

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

THE ROLE OF TEACHERS AND HEAD TEACHERS IN THE SUPERVISION OF  
TEACHING PRACTICE STUDENTS IN THE KUMASI METROPOLIS

The logo of the University of Education, Winneba, is a circular emblem. It features a central sunburst design with a crown on top. The sunburst is surrounded by a blue ring containing the university's name in both English and Akan. The entire emblem is set against a red background.

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**A Project Report in the Department of Educational Leadership, Faculty of  
Education and Communication Sciences, submitted to the School of Graduate  
Studies, University of Education, Winneba in partial fulfilment of requirements  
for award of the Master of Arts (Educational Leadership) degree**

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## DECLARATION

### STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, EVELYN KWARTENG, declare that this project report, with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole, for another degree 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 supervision of project report as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

SUPERVISOR'S NAME: DR. STEPHEN BAFFOUR ADJEI

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DATE: .....

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## **DEDICATION**

To my husband Paul Attakorah, and children Kwadwo Kyei Attakorah and Kofi Adjei Attakorah. Stay blessed.



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## ABSTRACT

This study was designed to determine the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students in the Kumasi Metropolis. The study utilized descriptive survey design. Quantitative research approach was used for the study. The study employed purposive sampling technique to recruit 160 head teachers and teachers at the selected basic schools. The instruments used for this research was questionnaires. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 20 was used to generate the study results. The data was analysed with the use of descriptive statistics indicating the frequencies and percentages. The results indicated that head teachers and teachers in the Kumasi Metropolis played key roles in the supervision of students. The study revealed that the head teachers and teachers regularly supervised the work done by the teacher mentees. Moreover, they properly evaluated the mentees work. Also, they conducted conferences with teacher mentees. The head teachers and teachers provided opportunities for teacher mentees to meet and share ideas about instruction. They also discussed issues concerning effective teaching and assisted the mentees to develop interpersonal skills. The head teachers and teachers were punctual at school to support and supervise mentees. They also observed that TLMs were appropriately used to enhance teaching. The study concluded that the mentors do not use the latest Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to disseminate information about the various issues mentees experience in teaching practice. The study recommended that the Ghana Education Service through the District Education Directorate should organise periodic seminars, conferences, lectures, in-service training programmes to improve mentors' expertise regarding the use of Information Communication Technology in mentoring mentees.

## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **1.1. Background of the Study**

The models of teacher education have evolved over the decades in Ghana. They have evolved from two years of training, to three years, to four years and back to three years training for primary school teachers. According to McIntyre and Hagger (2013), whatever other kinds of learning are involved in initial teacher education, few would question the necessary centrality of learning through practice. They also maintain that however clear, however thorough, however sophisticated or simple the learner-teacher's understanding of classroom teaching, it is only by putting these understandings into practice, by putting them to the test of practice, and by developing them through practice that he or she can become a competent classroom teacher.

Mtika (2011) emphasizes that student teachers need systematic preparation in that practical classroom knowledge and by definition that aspect of training can only be provided by teachers working in their own classrooms and schools. For that reason, the trainees must be exposed to school and classroom environment and real classroom teaching while they are being trained. In order to attain this purpose, both school and training institution must have distinct but interrelated and coordinated responsibilities if the curriculum of training is to be covered and if that training is to be coherent for the student (Mtika, 2011).

Mentors or supervisors all play a fundamental role in professional development of student teachers. Each of these individuals also plays a formative role in the ethical development of students and trainees in the manner in which professional values and

ethical standards are conveyed, both consciously and unconsciously. This occurs in the way mentors or supervisors interact with student teachers as well as with the individual student him or herself. The quality of the human capital of any nation depends on the superiority of the kind of education it offers, and that is also determined by the quality of teachers who teach (Republic of Ghana, 2002).

