts as teaching strategies has proven to be useful in virtually all contexts. This study seeks to beef up empirical evidence in this regard. In consonance with most researchers, attitude toward mathematics remains a significant determinant of mathematics achievement (Kushwaha et al., 2014). Thus, giving the same learning environment, teachers, text books, home conditions, etc., different learners will achieve differently due to different attitudes toward the subject-mathematics. The general observation is that, learners who demonstrate positive attitude towards mathematics end up with high scores when compared with their counterparts who exhibit negative attitude towards mathematics. A close study of mathematics achievements of learners in Ghana indicates a gloomy picture. A nine-year trend analysis capturing WASSCE examination for the years 2007 to 2016 makes the case for low achievement clearer (Abreh, Owusu, & Amedahe, 2018). Furthermore, Mereku (2012), as cited in Mills and Mereku (2016), indicates that learners' ongoing low achievement in mathematics has been corroborated by data from national large-scale assessments such as the BECE and WASSCE.

Internationally, the challenge is even more pronounced, as Anamuah-Mensah et al., as cited in Mills and Mereku (2016), have demonstrated. Faced with this persistent underachievement, Mills and Mereku (2016) assert that Ghanaian learners' failure to attain higher national and international benchmarks demands immediate remedial action. To them, learners should, as a matter of urgency, be assisted to build a sound foundation

in the mastery of fundamental knowledge and skills required to solve more cognitively demanding problems. The practicality of such measures calls for all stakeholders to play active roles in curbing the situation to an appreciable level. The assertion of Mills and Mereku (2016) simply implies that, mathematics teachers have no business bothering learners on cognitive demanding mathematical problems if learners have not mastered the fundamental facts (Willingham, 2009).

2.8 Empirical Review

2.8.1 Learners Academic Achievement in Transformation Geometry

Imami (2023) investigated learners mathematical communication ability on transformation geometry. The purpose of this study was to determine the level of mathematical communication ability of high school learners in the subject of transformational geometry. The population in this study were learners of class XI at one of senior high school in Karawang. The sample selection was carried out by means of purposive sampling. This study uses a qualitative descriptive approach, with analytical techniques: (1) data reduction, (2) data presentation, (3) drawing conclusions. The results of this study are that learners' mathematical communication abilities on transformation geometry material in one of the high school schools in Karawang district are in the sufficient category with an average value of 49%. One indicator of communication skills that should get more attention is the ability of learners to connect real events or the application of mathematics to everyday life in the form of mathematical ideas.

Ada and Kurtuluş (2010) investigated third-year preservice mathematics teachers' achievement in two-dimensional transformation geometry at Eskisehir Osmangazi University, Turkey, by administering a seven-item diagnostic exam which were three procedural, two conceptual, and two hybrid procedural–conceptual questions to 126

learners who had completed an analytic geometry course taught by the researchers. Using a descriptor code key to categorize errors, they found that although learners generally recalled the algebraic algorithms for translations and rotations, they struggled to connect these procedures to their geometric meanings: rotation, in particular, posed significant difficulties, with many learners misidentifying rotation centres, misapplying angle conventions, and misplacing rotated images. Moreover, on hybrid items requiring both execution and justification, learners could perform the necessary coordinate computations but failed to articulate why those steps effected the intended transformations.

2.8.2 Van Hiele Geometric Thinking Level of Learners

Bashiru and Nyarko (2019) carried out a study to assess the Van Hiele levels of geometric thinking achieved by Ghanaian JHS 3 learners before they sat for the BECE. Using a quantitative design, they randomly sampled 105 students from four different schools. Results revealed that 22 learners (20.95%) remained at level 0, 65 (61.91%) reached level 1, 17 (16.19%) attained level 2, and just 1 (0.95%) achieved level 3. An independent-samples t-test showed no significant difference in geometric thinking levels between public and private school students, $t(103) = 0.926$, $p > 0.05$. These findings indicate that the majority of Ghanaian JHS graduates do not reach satisfactory Van Hiele levels.

Similarly, Baffoe and Mereku (2010) study set out to determine the Van Hiele geometric thinking levels reached by Senior High School 1 learners in Ghana upon entry, against a backdrop of chronic underachievement in geometry (TIMSS 2003; WAEC 2003–2006) and calls for curriculum reform informed by the Dutch Van Hiele model of five hierarchical levels of geometric thought. Using a convenience sample of 188 first-year

learners (mean age 16) drawn from one public and one private Winneba school, the researchers administered a 15-item Van Hiele Geometry test adapted from Usiskin's Cognitive Development and Achievement in Secondary School Geometry Test within the fourth week of the term, and scored achievement both by raw percentage and by Usiskin's "three-of-five" criterion to classify mastery of Levels 1 through 3. Descriptive analysis in SPSS revealed that 59 percent of learners demonstrated Level 1 recognition skills, but only 19 percent of those (approximately 11 percent of the total sample) also displayed Level 2 informal analytic reasoning, and a mere 1 percent reached Level 3 informal deductive thinking; moreover, 26 percent failed to attain even basic recognition. Item-level results showed strong achievement on simple shape identification (up to 85 percent correct) but very low success (18–21 percent) on questions requiring knowledge of shape properties and class inclusion. The authors concluded that over 90 percent of Ghanaian learners enter SHS with geometric understanding below international norms for their age, arguing that this shortfall partly stems from traditional Euclidean instruction that assumes formal deductive reasoning. They recommended that the junior high curriculum incorporate more hands-on, exploratory activities to build conceptual understanding of shapes and properties, and that teachers and learners use precise geometric terminology to overcome language barriers and deepen conceptual grasp reforms intended to scaffold learners toward the higher Van Hiele levels required for success in senior high school geometry.

In addition, Mensah et al, (2023) investigated the geometric thinking levels of 400 ninth-grade learners in the Sekondi-Takoradi Metropolis of western Ghana, using the Van Hiele framework that underpins Ghana's junior high geometry curriculum. Drawing on a convenience sample of four schools (two public, two private), they administered a 15-item Van Hiele Geometry Test (VHGT) focused on levels 1–3 (recognition through

informal deduction) during the 2019–2020 school year. Each correct answer earned one point (raw scores 0–15) and mastery of a Van Hiele level required at least three correct items in that subtest; scoring also employed Usiskin’s weighted scheme (1 pt for Level 1, 2 pts for Level 2, 4 pts for Level 3) to identify learners’ highest level. Results showed that 56.25 percent of learners remained at pre-visualization (Level 0), 30.75 percent reached visualization (Level 1), 12.5 percent attained analysis (Level 2), and only 0.5 percent demonstrated informal deduction (Level 3) which was far below the curriculum expectation that ninth graders routinely exhibit Level 3 thinking. Item-level analyses revealed persistent reliance on visual cues (e.g., difficulty recognizing tilted quadrilaterals), stronger achievement on triangle properties than on quadrilateral properties, and widespread failure to appreciate class inclusion (e.g., that all squares are rectangles). The authors conclude that without targeted intervention in K-9 geometry pedagogy emphasizing the Van Hiele five-phase learning process, hands-on manipulatives, precise terminology, and professional development for pre- and in-service teachers such that most learners will enter senior high geometry unprepared for the informal deductive reasoning mandated by national standards.

Armah et al. (2017) examined the geometric thinking abilities of Ghanaian pre-service teachers prior to their Learner Internship Programme at basic schools. The study sampled 300 second-year students from four Colleges of Education, administering the van Hiele Geometry Test (adapted from the “Cognitive Development and Achievement in Secondary School Geometry Test”) during their first semester. Findings indicated that 16.33% of participants remained at Level 0 (Pre-recognition), 27% reached Level 1, 32% attained Level 2, and 17.67% progressed to Level 3. Only 6% achieved Level 4, and a mere 1% reached Level 5. Overall, 75.33% of these future teachers demonstrated van Hiele levels below those expected of the Junior High School 3 learners they will soon

instruct, suggesting their geometrical knowledge may be insufficient for teaching at the basic-school level.

Finally, Prismadian et al. (2024) employ a descriptive qualitative design to probe the geometric thinking of 28 eighth-grade learners in Pringsewu Regency, Indonesia, through the lens of Van Hiele's five developmental levels. Using Usiskin's 15-item Van Hiele Geometry Test, they identified that 28.6% of learners functioned at Level 1 (visual recognition of shapes), 14.3% at Level 2 (analysis of properties), 7.1% at Level 3 (abstraction of general properties), and only 3.6% at Level 4 (deductive reasoning), with none reaching Level 5 (rigor), while nearly half failed to attain even Level 1. Purposive sampling then selected one learner from each of the first four levels for in-depth interviews, which triangulated test responses and revealed that higher-level learners not only named and described shapes but also articulated inter-shape relationships and constructed simple proofs. Although the small, single-school sample limits generalizability and the multiple-choice format may underrepresent deeper reasoning, the integration of quantitative and qualitative data offers a rich snapshot of learners' geometric cognition. The pronounced clustering at lower Van Hiele levels underscores an urgent need for differentiated instruction such as manipulatives, guided inquiry, and scaffolded tasks to nurture progression from perceptual recognition to formal proof. Future studies should expand diverse samples, incorporate open-ended assessments, and experimentally test pedagogical interventions designed to elevate learners toward higher tiers of geometric thought.

2.8.3 Challenges of Learners in Transformation Geometry

Geometry instruction can employ a variety of tasks, selected to align with specific learning goals, and these choices deeply influence how students engage with geometric

ideas. A fundamental strategy is the use of diagrams, which clarify concepts and reveal relationships visually. Schwartz and Heiser (2006) argue that diagrammatic representations strengthen spatial reasoning, requiring instructors not only to produce accurate figures but also to guide pupils in interpreting the relationships they depict.

Mere empirical studies attest to the power of such activities. Yerushalmy, Chazan, and Gorgon (1990) implemented “Geometric Supposers” in high-school classrooms from 1984 to 1988 to identify obstacles in diagram use namely, overly specific illustrations, confusion between novel and standard figures, and multiple valid interpretations of a single diagram. Comparing students who did and did not employ these Supposers, they found that users demonstrated superior diagram comprehension.

Similarly, Noss, Healy, and Hoyles (1997) examined how Microworld Mathsticks—an interactive environment linking manipulative actions to symbolic representations—fosters spatial reasoning and supports the translation of visual insights into algebraic expressions in a two-student case study.

Beyond diagrams, pedagogical modeling and deduction exercises are essential. In a comparative study of geometry instruction in China and Japan, Jones, Fujita, and Ding (2006) concluded that integrating concrete models, deductive reasoning, and diverse problem-solving contexts produces richer geometric understanding when tasks and supports are well designed.

Games offer another dynamic avenue for engagement. Herbst, Gonzalez, and Macke (2005) studied a “Guess My Quadrilateral” game with 53 high-school students, finding that, after three weeks, participants shifted from describing properties of quadrilaterals to accurately drawing them, reflecting deeper conceptual grasp. Foster and Shah (2015) extended this work by applying the Play-Curricular Activity-Reflection-Discussion

(PCaRD) model in a year-long mixed-methods study; their pre- and post-tests showed notable achievement gains and helped teachers integrate games into their practice.

Learners' cognitive strategies also shape their geometric learning. Moscucci et al. (2005) investigated 105 Italian third-graders' reasoning about isosceles triangles, revealing that diagram orientation influenced naïve measurement approaches and that brief, focused activities yielded stronger conceptual understanding. Marchett, Medici, Vighi, and Zaccomer (2005) studied 130 fourth- and fifth-graders' area-and-perimeter reasoning, concluding that students compared areas more readily than perimeters and were often misled by visual illusions, preferring single-shape tasks over comparative ones.

At the tertiary level, Kaisari and Patronis (2010) explored how undergraduates construct models of elliptic geometry. Over a semester, students reformulated Euclid's axioms and collaborated on geometric constructions, demonstrating that contextualized tasks and peer discourse deepen comprehension of both Euclidean and non-Euclidean frameworks.

Circle geometry, though less studied, yields valuable insights. Canada and Blair (2006) challenged learners and pre-service teachers to construct intersections of circles and squares; despite imprecise drawings, many identified multiple intersection points, showing how precision in diagramming underpins conjecture and proof. Neel-Romine, Paul, and Shafer (2012) engaged sixth-graders in drafting and critiquing circle definitions, finding that iterative group activities moved students from everyday descriptions ("looks like a coin") to accurate formulations ("all points equidistant from a center"). González and DeJarnette (2013) used a problem-based lesson with 22 learners to solve a circle-themed task, noting that students applied multiple strategies-constructing auxiliary lines, marking right angles, and invoking Pythagoras to analyse, plan, and reflect on their solutions.

Extensive research has documented persistent learner difficulties in transformation geometry, tracing back to early investigations by Denis (1987) and reinforced by Hollebrands (2003), Ada and Kurtulus (2010), Soon (1992), Moyer (1975), Thomas (1976), and Perham (1976). Common findings include failure to transfer spatial skills in problem-solving contexts for grades 1–3, misconceptions in applying rotations and translations algebraically versus geometrically, and challenges performing diagonal reflections and rotations about non-origin centers. Perham (1976) observed that children manage vertical/horizontal slides but struggle with diagonal transformations, and Moyer (1978) found that explicit instruction in physical motion does not guarantee mastery—students rely on topological rather than Euclidean relations.

Boutler and Kirby (1994) classified grade 7 and 8 students' approaches to transformational tasks as holistic or analytic, finding that strategy preference correlates with success. Hart's (1980) five-year CSMS study in England revealed that learners ignoring the slope of a reflection line perform reflections incorrectly, prompting Lesh, Post, and Behr (1987) to propose a five-mode representational model concrete, pictorial, real-world, symbolic (written), and oral to strengthen conceptual transfer.

Del Grande (1990) contended that overemphasis on deductive proofs at the expense of spatial experiences hinders geometric understanding, recommending that instruction begin with manipulable 3D shapes to internalize concepts like symmetry and congruence. Finally, van Hiele's seminal work (1957 onward) established a five-level hierarchy of geometric cognition, asserting that skipping levels leads to rote learning and misunderstanding. He argued that instruction must match learners' current van Hiele level to build meaningful connections; failing to do so results in imitation without comprehension and minimal transfer (van Hiele, 1984; Fuys, Geddes, & Tischler, 1988).

These insights continue to shape contemporary efforts to enhance both classical and transformation geometry teaching and learning.

2.8.4 Gender Differences in Academic Achievement of Males and Learner in Transformation Geometry

Research on gender differences in geometry achievement has yielded mixed results. Some studies found that males outperform females in spatial visualization and overall geometry achievement.

M. Battista's (1990) study on how individual differences in spatial visualization and verbal-logical reasoning relate to high school learners' geometry achievement and whether these cognitive profiles vary by gender. Drawing on a sample of U.S. high school geometry learners, Battista administered standardized measures of spatial visualization (e.g., mental rotation and spatial relations tasks), verbal-logical reasoning tests, and a geometry achievement battery, and he surveyed learners' use of problem-solving strategies. Though boys and girls scored comparably on verbal-logical reasoning and reported similar reliance on heuristic and analytic approaches to geometry, boys significantly outperformed girls on spatial visualization measures and on overall geometry achievement. Moreover, latent profile analyses revealed distinct cognitive–achievement patterns: learners with strong spatial skills consistently achieved higher geometry scores regardless of gender, whereas those with weaker spatial profiles struggled despite adequate verbal-logical ability. Finally, Battista identified a significant teacher-by-gender interaction. Girls taught by instructors with more spatially oriented pedagogies closed much of the achievement gap suggesting that geometry instruction emphasizing visual-spatial representations can mitigate gender disparities. These findings underscore the pivotal role of spatial thinking in geometry learning and point to

the potential of targeted, spatially grounded teaching practices to foster equity in mathematics classrooms.

In the same vein, Leahey and Guo (2001) investigate gender differences in mathematical trajectories from elementary through high school using longitudinal data from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY) and the National Educational Longitudinal Study (NELS). Employing curvilinear growth models, the authors analyze general math achievement, high-scoring subgroups, and specific skills (reasoning, geometry). While boys and girls exhibit comparable initial math scores in elementary school, boys demonstrate faster acceleration rates, leading to a slight but statistically significant male advantage by 12th grade, most pronounced in geometry. Contrary to earlier studies (e.g., Benbow & Stanley, 1980), which reported large disparities among gifted youth by junior high, this broader, nationally representative sample reveals delayed and modest differences. Gender gaps among high-scoring learners, though larger than population averages, remain small and inconsistent across younger age groups. The study attributes prior overestimations of early divergence to selective sampling (e.g., precocious cohorts) and highlights the role of differential skill development (e.g., spatial strategies in geometry) and contextual factors (e.g., coursework choices) in late-emerging gaps. By controlling for family background, cognitive stimulation, and maternal characteristics, the authors underscore that observed differences are not artifacts of socioeconomic confounders. They conclude that generalizations about pronounced, early male superiority in math are overstated, advocating for nuanced interpretations that consider population variability and developmental timing.

Gumel and Galadima (2014) examined gender-based variations in geometry achievement and retention among Senior Secondary 3 students. Using a pretest and post-test

experimental design with a control group, they drew a stratified random sample of 70 learners from roughly 9,540 in Jigawa State. Both male and female groups received instruction via a problem-solving (Polya) approach. Data were gathered through a researcher-designed test (RMT), the Geometry Achievement Test (GAT), and the Geometry Retention Test (GRT), then analysed with t-tests. Results indicated a significant gender difference in GAT scores but no significant difference in GRT outcomes. The authors therefore recommend that mathematics teachers adopt the Polya problem-solving model in their instruction.

2.8.5 Spatial Development as a Prerequisite for Learning Transformation Geometry

“Spatial development” refers to the range of activities through which children organize and make sense of their surrounding space. Fruedenthal (2014) argues that this process begins not with formal definitions or theorems but with children ordering their everyday spatial encounters. Over time, these informal experiences provide the foundation for the structured concepts and proofs encountered in school geometry. Components of spatial development include visualization, reasoning, perception, mental imagery, and rotations. Since a child’s informal spatial knowledge encompasses far more than the formal geometry taught in classrooms, educators should nurture these intuitive skills to ensure students can engage meaningfully with school-based geometric ideas (Fruedenthal, 2014). According to Fruedenthal, learners benefit most when first encountering geometric notions through direct, hands-on interactions with the shapes and patterns in their environment; the capacity to name and define figures should arise naturally from these foundational experiences.

2.8.6 The Role of Spatial Perception and Visualization in the Learning of Transformation Geometry

Spatial sense refers to an individual's innate inclination or sensitivity toward the shapes and objects in their surroundings. According to Wheatley (2010), spatial sense encompasses imagery and visualization—literally “seeing” real objects and noting their attributes or holding a mental snapshot of them (Kirby, 2011). This process culminates in true comprehension of the object. Often, spatial sense involves transforming a mental image—for example, envisioning a rhombus morphing into a square—and mental imagery is known to facilitate geometry learning (Kirby, 1991). In transformation geometry, visualization centers on learners' capacity to imagine, rotate, twist, or invent shapes; it underpins their mastery of geometric concepts and transformations (Kirby, 1991).

Visualization aids understanding in multiple ways. When learners can form mental pictures of objects, they develop a deeper grasp of those objects, enhancing comprehension of the concepts presented by teachers (Wheatley, 1990). Meaningful imagery within a learner's frame of reference strengthens mathematical understanding at the primary level (Presmeg, 1989). In geometry classrooms, recognizing patterns and identifying shapes—including lines of symmetry—equips students to solve Euclidean problems (Presmeg, 2019). Instruction often requires students to manipulate physical shapes, classify them by property, and view them from various perspectives; visualization is essential for these tasks. Consequently, educators should supply manipulatives—such as various-sized shapes, mirrors, geoboards, tape measures, or rulers—to support learners' mental modeling (Kirby, 2011).

Because spatial visualization is closely tied to mathematical language and communication, students must learn both the concepts and the vocabulary needed to describe them (Sgrio, 2010). Teachers should foster oral, written, and mental–pictorial expression to strengthen spatial development. Eisenberg and Dreyfus (2014) note that embedding visualization and spatial perception in curricula has three key benefits: it extends content for learners not yet ready for symbolic thinking; it offers an alternative means of presenting geometric ideas; and it builds rich mental images that serve as a precursor to abstraction (Eisenberg & Dreyfus, 1989). Since students vary in aptitude, instruction should address differing needs—gifted learners may rely more on symbolic reasoning, whereas others benefit from visualization. Excluding visualization from curricula risks impeding less gifted students’ success in problem solving, without harming gifted learners (Kirby, 1991).

Several theoretical perspectives inform geometry teaching, including those of Piaget, Freudenthal, and van Hiele, which are discussed in the next section.

Cognitive and neuroscience research (Kosslyn, 1994; Kosslyn & Koenig, 1992) distinguishes two types of mental imagery: object imagery and spatial imagery (Blajenkova, Kozhevnikov, & Motes, 2006). Object imagery captures details of individual objects—color, size, texture, brightness—such as picturing a friend’s face (Blazhenkova & Kozhevnikov, 2013). Spatial imagery encodes relationships among objects, their positions in space, and movements—like mentally folding and rotating a cube (Blazhenkova & Kozhevnikov, 2013). The ability to rotate images—viewing an object from different angles—is often assessed via rotation tests pioneered by Cooper (1975), Cooper and Shepard (1973), and Metzler and Shepard (1974). The Mental Rotation Test (MRT; Vandenberg & Kuse, 1978) is the most widely used. More recently,

Campos's (2012) MARMI test requires participants to mentally assemble and rotate unfolded cubes, rather than use Cooper–Shepard figures.

Gender differences on rotation tests consistently favor men (Blazhenkova & Kozhevnikov, 2010; Campos, 2012; Campos, Pérez-Fabello, & Gómez-Juncal, 2004; Delgado & Prieto, 1996; Hedges & Nowell, 1995; Linn & Petersen, 1986; Voyer, 2011; Voyer, Voyer, & Bryden, 1995), with no studies showing women outperforming men (Campos, 2014). Explanations span socialization (Oosthuizen, 1991), strategy differences (Linn & Petersen, 1985), and hormonal influences (Hooven et al., 2004; Kimura, 1999; Sanders, Sjödin, & de Chastelaine, 2002). Campos (2014) supports socialization theory: gender gaps reflect educational and cultural practices. Although spatial skills can improve with training (Uttal et al., 2013), societal norms still channel women into different roles—few female commercial pilots or train drivers—affecting spatial practice. Professions also differ: scientists outperform visual artists on spatial tests, while artists excel at object imagery (Kozhevnikov, Blazhenkova, & Becker, 2010; Kozhevnikov, Kosslyn, & Shepard, 2005; Motes, Malach, & Kozhevnikov, 2008).

Undergraduate specialties show similar patterns. Science students score higher on the MRT than art or humanities majors (Blazhenkova & Kozhevnikov, 2010; Blazhenkova & Kozhevnikov, 2011). López-Araujo, Pérez-Fabello, and Campos (2013) found basketball players score better on spatial imagery tests than Pilates or ballroom dancers. Wai, Lubinski, and Benbow (2009) demonstrated that spatial ability predicts STEM degree and career choices. In sum, gender and profession influence mental rotation performance.

This study aims to examine differences in rotation ability between genders and across university disciplines—areas not previously explored. Given spatial imagery's role in

mathematics (Pitta-Pantazi, Sophocleous, & Christou, 2013), mechanical reasoning (Hegarty & Kozhevnikov, 1999), and professions like architecture (Mohler & Miller, 2008) and aviation (Humphreys & Lubinski, 1996), it is crucial to understand undergraduates' spatial skills. Training can enhance imagery abilities (Mataix, León, & Montes, 2014, 2015), highlighting the need to link spatial ability with academic discipline. Architecture students, familiar with rotation tasks, were selected (Campos-Juanatey et al., 2016), and future research will extend to other cohorts. We hypothesize that men will outperform women on rotation tasks regardless of discipline and that architecture students will outperform peers from other fields—hypotheses yet untested in the literature.

2.9 Theoretical Framework

2.10.1 van Hiele Theory of Geometric thinking

This study adopts the van Hiele Theory of Geometric Thinking (van Hiele, 1986) as its foundational framework to explore the learning of transformation geometry among junior high school learners in the Tano South Municipality. The van Hiele model posits that learners' progress through five sequential, hierarchical levels of geometric understanding: visualization, analysis, abstraction, deduction, and rigor (van Hiele, 1986; van Niekerk, 1997). These levels are not biologically determined but are shaped by structured instruction, emphasizing that learners cannot grasp higher-level concepts without mastering foundational ones (van Hiele, 1986). For example, a learner operating at Level 0 (visualization) might recognize a rotated shape through its altered appearance but cannot yet articulate the mathematical properties governing the rotation. Such a learner might describe a rectangle rotated 90 degrees as turned sideways without understanding that its side lengths and angles remain invariant. Progression to Level 1 (analysis) enables the identification of individual properties (e.g., symmetry or

congruence), while Level 2 (abstraction) allows learners to interrelate these properties. At this stage, learners might deduce that a figure's congruence after rotation depends on both angle magnitude and the center of rotation. At Level 3 (deduction), learners engage in logical reasoning about geometric proofs, and Level 4 (rigor) involves abstract axiomatic systems (van Hiele, 1986). For instance, Level 4 thinking might involve proving that rotational symmetry in regular polygons is preserved under specific transformations by invoking group theory principles.

Central to this theory is the assertion that misalignment between a teacher's instructional approach and learners' developmental levels leads to communication breakdowns and rote learning (van Hiele, 1986). For instance, if a teacher explains rotational symmetry using deductive reasoning (Level 3) while learners remain at Level 0 (visualization), the instruction becomes inaccessible, fostering frustration and disengagement (van Hiele, 1986). This mismatch is particularly acute in contexts like Tano South Municipality, where limited teacher training and overcrowded classrooms exacerbate instructional misalignment. This aligns with Edwards' (2003) findings, where learners misinterpreted rotations as "sliding motions" due to gaps in foundational understanding. Similarly, Sproule (2005) observed that learners often defaulted to ineffective strategies. For example, measuring distances rather than visualizing reflections) when instruction failed to bridge their current level of thinking with higher-order concepts. For example, learners in Sproule's study measured distances between pre-image and image points during reflection tasks but could not generalize the relationship between the reflection axis and coordinate changes.

Transformation geometry, which encompasses reflections, rotations, translations, and dilations, demands spatial visualization and analytic reasoning, making the van Hiele

model particularly relevant. At Level 0, learners might recognize transformations through physical manipulation for example, flipping a shape but lack explicit awareness of properties like invariant distances or angles. For instance, a learner might trace a rotated triangle on tracing paper but fail to recognize that the distance from the center of rotation to each vertex remains constant. At Level 1, they analyze isolated properties but struggle to connect these to broader geometric principles. A learner at this level might identify that a reflected hexagon has six lines of symmetry but cannot explain how reflection preserves area or angle measures. Instruction must scaffold learners through phases such as information, guided orientation, free exploration, integration such as to transition between levels (van Hiele, 1986). For example, teaching reflection could begin with visual activities (Level 0: folding paper along an axis) before introducing coordinate-based rules (Level 2: algebraic representations). Guided orientation might involve learners predicting reflection outcomes over diagonal lines using grid paper, while free exploration tasks could challenge them to design symmetrical patterns using multiple reflections.

The interplay between visualization and analytic reasoning further contextualizes this framework. Visual strategies, such as mental folding (Sproule, 2005) or dynamic imagery (Presmeg, 2006), are critical for spatial tasks like reflections. However, learners often rely on analytic approaches using algebraic rules (e.g., rotation matrices), which require procedural fluency (Naidoo & Bansilal, 2010). Poor algebraic skills, common in resource-constrained settings like Tano South Municipality, exacerbate difficulties in applying transformation formulae accurately. For example, learners might misapply rotation matrices by confusing clockwise and counterclockwise angles or incorrectly multiplying coordinates due to arithmetic errors. Dreyfus (1991) argues for elevating visual reasoning as a tool for learning, advocating for teaching methods that integrate

concrete models such as grid paper with abstract rules. For instance, grid-based tasks on the Cartesian plane might initially elicit visual strategies (Sproule, 2005), but teachers must scaffold learners toward analytic reasoning by linking visual observations to algebraic generalizations. A scaffolded lesson might start with learners reflecting a polygon over the x-axis using grid paper (visual) and then deriving the rule $(x,y) \rightarrow (x,-y)$ through pattern recognition (analytic).

Empirical studies validate the van Hiele model's applicability to transformation geometry. Edwards (1997, 2003) documented learners' struggles with rotational concepts, highlighting the need for instruction aligned with developmental readiness. In one case, learners attempted to rotate a triangle by physically turning their notebooks, demonstrating Level 0 thinking, but could not describe the transformation using coordinate rules until explicit instruction bridged the gap to Level 2. Sproule (2005) emphasized the efficacy of visual scaffolding (e.g., folding) for reflections, while Burger's (1986) cross-grade research confirmed that structured progression through van Hiele levels enhances geometric understanding. Burger found that learners exposed to Level-appropriate reflection tasks for example, identifying axes before deriving formulas outperformed peers taught through traditional lectures. Mayberry (1981) and Usiskin (1982) further demonstrated that learners' geometric abilities correlate with their progression through these levels, reinforcing the theory's utility in curriculum design. Usiskin's longitudinal study revealed that learners who mastered Level 2 abstraction skills in translation tasks were 70% more likely to succeed in later deductive geometry courses.

The van Hiele Theory of Geometric Thinking (van Hiele, 1986) is uniquely suited to address this study's research objectives due to its diagnostic precision, hierarchical

structure, and capacity to contextualize learning barriers. To begin, to determine learners' academic achievement in transformation geometry (Rotation), the theory's sequential levels such as visualization, analysis, abstraction provide a scaffolded framework for evaluating mastery. Learners' ability to solve rotation tasks, such as identifying rotated figures or applying coordinate rules, can be mapped to their developmental stage. For instance, a learner scoring poorly may remain at Level 0 (visualization), relying on perceptual cues like shape orientation, while higher performers likely operate at Level 1 (analysis) by identifying rotational angles or Level 2 (abstraction) by generalizing rules (Usiskin, 1982). This approach shifts achievement evaluation beyond raw scores to reveal cognitive readiness, offering insights into whether struggles stem from procedural gaps such as misapplying rotation matrices or foundational conceptual deficits. Again, the model's phased hierarchy directly enables the assessment of learners' van Hiele geometric thinking levels. By designing tasks aligned to distinct phases such as classifying rotated shapes (Level 0), analyzing rotational symmetry properties (Level 1), or deriving coordinate transformation rules (Level 2) the study can categorize learners' cognitive progression. For example, a learner who recognizes rotated figures but cannot articulate invariant properties like preserved side lengths would be classified at Level 0, whereas one who deduces rotation rules using coordinates demonstrates Level 2 thinking (van Hiele, 1986). Such granular diagnostics align with Ghana's competency-based curriculum, which prioritizes individualized skill development (Naidoo & Bansilal, 2010). In addition, the theory's standardized levels ensure equitable comparisons when examining gender differences in achievement. By isolating developmental stages, confounding variables are minimized: disparities may manifest as unequal progression rates through van Hiele levels rather than arbitrary score gaps. For example, female learners might excel at visualization tasks (Level 0) due to stronger spatial memory

(Edwards, 2003), while male peers advance faster to analytic tasks (Level 1) if societal biases encourage engagement with procedural mathematics. Finally, the model's emphasis on instructional alignment elucidates challenges learners face. Learning barriers often arise from mismatches between teaching methods and developmental levels (van Hiele, 1986). For instance, errors in solving rotation problems may reflect Level 0 learners' reliance on visual guesses rather than analytic strategies, or Level 1 learner' inability to generalize rules beyond specific cases. Similarly, algebraic fluency deficits (Naidoo & Bansilal, 2010) or limited access to dynamic tools (Dreyfus, 1991) common in Tano South Municipality compound difficulties in transitioning from concrete (Level 0) to abstract reasoning (Level 2).