It is also widely acknowledged that the role of teachers and head teachers in the development of teacher mentees in the quality of education is vital. Student teachers competence, confidence, dedication, and general predisposition towards teaching profession are often informed by the kind of education or training they receive (Morris, 2014). Oliva and Pawlas (2014) point out that, teacher trainees' supervision is key in producing the right caliber of teachers to provide professional teaching services. In Ghana, the major institutions that collaborate to provide teacher education are: Ghana Education Service (GES), University of Education, Winneba (UEW), and the University of Cape Coast (UCC). UCC and UEW on the other hand were set up to provide teacher education to supplement the efforts of the Ghana Education Service. The College of Education Studies (CES) is charged with the sole responsibility of training teachers and works mainly through the Teaching Practice Unit (TPU) to facilitate the process of teacher training by coordinating teaching practice among pre-service teachers. Teaching practice (TP) sessions are essentially practical and student centered exercises that provide pre-service teachers with the skills, knowledge and competencies required to enable students to become professional teachers. This exercise is a requirement for all students enrolled on any education programme for successful completion of their course of study.

According to Brown and Brown (2010) the teaching practice period is one of the most important components of every teacher-training programme.

The first recorded organized teaching practice as part of a teacher training programme is dated as far back as 1439 when William Byngham established Godshouse College in England (Morris, cited in Cohen & Manion, 2013). Ever since, teaching practice has become a popular instrument for the professional preparation of neophyte teachers in training. Teaching practice in the University of Education, Kumasi Campus is not only an important exercise but also a crucial component of its teacher education programme. It is concerned with equipping pre-service teachers with relevant skills, knowledge and competencies needed for successful assimilation into the teaching profession. In the University of Education, Kumasi Campus, teaching practice sessions are carried out in two main phases; Micro teaching (On-Campus Teaching Practice - ONCTP) and field experiences (Off-Campus Teaching Practice - OFCTP).

On-Campus Teaching Practice (ONCTP) sessions are carried out in the presence of a supervisor (usually a professional teacher) who scores the teaching performance of the pre-service teachers. After each teaching session for the ONCTP, peers are invited to critique or praise the performance of their colleagues in a feedback discussion which should serve as an objective and systematic appraisal of the students' performance together with the observations and score of the supervisor. There is however, the need for a real teaching situation or a situation in which, as far as possible, aspects of the reality of actual teaching is present during practice in order to increase the possibility of transferring the acquired teaching activities. The Off-Campus Teaching Practice (OFCTP) is therefore used to provide such real teaching experiences.

The OFTCP sessions are supervised teaching practices sessions that involve the pre-service teacher in teaching activities that require the demonstration of skills and knowledge acquired from ONCTP (micro teaching) sessions and adapting such to real classroom situations under the supervision of a trained professional. After every teaching session for the OFCTP, students are required to turn in a portfolio summarizing their lesson and reflecting their teaching upon which they are subsequently assessed.

Teaching practice in totality represents an opportunity for every student to safely practice teaching and serves as useful feedback for preparing students adequately for the teaching profession. However, although teaching practice in UCC has been organized to make the teacher education programmes more rational or logical in structure, ONCTP has often been criticized by many students as fake, artificial and unrepresentative of how teachers actually experience their work (Ismail, 2011). Actual teaching often presents a number of challenges for both professional and practicing teachers because it is inevitable to observe some problematic cases in any teaching endeavour (Saricoban, 2010).

The OFCTP for pre-service teachers may thus reveal some problems of practice perhaps usually concerned with foundational issues, curriculum, and practical knowledge. In other words, during OFCTP, pre-service teachers are highly under the teacher mentor and head teacher mentors supervisory roles. The teachers and head teachers supervisory roles can help the teacher mentees to improve on their area of weakness for effective teaching to be realized. This study therefore aims to study the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students.

## 1.2 Statement of the Problem

Supervision of teacher mentees is central to the improvement of quality education in school as well as ensuring that teacher mentees are professionally developed. Supervision helps teacher mentees to keep abreast with the evolving technological changes, teaching methodology, classroom management among other changes inherent in education sector. Ensuring that teacher mentees are supervised effectively is the role of the school – based teachers and their head teachers. Pre-service teachers seemingly struggle with shifting into the new field experiences of Off – Campus teaching practice in which handling the full blown pressures and experience of actual teaching is evident. For many pre-service teachers, field experiences often represent a wide disparity between what was expected and what the real situation turns out to be (Ebrahimi, 2014). Cohen and Manion (2003) support this assertion in their suggestion that the theory and training in college prior to first practice cannot possibly provide answers for all the problems and contingencies a future teacher is likely to encounter in the school and the classroom.