In Tano South Municipality's resource-constrained context, the van Hiele model offers pragmatic solutions. Large class sizes necessitate efficient differentiation, which the framework supports through tiered activities grouped by developmental levels. For example, teachers might assign visual rotation tasks such as manipulating cut-out shapes to Level 0 learners, while Level 2 learners tackle coordinate-based problems. This aligns with Ghana's experiential learning goals, leveraging low-cost tools like grid paper or protractors to scaffold learners from visual to analytic reasoning. By anchoring the study in this theory, findings will not only diagnose achievement and challenges but also inform equitable, level-aligned interventions to advance geometric proficiency across genders and readiness levels.

2.11 Conceptual Framework

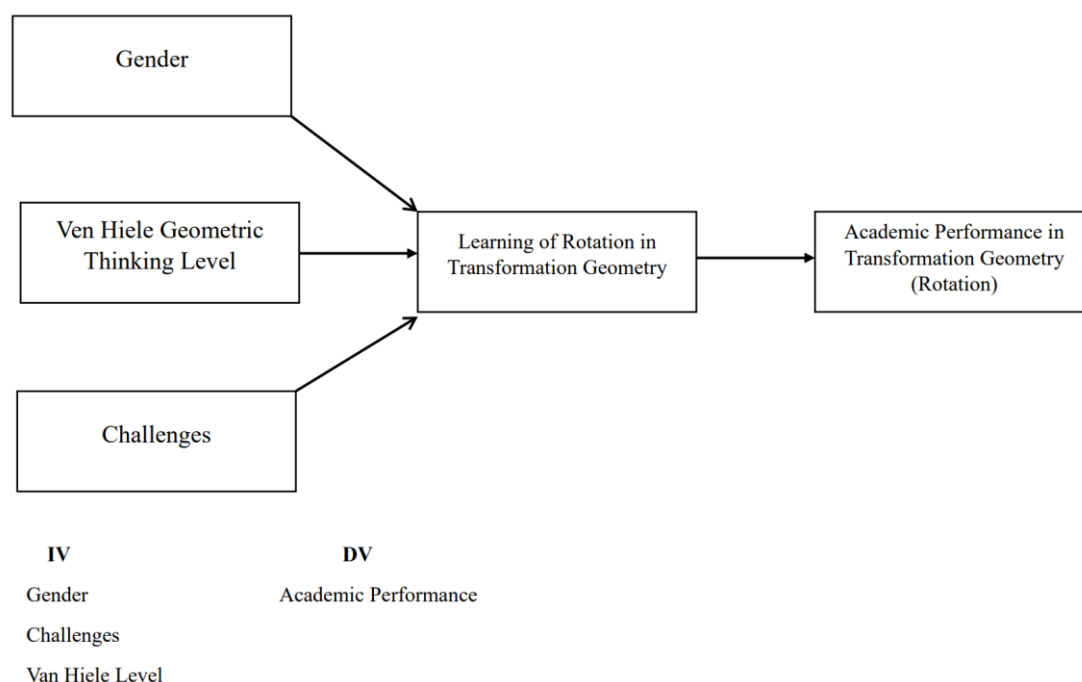


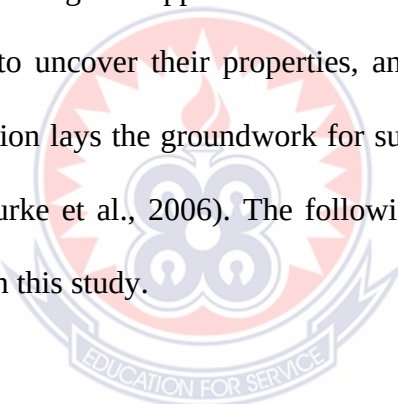
Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework

The independent variables (IVs) are gender and challenges, which are proposed to influence both the Van Hiele geometric thinking level and the academic achievement in rotation. The Van Hiele level, representing learners' stage of geometric reasoning, serves as a mediating variable that connects the independent variables to the dependent variable (DV). The dependent variable is the academic achievement in transformation geometry (specifically rotation). According to the framework, learners' achievement in understanding and applying rotation concepts is influenced not only directly by gender and challenges but also indirectly through their Van Hiele level. The Van Hiele theory suggests that learners progress through levels of geometric understanding, and those at higher levels tend to perform better in transformation tasks. Gender may impact cognitive engagement and access to learning opportunities, while challenges such as

misconceptions or difficulties with rotation concepts can hinder progression through Van Hiele levels.

2.12 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed a range of studies pertinent to transformation geometry, outlining past research and its implications for the current investigation. It also examined major learning theories—Freudenthal, Piaget, and van Hiele—with particular emphasis on van Hiele’s framework, which underpins this study. The literature synthesis revealed persistent student difficulties in geometry, highlighting van Hiele’s assertion that visualization is a foundational skill in geometric learning. I fully endorse this perspective: learners must be afforded regular opportunities to form mental images of shapes, manipulate those forms to uncover their properties, and formulate conjectures. Such hands-on, visual exploration lays the groundwork for success in more advanced stages of geometric thought (Burke et al., 2006). The following chapter details the research methodology employed in this study.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Overview

This chapter outlines the methodological approach in detail so that other researchers can precisely reproduce each step. It begins by explaining the underlying research philosophy that guided the choice of study design, then presents the design itself, the context in which the study took place, and the characteristics of the population, respondents, and participants. It also details the instruments used for data collection, the procedures for assessing validity and reliability, the empirical model developed, the data-gathering process, ethical safeguards, and the techniques applied for data processing and analysis.

3.1 Research Philosophy

All research is grounded in a philosophical paradigm that reflects the researcher's worldview and governs their approach to inquiry (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). These paradigms systems of beliefs about knowledge creation guide how researchers define reality, acquire knowledge, and select methodologies (Biesta, 2020; Gray, 2018). As Saunders et al. (2019) emphasize, paradigms shape assumptions about what constitutes valid evidence and how it should be interpreted. Positivism, interpretivism, and pragmatism are the three dominant paradigms in social research, each offering distinct ontological, epistemological, and methodological perspectives (Babbie, 2021; Lincoln et al., 2018). Ontology refers to the nature of reality, epistemology to the relationship between the researcher and knowledge, and methodology to the strategies for gathering and analyzing data (Creswell & Guetterman, 2021; Denzin & Lincoln, 2018).

Originating from Auguste Comte's philosophy, positivism asserts that reality is objective, governed by fixed laws, and independent of human perception (Gray, 2018).

Ontologically, positivists adopt a realist stance, viewing social phenomena as measurable entities (Bryman, 2016). Epistemologically, knowledge is derived through empirical observation, emphasizing objectivity and detachment (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Methodologically, positivism employs quantitative methods, such as experiments and surveys, to test hypotheses and generalize findings (Babbie, 2021). For instance, standardized instruments such as behavioural checklists, norm-referenced tests or archival records such as school databases generate numerical data analysed statistically to identify causal relationships (Creswell & Guetterman, 2021). Critics argue that positivism's rigid objectivity may overlook contextual nuances, but proponents highlight its reproducibility and precision (Tracy, 2020).

In contrast, interpretivism, rooted in Max Weber's work, posits that reality is socially constructed and subjective (Lincoln et al., 2018). Ontologically, interpretivists embrace relativism, recognizing multiple realities shaped by individual experiences (Denzin & Lincoln, 2018). Epistemologically, knowledge emerges through interaction, with researchers actively interpreting participants' meanings (Biesta, 2020). Methodologically, qualitative approaches like ethnography, phenomenology, and case studies are used inductively to explore lived experiences (Flick, 2022). Data collection involves interviews, participant observations, and textual analysis, with themes derived through iterative coding (Miles, 2020). For example, semi-structured interviews allow researchers to capture "thick descriptions" of social contexts, though critics note challenges in generalizing findings (Tracy, 2020). Interpretivism prioritizes depth over breadth, making it ideal for exploring complex social dynamics (Flick, 2022).

Pragmatism, championed by John Dewey, transcends the positivist-interpretivist divide by prioritizing practical outcomes over philosophical rigidity (Johnson et al., 2017).

Ontologically, pragmatists accept both objective and subjective realities, while epistemologically, truth is determined by what “works” to address research questions (Morgan, 2014). Methodologically, mixed methods integrate quantitative and qualitative approaches, leveraging their complementary strengths (Tashakkori et al., 2021). For example, a researcher might combine surveys (to quantify trends) with focus groups (to contextualize results), enhancing validity through triangulation (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). Pragmatism is criticized for its flexibility, which some argue risks methodological inconsistency, but proponents highlight its adaptability for addressing complex, real-world problems (Bazeley, 2018).

Mixed methods research, underpinned by pragmatism, synthesizes numerical and narrative data to provide holistic insights (Fetters, 2020). By merging experiments with interviews, for instance, researchers offset the limitations of single-method designs, improving confidence in findings (Tashakkori et al., 2021). However, this approach demands significant time and resources, requiring careful planning to harmonize divergent data types (Bazeley, 2018). Despite challenges, mixed methods are increasingly popular in fields like education and healthcare, where multifaceted questions demand integrative solutions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

A pragmatist research philosophy is particularly suited to investigating the learning of transformation geometry among junior high school learners in the Tano South Municipality due to its focus on practical outcomes and methodological flexibility. This study seeks not only to measure learners’ achievement (e.g., through standardized test scores) but also to understand the contextual factors influencing their learning, such as teaching strategies, resource availability, and socio-cultural perceptions of mathematics (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). A purely positivist approach, while useful for

quantifying achievement gaps, would overlook the subjective experiences of learners and teachers. Conversely, an interpretivist lens might lack the generalizability needed to inform curriculum adjustments at a municipal level. Pragmatism bridges this divide by integrating mixed methods where quantitative data can identify trends in mastery of geometric concepts, while qualitative data can reveal barriers such as language difficulties or inadequate instructional materials (Johnson et al., 2017).

For instance, if test results show low proficiency in rotation and reflection, interviews with learners could uncover misconceptions tied to local dialects or abstract teaching methods. Similarly, triangulating survey data with focus group discussions would enable policymakers to design interventions that are both evidence-based and culturally relevant (Tashakkori et al., 2021). Pragmatism's emphasis on "what works" aligns with the study's goal of improving educational outcomes in a specific context, ensuring findings are actionable for teachers and administrators in Tano South Municipality (Biesta, 2020). By prioritizing real-world solutions over philosophical purity, this approach ensures the research addresses the complexities of learning transformation geometry in a resource-constrained, culturally distinct setting.

3.2 Research Design

A concurrent embedded mixed-methods design was adopted to investigate how Junior High School learners in the Tano South Municipality learn transformation geometry. In this design, achievement tests on geometric transformations and semi-structured interviews were gathered during the same data-collection phase, with the qualitative strand serving a supportive, explanatory role (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017; Plano Clark & Ivankova, 2016). This simultaneous collection enabled the researcher to link each learner's test achievement directly with their challenges they face about rotations

thereby yielding a nuanced portrait of conceptual understanding of transformation geometry (Fetters, Curry, & Creswell, 2013; Wisdom & Creswell, 2013).

Embedding qualitative insights within a primarily quantitative framework conferred several advantages. First, conducting tests and interviews in a single sitting reduced extraneous variability such as fluctuations in motivation or classroom atmosphere thus ensuring consistency across data sources (Shorten & Smith, 2017). Second, the interviews uncovered cognitive obstacles that test scores alone could not reveal, for instance when high-scoring learners nonetheless struggled to articulate invariant properties of transformed figures (Guetterman, 2015). Third, integrating diverse data streams facilitated methodological triangulation, bolstering internal validity by confirming quantitative trends with narrative evidence and, where mismatches arose, prompting targeted follow-up analyses (Johnson & Christensen, 2019; Burkholder & Harlow, 2018).

Selecting a concurrent embedded design aligned directly with the study's aim of understanding not only whether learners can perform geometric transformations but also the challenges they encounter when constructing those operations. By weaving quantitative breadth with qualitative depth, this approach yielded a comprehensive view of transformation learning, revealing both aggregate achievement patterns and the diverse challenges learners' encounter. Although integrating and transforming different data types added analytical complexity, this was managed through systematic coding procedures, iterative cross-checking, and reflexive interpretation thereby minimizing validity threats and maximizing the richness of the findings (Plano Clark & Ivankova, 2016).

3.3 Study Area

Tano South Municipality occupies a pivotal position in what was formerly the Brong-Ahafo Region of Ghana, covering approximately 1,500 km which is about 3.8 percent of the region's land mass and serving as the gateway into Brong-Ahafo from the south (Ministry of Food and Agriculture [MOFA], 2024). It is situated between 7°00'N and 7°25'N latitude and 1°45'W and 2°15'W longitude, with its northern and eastern borders adjoining Offinso and Ahafo-Ano South Districts (Ashanti Region), its southern border abutting Ahafo-Ano North District, and its western and southwestern boundaries meeting Tano North District Assembly (MOFA, 2024). Bechem, the district capital, sits on the Kumasi-Sunyani highway, enhancing its potential as a hub for regional commerce and tourism.

Demographically, Tano South Municipality's estimated population of 87,219 reflects a modest annual growth rate of 1.8 percent, a rate lower than both regional and national levels (Ghana Statistical Service [GSS], 2021). This growth is influenced by both natural increase and migration, particularly of tenant farmers from northern Ghana seeking agricultural opportunities. Seasonal labour demands peak during the major cropping season (April–July), driving up the cost of casual “by-day” labour to between GH¢2.50 and GH¢3.00 (2020 prices), typically met by young school leavers and migrant workers (MOFA, 2024). The district's relief is characterized by gently undulating terrain rising from about 270 m to a maximum of 760 m above sea level, marked by a dendritic drainage pattern that ensures efficient runoff and minimal flooding (Ghana Statistical Service, 2021). Key waterways include River Subri (a Tano River tributary) passing through Subriso No. 3 and Techimantia, as well as the Atobiaso, Moku, Dwomo, Kwasu, and Dwofu Rivers (MOFA, 2024). This well-drained landscape fosters productive conditions for both food and vegetable crops. Underlying rocks belong to the Birrimian

and Tarkwaian formations, giving rise to forest ochrosols and rubrisol-ochrosol intergrades—alkaline, nutrient-rich soils with high clay content and strong water-holding capacity (Ghana Statistical Service, 2021). Such soils are ideally suited to a variety of perennial and annual crops, including cocoa, coffee, oil palm, plantain, maize, rice, cassava, and beans.

Climatically, the district falls within Ghana’s wet semi-equatorial zone, featuring a bimodal rainfall regime: a primary rainy season from April to June (peaking in June) and a secondary season from September to October (MOFA, 2024). Annual precipitation ranges from 1,250 to 1,800 mm, while mean monthly temperatures vary between 26 °C (August) and 30 °C (March). Relative humidity remains high, at 75–80 percent during rainy months and 70–72 percent in the dry season (MOFA, 2024).

Environmental management is bolstered by community engagement and strict surveillance, yielding minimal encroachment on reserves. However, slash-and-burn practices and uncontrolled bushfires which often linked to group hunting posing recurrent threats (MOFA, 2024.)

Agriculture remains the district’s economic mainstay, engaging 64 percent of the workforce (52 percent male, 48 percent female) (MOFA, 2024). Food crops include maize, cassava, plantain, and cocoyam; vegetables focus on tomato, garden egg, okra, and pepper; while cash crops comprise cocoa, oil palm, coffee, and cashew. The land-tenure system is predominantly family-based, with plots passing matrilineally and subject to sharecropping arrangements (50:50 harvest share) for food crops and “Abusa” (farmer 2/3, owner 1/3) for cash crops limiting large-scale commercial farming yet accommodating settler agreements, leases, and outright purchases (MOFA, 2024.)



Figure 3.1: Map of Tano South Municipality.

Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2021

3.4 Population

According to Agyedu et al. (2011), a research population comprises the complete set of individuals, objects, or events that share the specific observable characteristics about which the researcher wishes to generalize. Kusi (2012) similarly emphasizes that a population is the larger group possessing the same defining traits in which the researcher is interested and to which findings are intended to apply (Kusi, 2012, p. 80). In this study, Junior high school learners in Tano South Municipality were the population of the study with a total population of 4,970 learners.

3.4.1 Target Population

In this study, basic nine (9) learners were deliberately chosen as the target population because Ghana's Common Core Programme (CCP) mathematics syllabus for Basic 8 explicitly introduces and develops the concept of rotation. Under strand B8.3.3.1.3, learners are required to draw and describe the images of points under clockwise and anti-clockwise rotations of 90° , 180° , and 270° about the origin, and to use these transformations to verify congruence of two-dimensional figures (NaCCA, 2020). Hence, the target population consisted of all Basic nine (9) learners in the Tano South Municipality, as they have the requisite curricular exposure to the rotation concept under investigation with a total population of 1217 basic nine (9) learners.

3.4.2 Accessible Population

Johnson and Christensen (2012) define the accessible population as the set of participants available to engage in a specific study. The Tano South Municipality is organized into seven (7) circuits. Consequently, the accessible population for this research comprised all Basic Nine (9) learners across those seven (7) circuits.

3.5 Sample and Sampling Technique

A sample is a subset of the population of interest. It is the small amount of the population that gives out representative information about the population it was taken from. Simple random sampling is a widely used sampling technique in research studies, including the investigation into the learning of transformation geometry among junior high school learners in the Tano South Municipality. It is a method of selecting a subset of individuals from a larger population, where each individual has an equal probability of being selected.

The use of simple random sampling in this study ensures that every junior high school learner in the Tano South Municipality has an equal chance of being selected to participate in the research. To determine the number of Basic Nine learners to include in the study, the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) formula was applied. This formula adjusts for finite populations by incorporating the chi-square value for one degree of freedom at the 95% confidence level (Cochran, 1977), sets the margin of error to $d = 0.05$, and assumes $p = 0.5$ to maximize $p(1 - p)$ and yield a conservative estimate of required sample size (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). Substituting $N = 1,217$ into this formula produces an approximate requirement of 293 learners. A complete framework completed by compiling a roster of all 1,217 Basic Nine learners in Tano South Municipality and assigning each a unique identifier from 1 through 1,217 to ensure clear and unambiguous selection (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Using a computer-based random number generator (viralsweep) is used to select 293 distinct identifiers, ensuring each learner has an equal probability of inclusion and minimizing selection bias (Fowler, 2014; Groves et al., 2009). In any study, it is possible to select learners that may not partake in the study; therefore, a reserve list of backup numbers is drawn concurrently to replace any absent or unwilling learners, thereby preserving the integrity of equal-probability sampling (Groves & Lyberg, 2010).

Purposive sampling was used to obtain a subsample for the second phase of the study. In purposive sampling, participants are intentionally selected because they possess characteristics or experiences crucial to the research objectives (Palinkas et al., 2015). Respondents were chosen based on their demonstrated engagement with transformation geometry task, their willingness to reflect on learning processes, and their availability at the time of data collection. Ten learners (4 females and 6 males) were initially invited to participate in the qualitative phase; however, saturation was reached after interviewing

eight learners (4 females and 4 males), as no new insights emerged beyond the eighth interview.

3.6 Instrumentation

Two complementary instruments were employed in this study: a written achievement test and a semi-structured interview guide. The written test was designed to provide objective, quantifiable evidence of learners' mastery of transformation geometry concepts, with pilot-testing and test-retest conducted to establish both validity and reliability (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2019; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Semi-structured interviews were then conducted with a purposive subsample of learners to uncover the reasoning processes, misconceptions, and affective factors underlying test achievement (Seidman, 2019). All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim, a practice shown to enhance the accuracy and depth of qualitative analysis (Bazeley & Jackson, 2017), and managed in NVivo to facilitate systematic coding and thematic development. The interview guide was developed following a rigorous five-phase framework—identifying prerequisites, reviewing relevant literature, drafting, pilot-testing, and finalizing questions—to enhance trustworthiness and transparency (Kallio, Pietilä, Johnson, & Kangasniemi, 2016). Together, these instruments exemplify a convergent mixed-methods design: the written test captures breadth through standardized, statistically analyzable data while interviews capture depth through rich narrative insights (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018), and the integration of both strands allows cross-validation of findings by illuminating why learners perform as they do (Nowell, Norris, White, & Moules, 2017).

3.6.1 Written Test

The test was structured as a worksheet featuring both diagram-based tasks and purely text-based questions. This design enabled learners to express their grasp of rotational concepts in written form while also revealing their underlying reasoning about rotation. In crafting the instrument, the van Hiele model provided the organizing framework: each item was aligned with one of the first three levels of geometric thinking. These levels were visualization, analysis, and informal deduction. Previous studies indicate that Ghanaian junior high learners rarely progress beyond Level 2 (Asemani et al., 2017; Baffoe & Mereku, 2010). Moreover, the van Hiele theory itself suggests that basic-school learners do not typically operate at the formal deduction stage, reinforcing the decision to limit the test to Levels 1 through 3.

The assessment items were designed to align with the first three van Hiele levels. To achieve this, a level–concept matrix template from Abagna (2020) was employed. Although Guven’s (2012) original instrument comprised four items at Level 1, ten at Level 2, nine at Level 3, and eight at Level 4, this study selected fifteen items in total—five each for Levels 1, 2, and 3 (see Table 3.1). This approach guaranteed balanced coverage of visualization, analysis, and abstraction, along with their defining features. Some items were drawn from the Basic 8 mathematics curriculum and course textbook, while others were adapted from Abagna (2020).

Question selection was proportional to the three van Hiele levels and focused on eliciting learners’ challenges in identifying, rotating, and comparing two rotated figures.

Table 3.1: Matrix of level by concept for developing test items

Van Hiele's levels	Concept (Rotation)
levels	Number of questions
1	5 questions
2	5 questions
3	5 questions
Total	15 questions

In constructing the test items, a matrix of Van Hiele levels by concept shows that all the three levels comprised of five questions, yielding 15 raw test items. To ensure that item quantity did not undermine informational quality, each sub question was explicitly matched to its corresponding Van Hiele level, thereby aligning task complexity with learners' geometric reasoning stages. The contents of these tasks were developed to target anticipated difficulties associated with visualization, analysis, and abstraction as delineated in Van Hiele's model of geometric learning. In accordance with the 2019 National Mathematics Curriculum Framework for Ghana Junior High Schools, only levels 1–3 was assessed.

Learners were classified as having difficulties at a level if they fail to answer questions as prescribed by the achievement indicator from Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Achievement Indicators that Shows Learners' Difficulty at each Level of van Hiele's Model

Levels of achievement	Achievement indicator
Basic Level 1 (Visualization)	Recognize a rotation by observing how a figure changes in a diagram. Describe the transformation with both formal and informal terms (e.g., flip, turn, slide).
Level 2 (Analysis/ Description)	Use rotation properties to accurately sketch either the preimage or the image. Identify and specify the centre, angle, and direction of a rotation. Represent the rotated figure by plotting its coordinates. Carry out a sequence of simple rotations (composition).
Level 3 (Abstraction)	Explain how each rotation property affects the figure's appearance. Given an original and a transformed figure, determine which single rotation has occurred Recognize a rotation by observing how a figure changes in a diagram.

3.6.2 Face-To-Face Interview

A series of one-on-one, semi-structured interviews was conducted to deepen understanding of the written test findings, allowing learners to verbalize their challenges and reasoning about rotation tasks. Eight participants selected purposively from lower-performing cohorts were interviewed, each session lasting approximately 25 minutes to minimize disruption to their all-day schedules. Audio recordings were made and later transcribed verbatim, ensuring that both spoken content and non-verbal cues could be analysed. The interview guide comprised open-ended prompts to probe learners' difficulty with the test items in the written test. Again, the interview Questions were structured around Van Hiele's first three levels of geometric thought since prior studies

report that basic-level learners rarely reach formal deduction (Asemani et al., 2017; Baffoe & Mereku, 2010).

From the pool of 293 learners, eight learners were purposively chosen from those with the lowest test scores to capture a range of difficulties. Interviews took place immediately after classes on campus to facilitate observation of body language and affect, enriching the data with non-verbal indicators of confidence or confusion (Alshenqeeti, 2014). Audio files were professionally transcribed, then cross-referenced with the learners' written test responses to validate emerging themes and ensure interpretive accuracy. This triangulation strengthened confidence that interview insights truly reflected the challenges that encountered when solving the written test.

3.7 Pilot-Testing

A pilot study serves as a scaled-down rehearsal of the main research, allowing refinement of both methodology and instruments (Hollway & Jefferson, 2017). By uncovering potential issues in design or implementation, a pilot enables the researcher to adjust procedures and questionnaires before full deployment (De Vos et al., 2015).

To bolster this study's validity, both the test items and interview protocol were first trialed with twenty learners in a neighboring Agona Swedru District, outside the target sample (Hollway & Jefferson, 2017). These pupils matched the age and class level of the eventual participants. The pilot assessed whether questions elicited the intended information by recording completion times and noting difficulties with language, clarity, and item selection (Patton, 2015). The following day, the same group completed interviews using the draft protocol (see Appendix B). Analysis of written and verbal responses revealed ambiguous wording and excessive reliance on text, prompting the replacement of certain items with pictorial prompts. The interview guide was likewise

revised to match learners' comprehension levels, ensuring that the final instruments effectively captured the data needed to address the research questions.

3.8 Validity of the Instruments

Validity concerns the degree to which the conclusions drawn from numerical data are appropriate, meaningful, and useful for the sample under study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2011). It also examines whether an instrument's items adequately represent the underlying construct (De Vos et al., 2003).

To ensure both construct and content validity, this research verified that the test and interview items genuinely measured the intended concepts and aligned with the first three van Hiele levels of learning in transformational geometry. Several test tasks were adopted from Abagna (2020), who successfully used them to gauge learners' achievement at various van Hiele stages. Additional items were drawn from NaCCA-approved student workbooks, selected for their capacity to prompt visualization, identification, analysis, and description of rotational transformations. Beyond item selection, the entire process—including assigning learners to van Hiele levels, data analysis, and interpretation—was subjected to peer review. Feedback from professional colleagues and my supervisor helped refine the instruments and assured that the findings accurately reflect learners' experiences and perceptions.

3.8.1 Reliability Instruments

Reliability refers to the consistency and stability of an instrument's scores, indicating the extent to which it yields the same results under equivalent conditions (DeVellis, 2016). A highly reliable instrument produces comparable outcomes across repeated administrations, reflecting minimal measurement error (Mikkonen et al., 2022; Ergin & Coskun, 2024). In this study, the content of both the written test and the semi-structured

interview guide was independently reviewed by a colleague with expertise in mathematics education to confirm that each item aligned precisely with the intended constructs and research objectives (Mikkonen et al., 2022). Feedback from this expert review led to the revision of several questions, the addition of new primary and sub-questions to fill identified gaps, and the removal of items deemed outside the study's scope which ensured a more exhaustive instrument capable of addressing all research questions.

To further establish the reliability of the written assessment, a pilot study was conducted using both pre-test and post-test forms. By comparing participants' scores across these two administrations, it was possible to evaluate test–retest consistency. Additionally, the intraclass correlation coefficient test examined stability over time and scorer concordance which strengthens confidence that the instrument measures consistently. Table 3.3 displays the resulting intraclass correlation coefficients for both the pre-test and post-test of the instrument in the pilot t-testing, illustrating the degree of reliability achieved.

Table 3.3: Intraclass Correlation Coefficient for Pre-test and Post-test

	Intraclass Correlation^b
Single Measures	0.767 ^a
Average Measures	0.868 ^c

Source: Field Data, 2023

Following the pilot study, the instrument's reliability was quantified by computing the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) between the pre-test and post-test forms. The resulting ICC of 0.868 indicates good reliability. Based on the commonly accepted

benchmarks (Koo & Li, 2016), values below 0.50 signify poor reliability, 0.50–0.75 moderate reliability, 0.75–0.90 good reliability, and values above 0.90 excellent reliability.

3.9 Data Collection Procedure

An introductory letter was secured from the Head of the Department of Basic Education at the University of Education, Winneba. This document was presented to obtain authorization from the Municipal Director of Education at the Tano South Municipality Directorate of the Ghana Education Service (GES). The Municipal directorate in turn provided a letter of introduction to the head teachers of the various public basic schools within the Tano South Municipality. Each of the basic schools was visited at least twice. The first was to present the letter of introduction from the Municipal Director to the Head teachers. The visit was also used to interact with and to obtain the consent of the learners to participate in the study.

The purpose of the study was also explained to the respondent(s) when the test would be administered. The test item was administered with assistance by the mathematics teachers in the various schools due to time factor and relatively large number of learners. The written assessment aimed to elicit learners' solutions and to inform the development of subsequent interview questions. Responses on the test shed light on students' reasoning processes when tackling rotational transformation problems. Participants were instructed to document each step of their solution, enabling the researcher to trace their divergent thinking and pinpoint specific difficulties. The researcher directly oversaw one class's administration of the test, while mathematics teachers in the respective schools supervised the remaining groups.

Follow-up interviews were conducted on school premises. Each student received scratch paper, a pencil, and a pen, and was asked to articulate either orally or in writing the rationale behind any incorrect responses. The interview protocol targeted only those items each learner had answered incorrectly on the test, prompting explanations of “why,” “how,” and “for what reason” to deepen understanding of their challenges with rotational geometry. Interview data including verbal explanations and written notes were then systematically analyzed to categorize the nature of each learner’s difficulty with rotation tasks. These insights not only validated the written-test findings but also informed the study’s conclusions and recommendations for developing innovative instructional strategies to improve both transformation geometry and general geometry teaching.

3.10 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in qualitative research refers to the degree to which study findings are seen as credible, dependable, and transferable and thus worthy of confidence by readers and stakeholders. It parallels the notions of validity and reliability in quantitative research but is tailored to capture the nuances of human experience. Originating with Lincoln and Guba’s seminal work, trustworthiness is established through four interrelated criteria that are credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability that collectively ensure the rigor and integrity of qualitative inquiry (Quantilope, 2024)

3.10 Credibility

Credibility in qualitative research denotes the trustworthiness and believability of study findings from the participants’ perspective. To bolster credibility, this study employed methodological triangulation by integrating written test with in-depth interviews and conducted member checking by returning the data interpretation write-up, discussion,

and conclusions to over all of participants interviewed for verification. This dual strategy ensured that findings were corroborated across multiple data sources (Elo et al., 2014) and that participants could confirm or challenge the researcher's interpretations, thereby validating that the analytic summaries accurately reflected their experiences (Birt et al., 2016; Nowell et al., 2017).

3.11 Dependability

Dependability refers to the consistency and replicability of the research process, which this study secured through the creation of a detailed audit trail and transparent documentation of all methodological procedures. Every interview guide, and coding framework was systematically archived and timestamped, and comprehensive methodological appendices outlining sampling strategies, data-collection protocols, and analytic techniques were provided alongside the final report. These practices enable external reviewers to trace each decision from data gathering through analysis and to determine whether similar results could be achieved under comparable conditions (Connelly, 2016; Elo et al., 2014; Nowell et al., 2017).

3.12 Confirmability

Confirmability addresses the extent to which research findings are shaped by participants rather than researcher bias. In this study, the principal investigator maintained a reflexive journal throughout data collection and analysis, documenting personal assumptions, methodological decisions, and interpretive reflections. An independent qualitative expert then conducted an external audit of the raw data, and coding procedures, and any discrepancies between the auditor's feedback and the researcher's interpretations were discussed and, where necessary, the analytic narrative was revised. These steps ensured that conclusions remained firmly grounded in the

participants' perspectives and minimized the influence of researcher preconceptions (Birt et al., 2016; Polit & Beck, 2014; Nowell et al., 2017).

3.13 Data Analysis Procedure

The written test data underwent a thorough accuracy check before being entered into the computer and subjected to transformation. Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 27 was employed to characterize the fundamental aspects of the data. For research questions One (1) and Two (2), the analysis encompassed descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics, including frequency, percentages, mean and standard deviation, were utilized to assess the level of learners' academic achievement as well as the dispersion or clustering of scores obtained from.