Although trainee teachers often regard student teaching as the most valuable part of their preparation they seem to be unable to count on regular opportunities to observe, analyze, and practice reform-minded teaching. At the same time, cooperating teachers and head teachers often known as mentors may often see the need to protect student teachers from “impractical” ideas promoted by education professors who may be out of touch with classroom realities (Bubb, 2010). This presupposes that in many instances there may be a disproportion between theory and actual practice of teaching. The realness of such teaching experiences can however be grounds for a candidate to either affirm or re-evaluate their decision to pursue teaching as a career (Darling-Hammond, 2005). This



implies that, the authenticity of the Off – Campus teaching practice depend on both teacher and head teachers supervisory roles.

Student teachers ability to deliver effectively depends on their professional advancement. Yet sometimes, the school – based teachers and head teachers whose role is to supervise and help student teachers to improve in the areas of student teachers weaknesses are found not taking their supervisory duties serious because they lack the ability to nurture and provide the necessary strategies for professional development of the students teachers knowledge and skill in teaching career.

The research gap of this study is that, there is a lack of empirical evidence concerning the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students in the Kumasi Metropolis. Therefore, this study examined the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students in the Kumasi Metropolis to provide empirical evidence of this gap.

### **1.3. Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to determine the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students in the Kumasi Metropolis.

### **1.4. Objectives of the Study**

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To determine supervisory roles teachers and head teachers exhibit during the students teachers teaching practice
2. To assess the supervisory skills needed by the teachers and head teachers in supervision of students teachers during the students teachers teaching practice

3. To evaluate the extent to which teachers and head teachers supervision contribute to the professional development students' teachers during teaching practice

### **1.5. Research Questions**

The study will address the following questions:

1. What supervisory roles do teachers and head teachers exhibit during students teachers teaching practice?
2. What are the supervisory skills needed by the teachers and head teachers in the supervision of student teachers during teaching practice?
3. How do supervisory activities of teachers and head teacher's supervision contribute to the professional development students' teachers during teaching practice?

### **1.6. Significance of the Study**

This study was conducted to determine the roles of teachers and head teachers on the supervision of student teachers in Kumasi Metropolis in particular:

- The information obtained from the study would assist the Colleges of Education to design appropriate induction courses for teachers and head teachers to equip them with relevant skills needed to supervise the student's teachers.
- This study would help curriculum developers to design effective curriculum on teachers' professional development that will be used in Colleges of Education to build and enhance the capacity of teachers and head teachers.
- The study would help teachers and head teachers as internal supervisors to take supervision activities serious by organizing regular classroom visits and seminars

to ensure that student's teachers keep abreast with the evolving changes in technology and school curriculum.

### **1.7. Scope of the Study**

The study only focused on the supervisory roles play by teachers and head teachers during the teaching practice of student teachers. The study would be carried out in some selected junior high schools in Kumasi Metropolis of which UEW – K embark on their teaching practice. The study dealt with teachers and head teachers supervisory roles, supervisory skills needed by the teachers and head teachers in supervision and the extent to which supervisory activities of teachers and head teachers supervision contribute to the professional development students' teachers during teaching practice.

### **1.8. Organization of the study**

The study was organized into five chapters. Chapter one dealt with the background to the study, statement of problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, research question, and delimitation of the study, definition of terms and organization of the study. Chapter two covered review of available literature relevant to the study, while chapter three focused on the research approach, research design population, simple instrument for data collection and the procedure used in data analysis. Chapter four sought to analyses the result of the study and chapter five dealt with the summary of the research findings, conclusion and recommendation of the study.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### 2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher reviewed literature relevant to the study. That is the researcher looked at the relevant literature under the following headings:

#### 2.2. The Theoretical Framework

This study is underpinned by Padua's model for mentor teachers. According to Padua (2013), mentor teachers are usually experienced, have a deep understanding of a specific content area, and know how to build capacity in others. He points out that primary goal of a mentor teacher are as follows:

- to assist classroom teachers in refining existing instructional strategies;
- to introduce new strategies and concepts;
- to engage teachers in conversations about their teaching; and
- to provide overall support.