In addition to descriptive statistics, inferential statistics were employed to test the hypothesis which in line was used to answer research question four. As per Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2018), inferential statistics encompass techniques used to ascertain whether the results derived from the analysis of data obtained from a sample would yield comparable outcomes for the entire population. The independent t-test statistical method was utilized to determine the comparability of mean scores between males and females. This test was also applied to assess whether a significant difference existed between the mean scores of males and females in on the concept of rotation in transformation geometry.

For research question three (3), the analysis tool employed was thematic analysis. According to Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within qualitative data in a way that is both accessible and theoretically flexible; it involves a six-phase process which is familiarization with data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing

themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the final report that can be applied across a range of epistemological and ontological approaches to provide a rich, detailed, and complex account of data.

Thematic analysis is particularly well suited to exploring the challenges Junior High School learners in Tano South Municipality face when solving transformation-related questions because it allows patterns to emerge directly from learners' own accounts, capturing both conceptual misunderstandings and affective barriers such as anxiety (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

3.14 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations revolve around moral principles that distinguish right from wrong and guide proper conduct in research (Creswell & Poth, 2018; Bryman & Bell, 2015). Researchers must take responsibility for upholding these standards throughout their work. To this end, informed consent was obtained from each participant prior to conducting interviews or administering written tests; they were fully briefed on the study's purpose and objectives. Throughout the process, transparency was maintained. Participants received honest information, and no misleading statements were made. Data confidentiality was preserved by assigning each learner a unique code such as P1M, P2F, P3M), where "P" denotes learner, the number indicates sequence, and "M" or "F" indicates gender. No physical or psychological harm resulted from participation, and scheduling was arranged to fit around participants' regular classroom activities, ensuring their learning was not disrupted.

3.15 Summary of Chapter

This chapter thoroughly outlined the study's methodological framework, covering its philosophical underpinnings, overall approach, and specific design; it also described the

research setting and population characteristics, detailed the sampling strategy and data-gathering instruments, addressed validity, reliability and trustworthiness considerations as well as the steps taken for data collection and analysis, and discussed ethical safeguards such as obtaining informed consent and ensuring participant confidentiality and anonymity.



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.0 Overview

This chapter discusses the data that were collected and used to interpret the results. The presentation consisted of two sections, namely the background information of the participants and the main results. Based on the research questions and hypotheses, the main results were presented in response to four research question and one research hypothesis. The data collected from the respondents were analysed using frequencies, percentages, means and standard deviations, independent samples t-test for the quantitative data and the qualitative data was also analysed with thematic analysis and the results was presented with discussions. The findings of this study are immensely significant as they shed light on how learners understanding of rotation in transformation geometry.

4.1 Data Analysis and Discussion

The analysis and interpretation of findings were structured into two distinct segments: Section A and Section B. Section A centered on evaluating demographic variables such as respondents' gender distribution and average age. Section B, in contrast, analysed outcomes related to respondents' academic achievement in the topic of transformation geometry, specifically focusing on rotational concepts.

Section A: Participant Demographic Profile

This section outlines the demographic characteristics of the study's respondents. By examining factors like age and gender, the analysis offers a comprehensive perspective on the cohort's composition, enabling a deeper contextualization of the research sample.

Table 4.1: Gender and Age-range of Respondents

Variable	Sub-scale	No.	%
Gender	Male	167	57
	Female	126	43
	Total	293	100
Age (in years)	14	78	26.7
	15	132	45.0
	16	54	18.4
	17	10	3.4
	18	10	3.4
	19	9	3.1
	Total	293	100

Source: Field Data, 2023

Table 4.1 shows that the majority of respondents (n=167, 57%) were male, followed by female participants (n=126, 43%). Regarding age distribution, the largest proportion of respondents (n=132, 45%) were 15 years old, followed by those aged 14 (n=78, 26.7%) and 16 (n=54, 18.4%). Respondents aged 17 and 18 each accounted for 3.4% (n=10), while the minority (n=9, 3.1%) were 19 years old. The significance of this data lies in the sample's demographic skew: 71.7% (n=210) of respondents were younger adolescents aged 14–15 years, suggesting the study's findings may be most relevant to early adolescence in Tano South District, a pivotal stage for targeted interventions.

Section B: Main Data Analysis

Following the analysis of the background characteristics of the respondents, this section delves into the critical phase of analysis, where the gathered information is rigorously examined to address the study's core research questions. The primary objective here was to transform raw data into meaningful insights, for both the quantitative and qualitative. By applying statistical techniques, thematic coding, this analysis sought to uncover

patterns, relationships, and trends that directly align with the learning of transformation geometry (rotation) in Tano South District. Structured around each research question, the section methodically outlines the analytical approaches, presents key findings, and interprets results.

Based on research question one (1): What is the academic achievement level of Junior High School learners in the concept of Rotation under Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality?

Research Question 1 sought to determine the of academic achievement of junior high school learners in transformation geometry (rotation) in Tano South District. To the determine the level of academic achievement of learners, descriptive statistics such as frequency and percentage as well as mean and standard deviation as well as mean and standard deviation was employed. The scores of learners were then classified into ranges of below average (0-5), average (6-10), and above average (10-15). The frequencies and percentages for each level of academic achievement category are presented on Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Descriptive Statistics (Frequency Distribution) Of Written Mathematics Test

Category	Range	F	(%)
Below Average	0-5	267	91.2
Average	6-10	26	8.8
Above Average	11-15	0	0
Total		293	100
Mean			3.41
Std Dev			1.69

Source: Field Data (2023)

The data in Tables 4.2 revealed that Junior High School learners in the Tano South District scored low proficiency in transformation geometry (rotation), with 267 learner representing 91.2% of the population scoring below average range (0-5), 26 learners representing 8.8% of the population scoring in the average range (6-10) and no learner achieving above average scores (11-15), yielding an overall mean score of 3.41 with a standard deviation of 1.69 which indicates a minimal mastery of rotational concepts. The relatively large cluster of scores at the lower end of the scale indicates that majority of learners in the Tano South District have not grasped sufficient understanding of rotation which is a foundational component of transformation geometry.

The results from the analysis reveal critically low academic achievement among Junior High School learners in Tano South District in transformation geometry (rotation), with 91.2% scoring below average (0-5) and no learners achieving above-average marks (11-15), corroborating broader trends in Ghanaian geometric education. This aligns with Baffoe and Mereku's (2010) findings that most Ghanaian learners enter senior high school with Van Hiele levels below international norms, as the mean score of 3.41/15 here suggests learners are predominantly at Level 0 (pre-visualization) or Level 1 (basic recognition), unable to analytically articulate rotational properties like preserved congruency or coordinate rules. The universal struggle with rotation mirrors Ada and Kurtuluş's (2010) observation that learners often execute procedural steps without grasping geometric meaning, reflecting rote memorization of formulas such as $180^\circ = -x$, $-y$ rather than conceptual understanding of invariants like distance and angle preservation. Instructional misalignment with Van Hiele's hierarchy is evident in the Tano South District, as traditional chalk-and-talk methods which is dominant in Ghanaian classrooms (Abreh et al., 2018) neglects hands-on, dynamic experiences necessary to scaffold spatial reasoning, a gap underscored by the absence of tasks

requiring informal deduction (Level 3) such as proving rotational symmetry. These deficiencies are compounded by systemic issues, including limited access to technology for dynamic visualization as stated Eickelmann et al., 2016 and inadequate teacher preparedness, as Armah et al. (2017) found pre-service teachers themselves operate at low Van Hiele levels.

Based on research question two (2): What geometric thinking levels of Van Hiele reflect Junior High School learners' geometric thinking with focus on rotation??

To determine the level of Van Hiele's Geometric thinking of Junior High School learners in the Tano South District, the results obtained in the written Mathematics test were analysed using frequency and percentages.

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics of the Written Mathematics Test

Levels	Scores	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Level 1	0 - 2	78	26.7
	3 - 4	172	58.7
	5	43	14.6
	Total	293	100
Level 2	0 – 2	276	94.2
	3 - 4	17	5.8
	5	0	0.0
	Total	293	100
Level 3	0 – 2	293	100
	3– 4	0	0.0
	5	0	0.0
	Total	293	100

Source: Field Data (2023)

The data in Table 4.3 revealed the Van Hiele levels attained by Junior High School learners in the Tano South District. To determine this, the written Mathematics test scores were grouped into three levels and analysed using frequencies and percentage. It is

revealed in the Table that at level 1, 78 learners representing 26.7% of the population scores between 0 and 2, 172 learners representing 58.7% scored between 3 and 4, and 43 learners representing 14.6% scored the maximum score of 5. This means that 215 learners representing 73.3% of the population obtained a score of 3 or higher at level 1, indicating that the majority of learners reached level of Van Hiele levels. Again, the mean score of 3.05 out of 5 at the first level suggest that on average, learners correctly answered three questions out of five questions at the first level, while a standard deviation of 1.34 indicates moderate variability around the mean.

In contrast, at level 2, 276 learners representing 94.2% of the learners scored 0-2 marks, and only 17 learners representing 5.8% of the learners scored between 3 and 4, with no learner attaining the top mark of 5. Accordingly, only 5.8% of the learners reached level 2. The mean score of 1.15 which was barely of one correct response out of the five and relatively low standard deviation of 0.58 indicates that most scores clustered around the bottom end. This showed that generally the achievement of learners at the second level was low.

Finally, at the third level, all the learners scored between 0 and 2 marks, with no scores above 2. Therefore, no learner (0.0%) attained level 3.

Overall, 73% of the learners demonstrated fundamental geometric recognition (level 1), very few (5.8%) progressed to analytic reasoning (level 2), and none of the learners were able to reach the deductive stage (level 3). This steep drop-off indicates the need poor academic achievement of Junior High School learners in Tano South District the learning of rotation in transformation geometry.

The data from the analysis reveals a stark stagnation in Van Hiele geometric thinking levels among Junior High School learners in Tano South District, with 73.3% operating

at Level 1 (basic recognition), 5.8% at Level 2 (informal analysis), and 0% reaching Level 3 (deductive reasoning), aligning with broader deficiencies in Ghanaian geometric education. At Level 1, the mean score of 3.05/5 indicates learners can identify rotated shapes for example recognizing a triangle's orientation change but lack analytic depth, which is consistent with Baffoe & Mereku's (2010) finding that 59% of Ghanaian SHS entrants remain at Level 1. This mirrors Mensah et al. (2023), where 56.25% of JHS learners in Sekondi-Takoradi scored at Level 0-1, highlighting systemic reliance on visual recognition without property-based reasoning. The collapse to 5.8% at Level 2 with a mean of 1.15/5 reflects an inability to analyse rotational invariants for example, preserved side lengths, echoing Ada & Kurtuluş's (2010) observation that learners mechanically apply formulas such as rotation matrices without conceptualizing geometric meaning. The total absence of Level 3 performers underscores a curriculum failing to nurture deductive skills, as seen in Armah et al. (2017), where only 1% of pre-service teachers reached Level 3, perpetuating a cycle of superficial instruction. These outcomes stem from instructional misalignment with Van Hiele's phases with traditional methods prioritize rote memorization over guided exploration for example by using dynamic geometry software to test rotational conjectures, neglecting NCTM's (2017) call for dynamic, inquiry-based tasks. The near-zero progression beyond Level 1 also reflects spatial reasoning gaps, as learners lack manipulatives such as protractors, grid paper to bridge concrete and abstract thinking, a deficit exacerbated by limited teacher training and resource constraints (Eickelmann et al., 2016).

Based on research question three (3): What is the difference in academic achievement between male and female learners in Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality?

This research question sought to determine the difference in academic achievement between males and female learner in Tano South District on rotation in transformation geometry. The analysis in Table 4.4 shows how both males and female learners performed on the mathematics written test.

Table 4.4: Descriptive Statistics of Males and Females on Mathematic Written Test

Gender	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Males	167	3.36	1.78
Females	126	3.48	1.58

Sources: Field Data, 2023

The descriptive statistics in Table 4.4 shows that in the written test, female respondents ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 1.58$) marginally outperformed their male counterparts ($M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.78$). The slightly higher high standard deviation among males indicates that the males' scores were a bit more widely dispersed around their mean, while females' scores clustered more closely. In practical terms, this implies that gender is not a meaningful predictor of ability on Rotation questions.

To determine whether this tiny mean difference is statistically significant or educationally important there is the need for further analysis to determine the if there is a significant different between males and females.

Hypothesis Testing

H_0 : There is no statistically significant difference in the academic achievement of male and female learners in transformation geometry in Tano South District.

This hypothesis sought to determine if there was any statistically significant difference in the academic achievement of male and female learners of rotation in transformation geometry.

Assumption Testing

Before employing the T-test as inferential statistics to test the hypothesis formulated for the study, the researcher conducted a preliminary test on the assumptions of T-test. The specific assumptions subjected to scrutiny included, but were not limited to, normality, homogeneity of variances, not significant outliers, scale of measurement of the data, and independence of observations. These assumptions were considered and steps were taken to satisfy them as follows;

Scale of Measurement of Data

The dataset comprises test scores, classified as quantitative data measured at either the interval or ratio level. These continuous values allow for precise statistical comparisons across groups.

Normality

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was applied to evaluate the distribution of scores. A non-significant result ($p = 0.200$) confirmed that the data adhered to a normal distribution, satisfying the normality assumption required for parametric analyses.

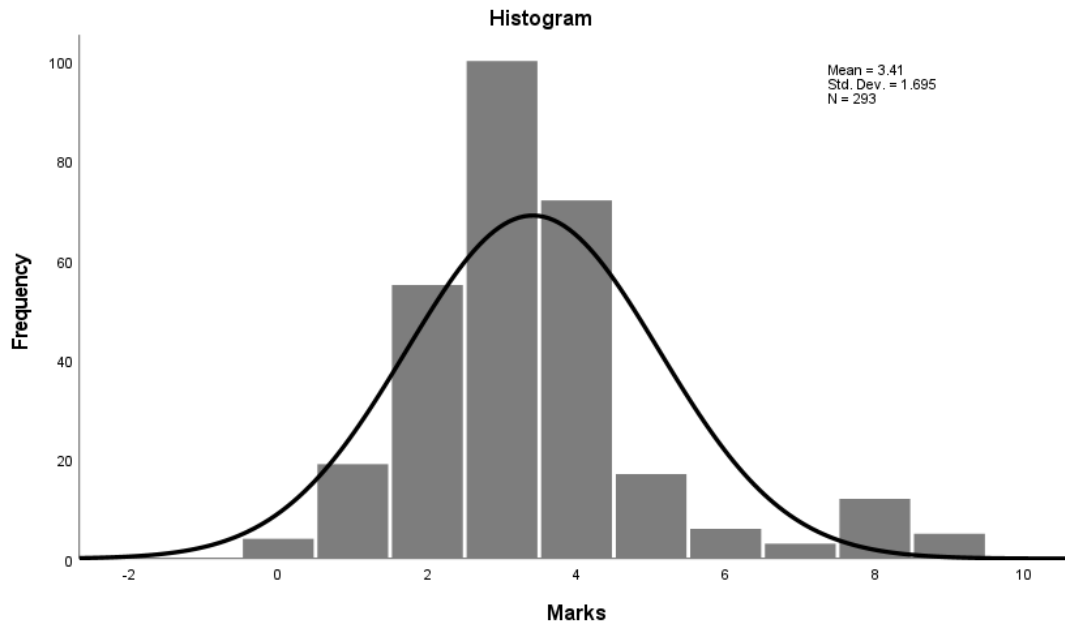


Figure 4.1: Histogram on Written Mathematics Test Scores

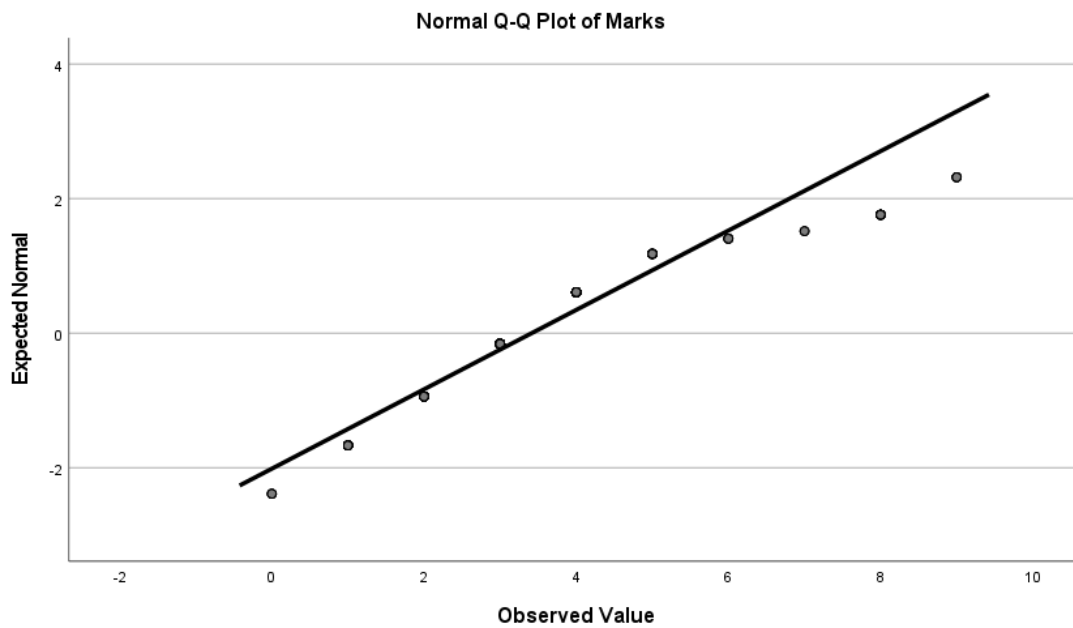


Figure 4.2: Q-Q Plot of Written Mathematics Test Scores

Independence of Observation

To safeguard the independence of observations, testing protocols included stringent supervision during administration to minimize peer interactions and mitigating potential dependencies among respondents.

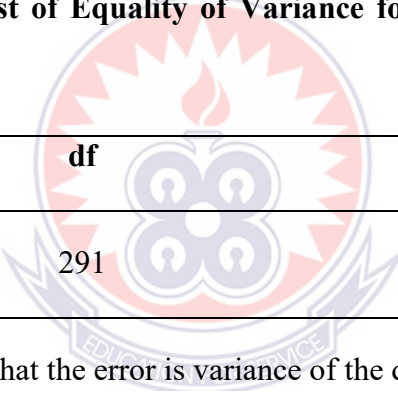
No Outliners

A preliminary review of the dataset was conducted to identify missing values or extreme deviations from central tendencies. Visualization tools, including stem-and-leaf plots and box-and-whisker diagrams, were employed to detect anomalies, ensuring data integrity prior to analysis.

Homogeneity of variance

Levene's test was conducted to assess equality of variances between males and female groups (see Table 4.5). The non-significant outcome ($p = 0.518$) supported the assumption of homogeneity, indicating comparable variances across groups.

Table 4.5: Levene's Test of Equality of Variance for Written Mathematics Test Scores



F	df	Sig.
0.419	291	0.518

Test the null hypotheses that the error is variance of the dependent

Sources: Field Data, 2023

The non-significant result from Levene's test ($p = 0.518$) statistically confirmed homogeneity of variance, reinforcing the suitability of parametric methods. With all assumptions met, which included normality, independence, absence of outliers, and equal variances. The application of the independent samples t-test was deemed methodologically justified. This rigorous validation ensures the robustness and interpretability of subsequent inferential analyses.

Table 4.6: Independent Samples T-Test of Males and Females on Written Mathematics Test Scores

	N	Mean	SD	F	Levene's Sig.	t	df	Sig (2 tailed)
Males	167	3.36	1.78	0.419	0.518	0.623	291	0.533
Females	126	3.48	1.58			0.634		0.527

Source: Field Work, 2023

The results in Table 4.6 of the independent samples t-test conducted showed that the written test academic achievement of males ($M=3.36$, $SD=3.178$) was not statistically significantly different from the academic achievement of females ($M=3.48$, $SD=1.58$). at 0.05 level of significance, ($t(291) = 0.623$, $n = 293$, $p > 0.05$) and 95% confidence interval. Thus, the critical P-value obtained (0.533, 2-tailed) is greater than the alpha level of .05 indicating that the difference in mean written test scores between males and females was not statistically significant. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and concludes that there is no statistically significant difference in the academic achievement between male and female learners on the concept of rotation in transformation geometry.

From the analysis of Table 4.6, which reveal no statistically significant gender difference in academic achievement on rotation in transformation geometry, with female learners marginally outperforming males with a mean score of 3.48 and standard deviation of 1.58 compared to a mean score of 3.36 and standard deviation of 1.78 with p-value of 0.533 challenge some prior claims of male superiority in geometry while aligning with broader literature emphasizing contextual and instructional influences on gender gaps. Battista's (1990) assertion that spatially oriented pedagogies can mitigate disparities may

indirectly resonate here, as the absence of a significant gap in Tano South could suggest equitable instructional practices such as visual or problem-solving approaches that support spatial skill development across genders, though this remains speculative without explicit evidence of teaching methods. The results also align with Leahey and Guo's (2001) critique of overgeneralized narratives about early male dominance, as their longitudinal work found delayed, modest gaps tied to contextual factors like coursework choices and skill development. The Tano South Municipality data, collected at the senior secondary level, reinforces their argument that gender differences are neither inevitable nor uniform, as local curricula or equitable teacher practices might suppress disparities. However, the findings contradict Gumel and Galadima's (2014) observation of male achievement advantages in geometry, highlighting regional variability. This discrepancy may stem from differences in assessment design such as procedural vs. spatial emphasis or cultural attitudes toward gender in STEM education. Notably, the marginally higher female mean and tighter score clustering with a standard deviation of 1.58 compared to males' wider dispersion with a standard deviation of 1.78 mirror broader trends of greater male variability but do not translate to meaningful achievement differences. The lack of statistical significance underscores that gender alone is not a reliable predictor of rotational geometry ability in this context, supporting critiques of essentialist claims about cognitive differences. Instead, the results emphasize the role of localized factors such as equitable teaching practices, assessment focus, and sociocultural norms in shaping outcomes.

Based on research question four (4): What challenges do Junior High School learners face in learning the concept of Rotation in Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality??

To explore the challenges faced by Junior High School (JHS) learners in solving transformation-related questions, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 8 learners (4 female, 4 male) from the Tano South Municipality. The responses were analysed thematically, revealing four key challenges which were confusion in transformation concepts, poor visualization skills, low confidence and anxiety, and reliance on guesswork.

Theme 1: Confusion in Transformation Concepts

Sub-theme 1: Transformation Mix-up

Learners struggled to differentiate between types of transformations, particularly rotation, reflection, and translation. From the interview One learner stated:

“I sometimes confuse what rotation is with sliding because I don’t always know how the shape turning.” (P1F).

Another learner added:

“If the shape is facing a new direction, I will say it is rotation. But sometimes I get confused when the same thing is done in reflection because they look the same.” (P5F).

A recurring issue was misinterpreting visual cues, as noted by a learner:

“I try to look at how the corners of the shape is moved, but it is not easy when the shape just looks like it is in a new place. So sometimes I think it is translation instead.” (P1F).

Sub-theme 2: Terminology Misunderstanding

Learners frequently combine transformation terminology, leading to errors. For example, a learner stated:

“At times I get mixed up between rotation and reflection because at times the two can change the position of the figure.” (P5F).

Another learner explained:

“I sometimes confuse what rotation and reflection is all the time, because maybe the rotated shape looks like it could have just been flipped over a line.” (P4M).

This confusion was compounded by diagrams perceived as misleading:

“It mix it up for sometimes. I look for the turning, but sometimes the figure worries me and I get it wrong.” (P8M).

From the analysis of the interview, confusion between transformation types and terminology undermines learners’ ability to accurately identify and apply geometric transformations.

Theme 2: Poor Visualisation Skills

Sub-theme 1: Angle Visualisation

Learners found it challenging to visualize angles and directions. One learner shared:

“I get confused when it turns, they say 270 degrees. I don’t know how it should look.” (P3F).

Another learner noted difficulties with orientation:

“Sometimes I forget if clockwise is left or right. So I rotate the shape the wrong way...” (P3F).

Complex shapes worsened these poor visualization issues as stated by a learner:

“If it is a square or rectangle, I can do it but with triangles I have don’t know where the points go after turning.” (P2M).

Sub-theme 2: Grid Plotting Difficulties

Using grids and coordinates proved problematic for many of the learners. A learner admitted:

“Rotating each corner one by one takes a lot of time, and I don’t remember how to use the coordinates.” (P3F).

Others learners struggled with spatial accuracy:

“My teacher said using the grid should make solving it easier, but I always make mistake when I count the boxes.” (P8M).

Misplacement of shapes was common as a learner noted:

“I try to count squares, but I end up putting the shape in the wrong place.” (P2M).

From the analysis of the interview, struggles in spatial reasoning and coordinate navigating was a limiting factor that prevented accurate transformation execute transformations accurately.

Theme 3: Low Confidence and Anxiety

Sub-theme 1: Anxiety under Pressure

Learners reported heightened anxiety during assessments. One learner described:

“I sometimes panic when I see shapes that look the same. Sometimes the answers all look correct, but the one that is rotated differently confuses me.” (P1F).

Negative emotions intensified with complex angles:

“Sometimes when it says -90° , I get lost and I choose the wrong one.” (P8M).

Sub-theme 2: Second-guessing Decisions

Uncertainty led to self-doubt. A learner explained:

“I was not sure of myself the whole time. I sometimes pick one answer, then think maybe another one was the correct answer.” (P6M).

Another learner added:

“Sometimes I see two images that both look right. I end up guessing the right answer.” (P4M).

From the analysis of the interview data, self-doubt reduces learners' confidence which lead to hesitation and errors in problem-solving.

Theme 4: Reliance on Guesswork

Sub-theme 1: Random Guessing

Learners often resorted to guesswork due to confusion. One learner admitted:

“I guess a point that is close to the middle when I am doing rotation.” (P7F).

Another learner stated:

“I don't understand the difference between rotation and reflection in that test. That is why I picked the wrong option.” (P8M).

Sub-theme 2: Procedural Shortcut

Avoiding proper methods led to mistakes. A learner shared:

“When I am asked to identify which transformation represented a rotation, I guessed because the shapes look the same.” (P3F).

Another learner echoed:

“It was hard because I was thinking plenty the whole time on the test... I pick one answer; then think maybe another one was better.” (P6M).

From the analysis of the data, learners had limited conceptual mastery and time constraints made learners to prioritise speed over accuracy which undermined learning outcomes.

Discussion of Thematic Analysis

Through a detailed thematic analysis of learner responses to rotation-focused transformation geometry questions, several core challenges emerge that mirror global trends in geometry education. First, many students exhibit conceptual misunderstandings: they conflate rotation with other transformations such as reflection or translation, leading to procedural errors when determining image positions or rotation angles. This aligns with research indicating that learners often treat rotation as “turning” without fully grasping its formal properties such as centre, direction, and degree (Van de Walle et al., 2019). Second, spatial reasoning deficits are pervasive. Students struggle to mentally visualize the effect of rotating shapes in the plane, particularly when rotations involve non-standard angles (e.g., 270° or -90°). This difficulty is compounded when learners cannot sketch intermediate steps, a finding corroborated by Uttal et al. (2013), who link weak spatial skills to lower achievement in geometry. Third, language and notation barriers impede comprehension: unfamiliarity with terminology such as “pre-image,” “centre of rotation,” or “rotation mapping” leads to misinterpretation of questions and instructions. Finally, learners report that cognitive overload stemming from having to juggle multiple rotation parameters simultaneously diminishes their accuracy. Collectively, these universal struggles underscore the need for instructional strategies that

explicitly build rotation vocabulary, scaffold spatial visualization, and sequence rotation concepts from simple to complex.

Confusion in Transformation Concepts emerged as a critical challenge, with learners frequently combining the concept of rotation, reflection, and translation. For example, learners misinterpreted a shape's reorientation as sliding which represents translation rather than rotation often due to ambiguous visual cues in diagrams. This finding aligns with studies by Ada & Kurtulus (2010) and Catherin (2024), who attributed such errors to instructional gaps in differentiating geometric transformations such as rotation preserves orientation, while reflection reverses it. The van Hiele model further contextualizes this confusion as learners operating at Level 1 (analysis) struggle to abstract transformation rules because instructions often skip tactile experiences such as folding paper for reflections and rather jumps to algebraic procedures. This misalignment between teaching methods and developmental readiness creates misconceptions, as seen in learners' inability to articulate why a rotated shape remains congruent.

Poor Visualization Skills compounded these challenges, particularly in tasks requiring mental manipulation of angles or grid-based plotting. Learners described difficulties imagining 270° rotations or accurately counting grid squares, reflecting deficits in spatial reasoning emphasized by Battista (2020). These struggles mirror findings from Bashiru & Nyarko (2019) in Ghana, where over 60% of JHS learners remained at van Hiele Level 1 (*visualization*), unable to progress to analytical reasoning. However, the data revealed a contextual layer that even when grids were available, learners misapplied directional conventions such as confusing clockwise with counterclockwise. A challenge amplified by limited access to dynamic tools like dynamic geometry software. This finding

emphasises calls from literature for low-cost, hands-on strategies such as paper folding and tracing to scaffold spatial skills in resource-limited settings.

Low Confidence and Anxiety highlighted learners' experiences, particularly during assessments. learners reported panic when confronted with similar-looking figures or negative angles, often second-guessing their answers. This finding aligns with Kushwaha et al. (2014), who linked anxiety to repeated academic failures, and Mills & Mereku (2016), who tied Ghanaian learners' poor BECE achievement to systemic gaps in foundational skills. Notably, the data highlighted instructional triggers for anxiety, such as teachers emphasizing speed over conceptual clarity or publicly correcting errors. While the literature often focuses on exam-related stress, this finding reveals how traditional teaching practice such as rushing through transformations without addressing misconceptions directly fuel learners' fear of forgetting formulas or disappointing teachers.

Reliance on guesswork emerged as another challenge, with learners admitting to randomly selecting answers or skipping steps. This mirrors Catherin's (2024) findings in Zambia, where learners defaulted to guesswork when procedural knowledge failed. The literature attributes this to cognitive overload (Lesh et al., 1987) or misalignment with van Hiele levels, but the data adds a cultural dimension in which Ghana's high-stakes exam culture, learners viewed guesswork as a time-saving strategy rather than a mere conceptual gap. This reflects Mereku's (2012) critique of the curriculum's exam-driven focus, which prioritizes rote memorization over deep understanding.

While the findings largely confirm global literature on transformation geometry challenges, they highlight unique contextual barriers. For example, the literature

advocates digital tools such as DGS to enhance visualization, but in Tano South, limited resources and teacher training render such solutions impractical.

4.2 Chapter Summary

This chapter analyses Junior High School learners' understanding of rotation in transformation geometry in Tano South District, Ghana, combining quantitative and qualitative data. The study involved 293 learners with 57% male, 43% female, predominantly aged 14 -15. Results revealed critically low academic achievement, with 91.2% scoring below average with a mean of 3.41, indicating minimal mastery of rotational concepts. Van Hiele geometric thinking levels showed 73.3% at basic recognition (Level 1), 5.8% at analytical reasoning (Level 2), and none at deductive reasoning (Level 3), highlighting stagnation in higher-order skills. Gender differences were negligible, with females marginally outperforming males, though statistically insignificant. Qualitative themes identified key challenges: confusion between rotation and other transformations, poor visualization of angles and grids, anxiety during problem-solving, and reliance on guesswork. These issues reflect systemic gaps in instruction, such as rote memorization over conceptual learning and limited access to dynamic tools.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Overview

This chapter discusses the study's objectives, methodology, and key findings, drawing conclusions and recommendations to address the challenges in teaching and learning transformation geometry (rotation) among Junior High School (JHS) learners in Tano South Municipality. It concludes with suggestions for future research to advance geometric education.