However, every teacher will have different needs. Mentor teachers must rely on their professional judgment to determine which goals are most suitable for each teacher. Padua (2013) adapted Routman's "Model for Effective Teaching and Learning" to use as a model for mentor teachers. Padua (2013) commends that before using any of the techniques described above, the classroom and mentor teachers should discuss the lesson's goal and focus, the instructional strategies that will be used, and why they were selected. After the lesson, the teachers should also discuss it and plan the next steps.

**Demonstration Lessons:** Mentors teachers should model the practice of teaching to the student teachers (Barab and Hay 2001). The skills of teaching will be learnt more effectively through modelling (Carlson and Gooden, 2009). Pre-service teachers view the mentor as a model to develop a greater understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses. Modeling effective instructional strategies is one way a mentor teacher can help. In addition to seeing how concepts are applied and how students respond, the student teacher can learn appropriate instructional language, classroom management techniques, and how to pace a lesson.

**Team Teaching:** Padua (2013) argues that team teaching technique works especially well with student teachers who are not completely confident but willing to try new concepts/strategies. The student teacher leads the lesson, but the mentor teacher is alongside ready to give advice and assistance. In this context, risk taking is less intimidating.

**Independent Practice/Observation:** As student teachers gain the confidence and knowledge to implement instructional strategies independently, they may welcome observation and feedback. Padua (2013) proposes that mentor teachers should make prior arrangements for observations to ensure that student teachers are not made uncomfortable by them. By discussing the goals of both the lesson and the observation in advance with student teachers, mentor teachers can respond sensitively to their concerns and needs. The mentor teacher may take notes during the lesson but should not let that activity interfere with the observation. After the lesson, a good starting question to ask the teacher is “How did the lesson go?” The answer may provide valuable insights about the

teacher's intentions. More importantly, it suggests how best to approach the rest of the discussion.

**Feedback and Ongoing Support:** Numerous researchers (Bishop and Denley 2007; Haney, 2007) have reported that constructive feedback in pre-service teacher education is a vital ingredient in the mentoring process. Feedback allows the pre-service teachers to reflect and improve teaching practice, in what Schon (2007) calls the “reflective practicum.” Specifically, mentors need to observe practice in order to provide oral and written feedback on aspects associated with the mentor's pedagogical knowledge which also includes reviewing plans and assisting in developing the student teacher's evaluation of teaching (Long, 2005). Linked to the provision of feedback is the mentor's articulation of expectations (Klug and Salzman, 2010).

Whether mentor teachers are demonstrating, team teaching, or observing, all these techniques should be followed up with timely feedback. The purpose of the feedback is to provide suggestions on how to improve instruction, increase student learning, and encourage the classroom teacher. Like students, teachers need continual support, and feedback should celebrate their successes as well as address their challenges. By revisiting classrooms, seeing teachers in action, and providing ongoing feedback and support, mentor teachers help classroom teachers grow professionally (Long, 2005).

### **2.2.1 Teaching Practice/Practicum in Teacher Education**

Lewin and Stuart (2012), revealed that practicum is a critical part of teacher education. This aspect of the review seeks to examine the underlying philosophies of teacher education programme for producing effective teachers. The espoused aims of

teacher educators highlight professional attitude, responsibilities, behaviour and interpersonal skills in the trainees. Lewin and Stuart (2012) asserted that there are no specific areas in the curriculum as documented or delivered where these attributes of the profession were developed. This, to them, highlights a major weakness of teacher education in the sub-Saharan Africa. According to Akyeampong (2012) and Kennedy, (2013), the curriculum documents often list a range of student-centred, interactive and practical methods, demonstration, group work, role-play, field trips, and project work but observations in Ghana, Malawi, Lesotho and South African cities revealed a predominantly teacher-centred transmission mode. To them, teaching subject content resembled post basic school methods of teaching. This is where tutors or masters presented information orally, using the board or textbook interspersed with tutors asking questions and students providing answers. Attempts were, however, made occasionally to develop a class discussion.