5.1 Summary of the Study

This study investigated the academic achievement, Van Hiele geometric thinking levels, gender differences, and challenges faced by JHS learners in learning rotation within transformation geometry. The research addressed four questions and tested one hypothesis which are as follow:

Research Questions

1. Research question one: what is the level of academic achievement of Junior High School learners in Transformation Geometry (Rotation) in Tano South Municipality?
2. Research question two: what geometric thinking levels of Van Hiele reflect Junior High School learners' geometric thinking with focus on rotation?
3. Research question three: what is the difference in academic achievement between male and female learners in Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality.

4. Research question four: what challenges do Junior High School learners face when solving transformation-related questions in Tano South Municipality.

Hypothesis

H_0 : There is no statistically significant difference in the academic achievement of male and female learners on Transformation Geometry in Tano South Municipality.

This study employed a concurrent embedded mixed-methods design to holistically assess Junior High School (JHS) learners' understanding of rotation in transformation geometry within Ghana's Tano South Municipality. Quantitative data were collected through a 15-item written test administered to 293 Basic 9 learners which aligned with Van Hiele's geometric thinking levels: Level 1 (Visualization), Level 2 (Analysis) and Level 3 (Abstraction). Scores were categorized as below average (0-5), average (6-10), and above average (11-15), with achievement trends analysed via descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviation, frequencies) and independent samples t-tests to evaluate gender differences. Qualitative insights were derived from semi-structured interviews with 8 purposively selected learners (4 male, 4 female) scoring in the lowest quartile, focusing on misconceptions, spatial reasoning challenges, and affective. Interviews were transcribed verbatim and analysed through thematic analysis.

5.2 Key Findings

The key findings are presented in this section. The study revealed four key findings of the study. The key findings are discussed as follows:

1. The study revealed alarmingly low academic achievement in transformation geometry (rotation), with 91.2% of learners scoring below average and no learner achieving above-average marks. Learners struggled most with tasks requiring

coordinate-based reasoning such as plotting points after rotation and identifying rotational symmetry.

2. Learners exhibited severe stagnation in geometric thinking, with 73.3% confined to Van Hiele Level 1 (visualization) whereby there were limited to recognizing rotated figures without analyzing properties. Only 5.8% progressed to Level 2 (analysis), demonstrating basic property-based reasoning while none reached Level 3 (abstraction) or higher, failing to deduce relationships between transformations or generalize rotational principles.
3. Academic achievement showed no statistically significant difference between male and female learners with a p-value of 0.533 confirming gender parity. Both groups faced identical challenges, such as misapplying coordinate rules and confusing transformations.
4. Learners faced three interrelated barriers: conceptual confusion, poor spatial visualization, and anxiety-driven guesswork. Interviews revealed that learners often defaulted to random guessing under time pressure, as they lacked confidence in their ability to mentally manipulate figures or apply rotational formulas.

5.3 Conclusions

Four conclusions were drawn from findings of this study.

1. Traditional teaching methods fail to scaffold learners beyond Van Hiele Level 1, emphasizing rote memorization over conceptual reasoning (e.g., coordinate rules taught without visualization).

2. Lack of hands-on tools (e.g., grid paper, protractors) and dynamic software hinders learners' ability to mentally manipulate figures, exacerbating poor achievement.
3. Equal underachievement across genders reflects curriculum and resource gaps rather than innate ability differences.
4. Anxiety and confusion stem from insufficient mastery of foundational concepts, leading to guesswork and disengagement.

5.4 Recommendations

From the findings of this study, the following recommendations are made for Ghana Education Service and other stakeholders for application.

1. Ghana Education Service through the Educational Directorate in Tano South Municipality should distribute low-cost manipulatives such as grid paper, geometric cutouts and leverage free dynamic geometry apps such as GeoGebra to enhance spatial reasoning and reduce reliance on guesswork.
2. Ghana Education Service through the Educational Directorate in Tano South Municipality should conduct workshops to train teachers in phased instruction aligned with Van Hiele levels, emphasizing hands-on activities to bridge visualization and analysis.
3. The Educational Directorate in Tano South Municipality should prioritize funding for technology access such as tablets with geometry software in rural schools and develop gender-inclusive teaching strategies to maintain equitable engagement.

4. Mathematics teachers in Tano South Municipality should redesign lesson plans to explicitly differentiate between transformations rotation/reflection/translation and incorporate real-world applications such as clock rotations to contextualize abstract concepts.



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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

MATHEMATICS TEST

Learner Code:

Time: 60 minutes

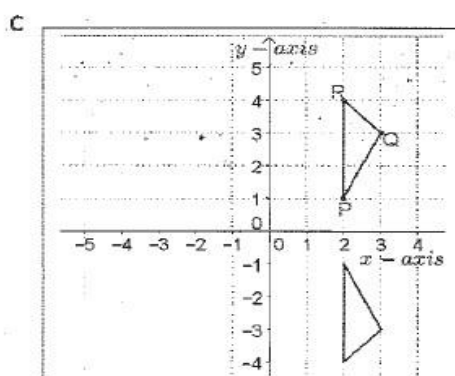
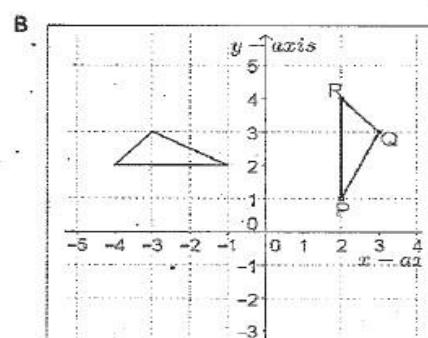
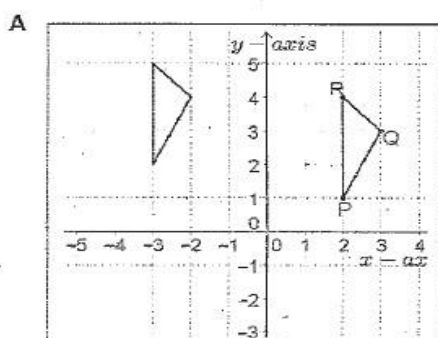
Please note that this assessment is non-evaluative and will not contribute to your end-of-term results. Its purpose is only for diagnostic: to pinpoint any challenges you may have with the concept of rotation. Your responses will enable your teacher to understand which aspects of rotation require further clarification and to develop targeted instructional strategies. Thank you for your thoughtful participation

Instructions

1. Answer all questions by ensuring that the steps you take in arriving at a particular are of importance rather than the correct answer.
2. You are allowed to make any marks on the question paper and show all steps you took in arriving at the answer.

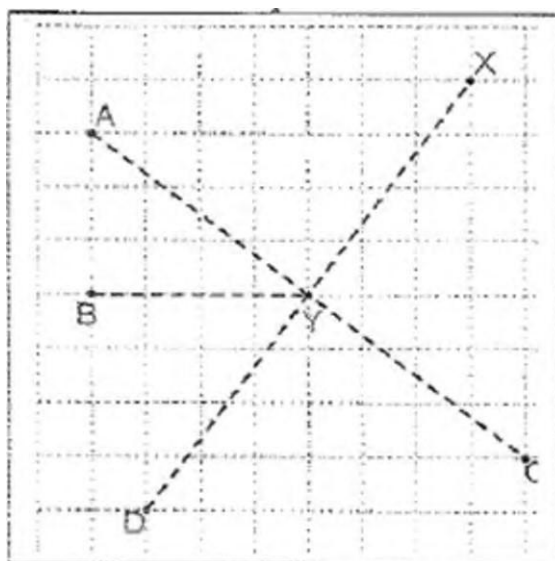
Question 1 (level 1)

1.1 Consider each of the diagrams below that represents a transformation of triangle PQR. Which among the transformation represent a rotation?



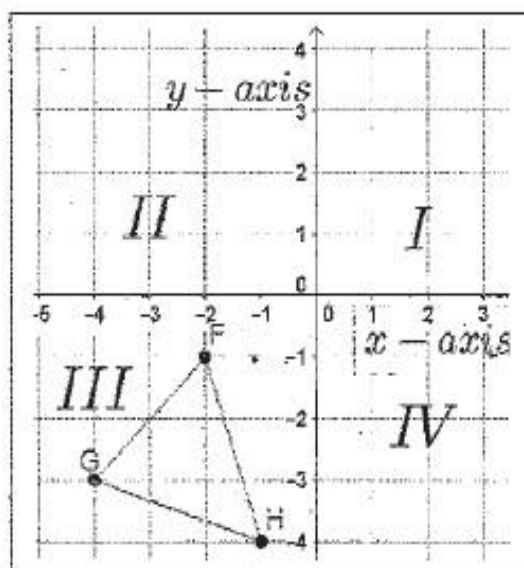
Answer.....

1.2 In the figure below, X has been rotated about the point y as a centre. Which of the following images A, B, C and D is a true representation of X after a rotation of -90° ?



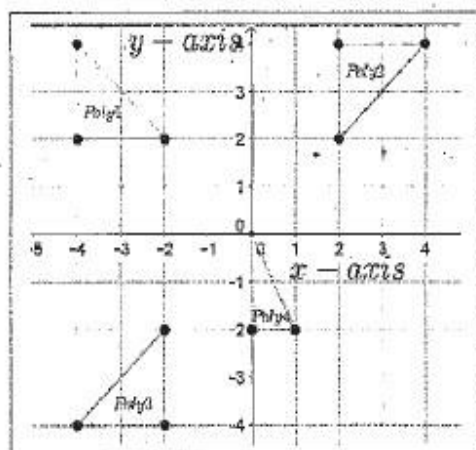
Answer.....

1.3 Identify in which quadrant I, II, III and IV will the image of $\triangle FGH$ be located if rotated through 90° about the origin.



Answer.....

1.4 Consider the diagram below.

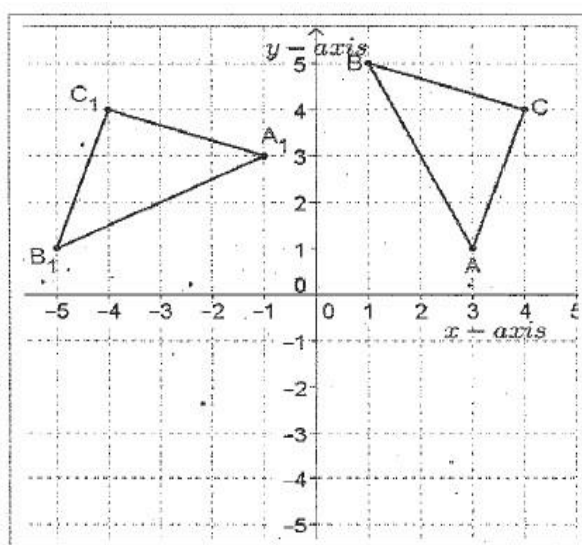


1.4.1 Identify the polygons that are congruent to polygon 1-----

1.4.2 Name the type of rotation from polygon 1 to polygon 2 -----

Question 2 (Level 2)

2.1.1 A figure (ABC) and its image ($A_1B_1C_1$) after rotation is given below, locate or draw the following



i) Centre of rotation-----

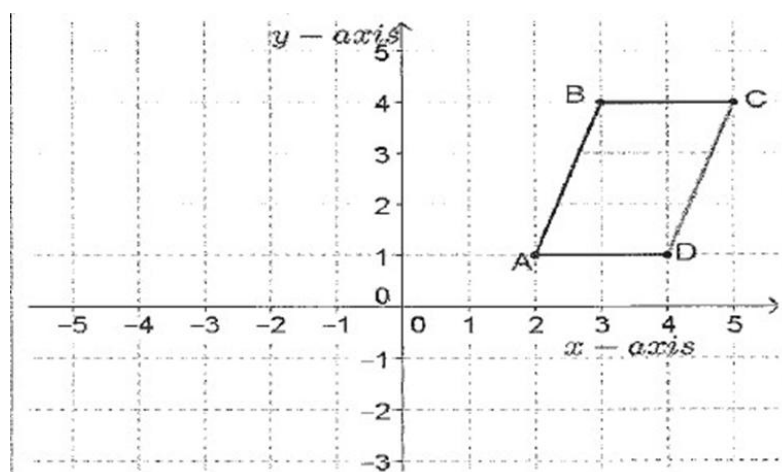
ii) Angle of rotation -----

2.1.2. What type of rotation is represented above? -----

2.1.3. What can you say about the image $A_1B_1C_1$ as compared with the preimage ABC ? -----

Question 3 (Level 3)

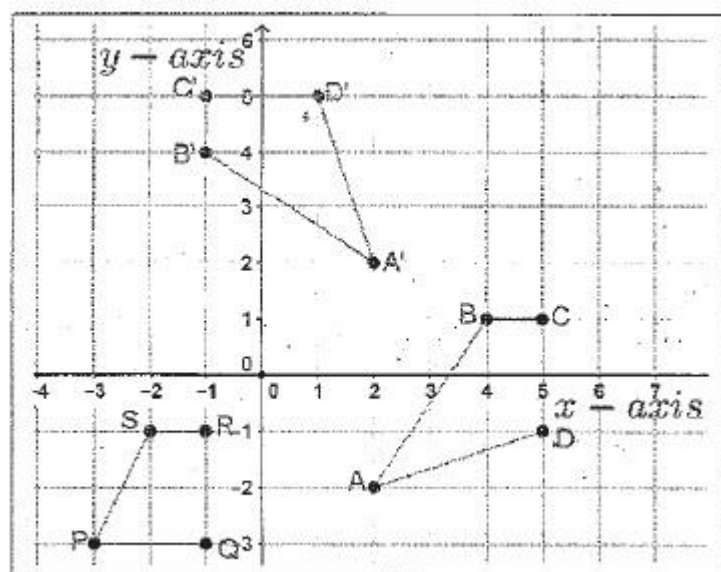
On the grid below, x and y axes have been labelled



3.1.1 Rotate ABCD through 90° (anticlockwise), about $(0,0)$ and label the image PQRS where $A \rightarrow P, B \rightarrow Q, C \rightarrow R$ and $D \rightarrow S$.

3.1.2 Through how many angles in degrees anticlockwise can you rotate the same figure so that it can fit exactly on to the original figure?

Consider the diagram below.



3.2.1 Describe fully the transformation that maps quadrilateral ABCD onto that of A'B'C'D'?

3.2.2 Is the quadrilateral ABCD congruent to that of PQRS? -----

APPENDIX B

MARKING SCHEME OF THE MATHEMATICS TEST

Question 1 (Level 1)

1.1 B

1.2 A

1.3 IV

1.4.1 Polygon 2 and polygon 3

1.4.2 Clockwise rotation of 90° or anticlockwise 270°

5marks

Question 2 (level 2)

2.1.1

(i) Origin i.e. (0,0)

(ii) 90°

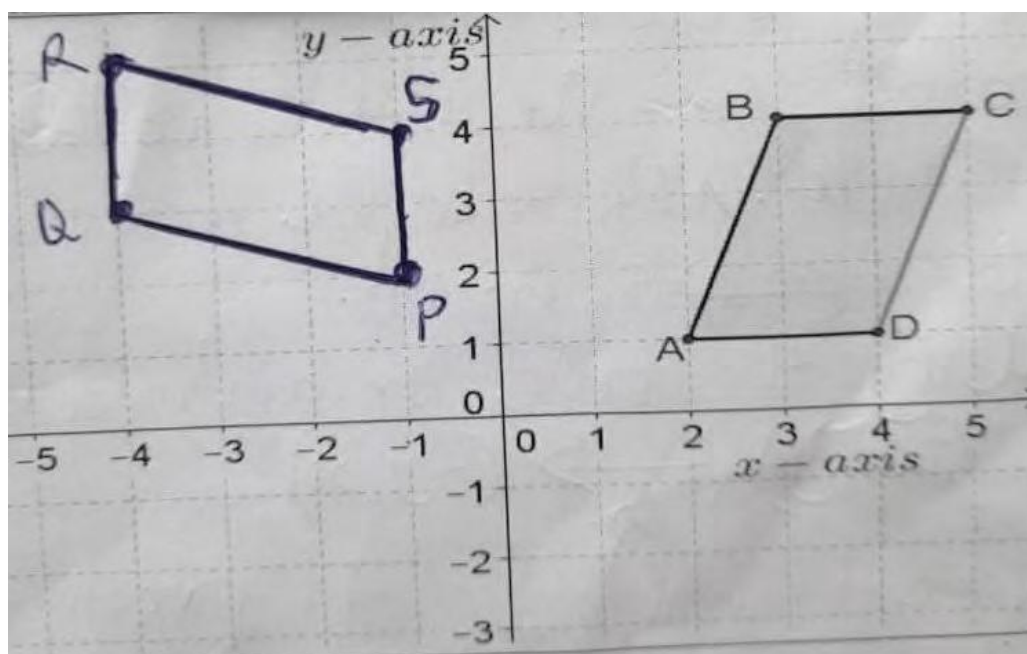
2.1.2 Anticlockwise rotation

2.1.3 Image $A_1B_1C_1$ is congruent to the preimage ABC

5marks

Question 3 (level 3)

(i) 3.1.1 Anticlockwise 90° rotation of ABCD to PQRS



3.1.2 360° or 1 revolution

3.2.1 Using the tracing paper: the shape and centre of rotation is traced. The tracing paper is held down with a pencil on the centre of the rotation. It is then rotated through an anticlockwise 90° . Afterward the image $A_1B_1C_1D_1$ is then traced on the new position on the graph sheet.

OR

Using the rule for anticlockwise rotation of 90° $(x, y) \rightarrow (-y, x)$

OR

- Place the nod part of the protractor on the vertex of the angle.
- Extend a line from the origin to A.
- Measure the angle where the other side crosses the number line.
- Take the length of OA to OA and make a mark.

Repeat the process to each of the following vertex B, C and D. Draw the figure with the points marked.

3.2.2 Yes

5 marks



APPENDIX C

MATHEMATICS TEST

Learner Code: 96K

Time: 60 minutes

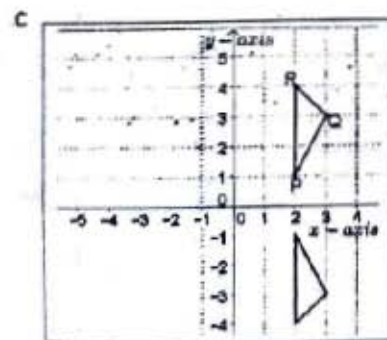
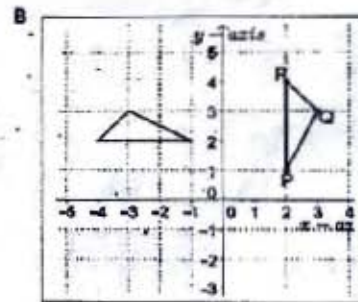
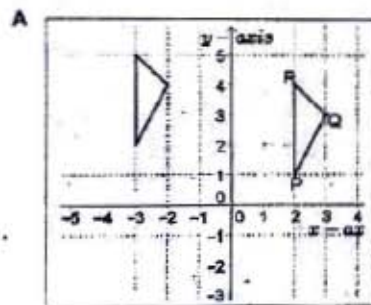
Please note that this assessment is non-evaluative and will not contribute to your end-of-term results. Its purpose is only for diagnostic: to pinpoint any challenges you may have with the concept of rotation. Your responses will enable your teacher to understand which aspects of rotation require further clarification and to develop targeted instructional strategies. Thank you for your thoughtful participation

Instructions

1. Answer all questions by ensuring that the steps you take in arriving at a particular are of importance rather than the correct answer.
2. You are allowed to make any marks on the question paper and show all steps you took in arriving at the answer.

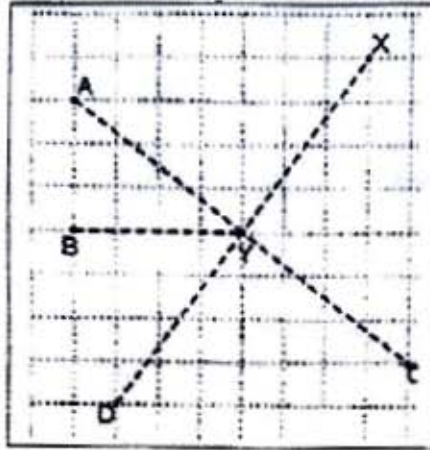
Question 1 (level 1)

1.1 Consider each of the diagrams below that represents a transformation of triangle PQR. Which among the transformation represent a rotation?



Answer: A, B

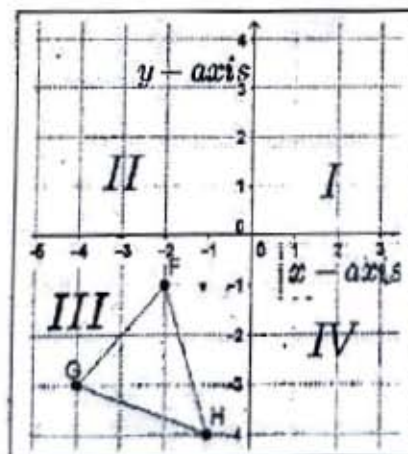
1.2 In the figure below, X has been rotated about the point y as a centre. Which of the following images A, B, C and D is a true representation of X after a rotation of -90° ?



Answer.....

B A ✓

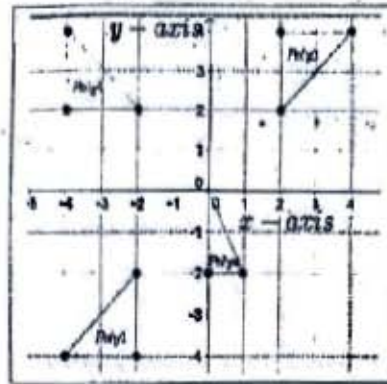
1.3 Identify in which quadrant I, II, III and IV will the image of $\triangle FGH$ be located if rotated through 90° about the origin.



Answer.....

IV ✓

1.4 Consider the diagram below.



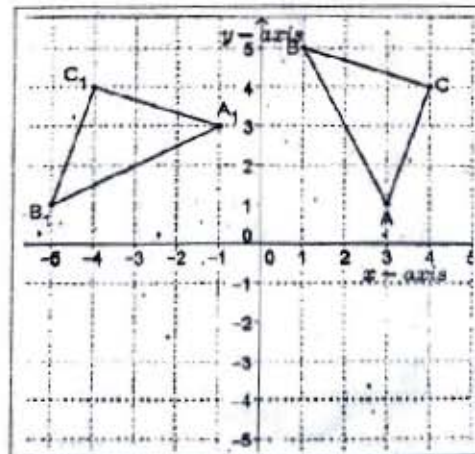
1.4.1 Identify the polygons that are congruent to polygon 1 Polygon 2

and polygon 3

1.4.2 Name the type of rotation from polygon 1 to polygon 2 anticlockwise
of 90°

Question 2 (Level 2)

2.1.1 A figure (ABC) and its image ($A_1B_1C_1$) after rotation is given below, locate or draw the following



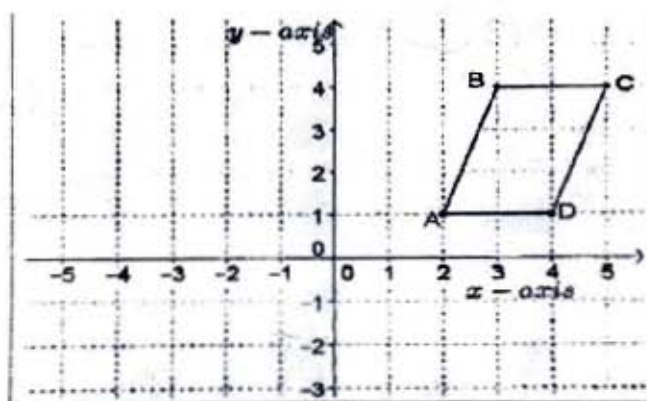
i) Centre of rotation Anticlockwise

ii) Angle of rotation Triangle ~~2~~
 2.1.2. What type of rotation is represented above? anticlockwise rotation.

2.1.3. What can you say about the image $A_1B_1C_1$ as compared with the preimage ABC?
The image of $A_1B_1C_1$ has been rotated in 270°
anticlockwise rotation. ~~2~~

Question 3 (Level 3)

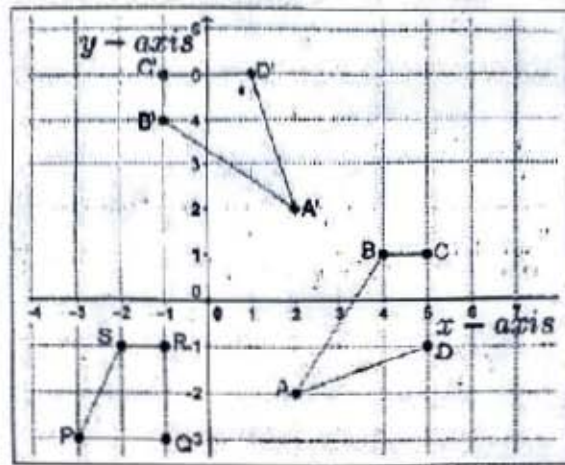
On the grid below, x and y axes have been labelled



3.1.1 Rotate ABCD through 90° (anticlockwise), about (0,0) and label the image PQRS where $A \rightarrow P$, $B \rightarrow Q$, $C \rightarrow R$ and $D \rightarrow S$.

3.1.2 Through how many angles in degrees anticlockwise can you rotate the same figure so that it can fit exactly on to the original figure?

Consider the diagram below.



3.2.1 Describe fully the transformation that maps quadrilateral ABCD onto that of A'B'C'D'?

3.2.2 Is the quadrilateral ABCD congruent to that of PQRS?

No ~~X~~

5
15

APPENDIX D

Interview Guide

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION AND LIFE-LONG LEARNING (SELLL)

DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION

Section A: Background Information

1. What is your name?
2. What is your age?
3. What is the name of your school?

Instruction: please I want you to listen carefully to some statements about challenges you encounter in the learning of rotation in transformation geometry based on your experience in the classroom. There are no right or wrong answers.

Section B: Understanding of Rotation Concepts

1. Can you explain in your own words what rotation means in geometry?
2. When you see a diagram involving a shape turning around a point, how do you decide if it is a rotation or some other transformation (like reflection or translation)?

Section C: Specific Challenges from the Test Questions

Based on Level 1 Items (Basic Recognition)

3. In the test, when you were asked to identify which transformation represented a rotation, what made that task easy or difficult for you?
4. How do you feel about identifying the correct rotated image (like options A, B, C, D)? What confuses you the most when choosing between the options?

Questions Based on Level 2 Items (Properties of Rotation)

5. When asked to find the centre of rotation, what steps do you usually take? Do you find it easy or hard? Why?
6. How do you determine the angle and direction of rotation (clockwise or anticlockwise)? What part of that process is difficult for you?

Questions Based on Level 3 Items (Application on Grids)

7. In the grid-based questions, what challenges do you face when rotating a shape around the origin?

8. How confident do you feel about performing rotations through specific angles like 90° , 180° , or 270° ?
9. What do you think makes these problems more difficult than the earlier ones?

Section D: Visual and Spatial Difficulties

10. Do you think you understand rotation better when it's explained with diagrams or with written steps? Why?
11. Do you have trouble imagining how a shape will look after it rotates? Can you give an example?

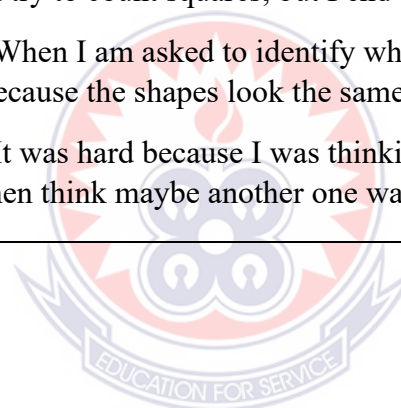


Appendix E**Code Book**

Theme	Sub-theme	Quotes
Confusion in Transformation concepts	Transformation mix-up	“I sometimes confuse what rotation is with sliding because I don’t always know how the shape turning.” (P1F)
		“If the shape is facing a new direction, I will say it is rotation. But sometimes I get confused when the same thing is done in reflection because they look the same.” (P5F)
		“I try to look at how the corners of the shape is moved, but it is not easy when the shape just looks like it is in a new place. So sometimes I think it is translation instead.” (P1F)
	Terminology misunderstanding	“I get mixed up between rotation and reflection because both can change the shape’s position.” (P5F)
Poor Visualization	Angle visualization	“I confuse rotation and reflection all the time, especially when the rotated shape looks like it could have just been flipped over a line.” (S4M)
		“It mix it up for sometimes. I look for the turning, but sometimes the figure worries me and I get it wrong.” (P8M)
		“I get confused when it turns, they say 270 degrees. I don’t know how it should look.” (P3F)
		“Sometimes I forget if clockwise is left or right. So, I rotate the shape the wrong way ...” (P3F)

Theme	Sub-theme	Quotes
Low Confidence and Anxiety	Grid plotting difficulties	“If it is a square or rectangle, I can do it but with triangles I have don’t know where the points go after turning.” (P2M)
		“Rotating each corner one by one takes a lot of time, and I don’t remember how to use the coordinates.” (P3F)
		“Using the grid should make it easier, but I always mess up when I count the boxes.” (S8M)
	Anxiety under pressure	“I try to count squares, but I end up putting the shape in the wrong place.” (P2M)
		“I sometimes panic when I see shapes that look the same. Sometimes the answers all look correct, but the one that is rotated differently confuses me.” (P1F)
		“Sometimes when it says -90° , I get lost and I choose the wrong one.” (P8M)
Reliance on Guesswork	Second-guessing decisions	“It was difficult because all the answer choices looked very similar. I had to really focus on the angles...” (P1F)
		“I was not sure of myself the whole time. I sometimes pick one answer, then think maybe another one was the correct answer.” (P6M)
		“Sometimes I see two images that both look right. I end up guessing.” (P4M)
	Random guessing	“I don’t like those questions. I feel like I understand it, but then the images are too close to each other in shape, and I don’t know how to tell them apart.” (P6M)
		“I just guess a point near the middle [for centre of rotation].” (P7F)

Theme	Sub-theme	Quotes
		“I always try to draw the rotation myself, but I get stuck halfway and end up making a wild guess.” (S7F) “I didn’t really understand the difference between rotation and reflection in that test. That’s why I picked the wrong option.” (P8M) “I try to count squares, but I end up putting the shape in the wrong spot.” (P2M)
	Procedural shortcut (avoidance)	“When I am asked to identify which transformation represented a rotation, I guessed because the shapes look the same.” (P3F) “It was hard because I was thinking plenty the whole time on the test. I pick one answer, then think maybe another one was better.” (P6M)



Appendix F

Introductory Letter to Department of Basic Education

University of Education, Winneba
P. O. Box 25, Winneba
Central Region
23 March, 2023

Head of Department
Department of Basic Education
University of Education Winneba
Winneba

Dear Madam,

APPLICATION FOR INTRODUCTORY LETTER

I am Richmond Amprah. A second year Master of Philosophy Student at the Department of Basic Education of the University of Education Winneba with student number **202146766**.

I am currently working on my thesis titled "*The Status of Transformation Geometry Learning Among Junior High School Students in Tano South Municipality*".

The purpose of this correspondence is to formally request an introductory letter to facilitate the collection of data for my research at Tano South Municipality of the Ahafo Region.

Counting on your office for consideration.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully



Richmond Amprah
(0544874960)

Appendix G

Introductory Letter from Department of Basic Education



Our ref: SELLL/DBE/ S.9/VOL.1/69

March 24, 2023

The Municipal Director,
Ghana Education Service,
Tano South Municipality.

Dear Sir/Madam,

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION

I write to introduce **Richmond Amprah** a second year M.Phil student of the Department of Basic Education, University of Education, Winneba, with registration number **202146766**

Mr. Amprah is to research the Topic: *"The Status of Transformation Geometry Learning Among Junior High School Students in Tano South Municipality"*

We would be grateful if he could be given the needed assistance to effectively carry out his studies in the school.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in blue ink, which appears to read "Sakina Acquah".

PROF. SAKINA ACQUAH

HEAD OF DEPARTMENT



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