Akyeampong indicated that trainees occasionally showed pupil-centred skill (through demonstration lessons) but very seldom did they actually experience the kind of student-centred methods that tutors preached. To him teacher education pedagogy was prescriptive and teacher-centred reflecting similar practices at the basic school level. This view implied a defect in the professional preparation of teacher trainees. Ironically, interviews with those tutors in the Ghana revealed that, tutors were aiming at producing teachers who knew their subject content and could teach it effectively. These views meant in practice an emphasis on subject-content and pedagogical knowledge; someone who could relate well to children and could adjust to the challenges of a teacher's life which at the college training level in Ghana, meant trainees undergoing strict discipline

and engage in daily chores such as weeding and sweeping college compounds (Akyeampong & Stephens, 2010).

Lewin and Stuart (2012), are of the opinion that teacher produced by training was expected in Ghana to be a technical practitioner; in Lesotho well-grounded academically; in Malawi as an efficient instructor and in South Africa – a critical educator. These show differences in views or emphasis on practicum in TED in different African countries. In most countries in Africa, there seemed to be an assumption that once student teachers had acquired prerequisite knowledge about teaching, some basic practical skills, and had improved their academic subject knowledge base, they were effectively ready for classroom practice.

Labaree (2010) suggested that learning to teach was presented and experienced as an exact science. The dilemmas teachers face in teaching is not adequately represented in the curriculum, but rather emphasis was placed on classroom ritual that leads to a notion of teaching as being relatively easy and unproblematic. According to Akyeampong (2012), in Ghana, trainees on teaching practice soon found out that many school and classroom realities made implementing teaching strategies learnt at college simply impracticable. Olaitan and Agusiobo (2011), revealed the need for adequate preparation of trainees for the success in maintaining a changed behaviour pattern in learners is paramount. Teaching practice to them is the first opportunity for the student-trainee to participate in real classroom situation. Teaching practice, to them, is also recognised as the experience of guided teaching in which trainees assume increasing responsibility for directing the learning or a group of pupils over a specific time. They further concluded that "teaching practice is designed to provide opportunities for guidance in a school



setting for trainees to develop professional competence, personal characteristics, understanding, knowledge and skills of a teacher" (Olaitan and Agusiobo, 2011).

Moreover, according to Tamakloe (2007), the period of teaching practice was when trainees display all the skills, knowledge, techniques and values acquired academically and professionally at college in the Teaching and Learning process. To him, if trainees are not well versed in initial studies, they are likely to mess up, exposing themselves to ridicule before the learners. Teaching practice therefore demands a resume of the academic and professional exposure of trainees. High and rigorous preparation is therefore needed for desired outcomes to be realised. The basic notion for lifelong education is that education and training of teachers should be two programmes namely pre-service and in-service. The former forms a continuum of accelerated training stage. Which should be followed later by in-service, that ensures continuity and reinforcement of education and training throughout a teacher's career. As Labaree (2010) reiterated, the training process should establish the role-derived competencies and the prospective teachers allowed, through systematic education and guidance, to acquire the knowledge and skills needed to perform as professional teachers. The dynamic nature of teacher education brings out the need for in-service training which according to Smith and Meux (2010) include:

- a) to advance the teachers' skills and pedagogical skills required for new teaching roles;
- b) to advance and update the teachers' knowledge of subject matter;
- c) to remedy the teachers' deficiencies arising out of defects in initial teacher training preparation and
- d) to train the teacher for extra-curricular work.

Smith and Meux (2010) are of the view that teacher education programmes should emphasise sound knowledge of subject matter and create avenues for developing practical knowledge about teaching. The contextual framework should adequately set up learning situations where trainees can develop personalised understanding of teaching. Avenues should be created for analysing teaching contexts and experiments with new practices developed in direct response to real teaching needs. There is therefore the need for such programs to reflect on and make explicit the commonly accepted socio-cultural values and norms about the profession in their right teaching perspective.

### **2.2.3 Models of Mentorship and Supervision**

Writers differentiate between several models of supervision upon which educational leaders and teachers can draw. In order to be effective, supervision policy cannot rely exclusively on one model, but should combine their best characteristics, as each process has distinct qualities that can contribute to teachers' growth and development as they seek to improve instruction. Cogan, Anderson, and Krajewski (as cited in Blase & Blase, 2008) classified supervision approaches that appeared in the professional literature between 1850 and 1990 as follows:

1. Scientific management;
2. Democratic interaction approach;
3. Cooperative supervision;
4. Supervision as curriculum development;
5. Clinical supervision;
6. Group dynamics and peer emphasis;

7. Coaching and instructional supervision. (p. 7)

Duffy (2007), however, stated that there are only two leading models of teacher supervision. One, which dominates the literature and is seen occasionally in practice, is clinical supervision (Goldhammer et al., 2013), where supervisors observe classroom teaching, make notes, analyze, and share the results with the teacher, assuming that the feedback will help the teacher improve his or her performance. The other model, found overwhelmingly in practice and disdained in the supervision literature, is performance evaluation (Duffy, 2007), otherwise called administrative monitoring (Glatthorn, 2010), and is an occasional surprise observation of classroom teaching.

Recent researches mentioned two broad models of instructional supervision that have been very effective over the last years: differentiated and developmental types of supervision. Differentiated supervision (Glatthorn, 2014) is an approach to supervision that provides teachers with options about the kinds of supervisory services they are offered. It assumes that, regardless of experiences and competence, all teachers will be involved in the three related processes for improving instruction: teacher evaluation, staff development, and informal observations. “The differentiated system builds upon...intensive development (or clinical supervision), cooperative development, and self-directed development” (Glatthorn, 2014, p. 179).

Developmental supervision (Glickman et al., 2008) assumes that teachers are professionals at different levels of development and require particular approach to supervision. This model utilizes three approaches to supervision: directive, collaborative, and non-directive. The developmental model places emphasis on professional development of all the participants of instructional process (Tanner & Tanner, 2007).

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2008) developed a schema for organizing supervisory practice for teachers. They advocated that all supervision plans be organized around a minimum of five options with teachers playing key roles in deciding which options best address their needs at a given time. The organizing theme for their options is professional authority. This model uses five options: clinical, collegial, self-directed, informal, and inquiry-based supervision.

One of the most recent models of supervision advocated by many scholars is reflective supervision (Renihan, 2012). Among the approaches utilized by this model are collaborative supervision, self-reflection, and inquiry-based supervision (otherwise called action research (Tracy, 2008). To carry out reflective practices and related aspects of professional growth, teachers require appropriate opportunities, supports, and resources (STF, 2012).

The educational practice of instructional supervision appears to be a contentious issue in contemporary educational circles, and it has been characterized by shifting attitudes among researchers and educators alike. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2008) stated that contemporary schools need to provide teachers with options in supervisory approaches. The set of approaches may differ for beginning and experienced teachers. In response to the concerns about the state of supervisory practices for beginning teachers, alternative models of supervision have arisen and taken hold over the past two decades. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2008) noted that these models of supervision refer to face-to-face contact with teachers with the intent of improving instruction and increasing professional growth. The shift here is toward viewing supervision as a process “designed to help teachers and supervisors learn more about their practice, to be better able to use

their knowledge and skills to observe parents and schools, and to make the school a more effective learning community” ( p. 50).

Rikard (as cited in Shively & Poetter, 2002) stated that new models that envision the possibility that teachers themselves can provide the kind of supervisory leadership necessary for strengthening teaching and programs for beginning teachers are taking hold and proving to be effective. Administrators and teachers in the schools with programs that support teacher education programs can be well-equipped to supervise beginning teachers. As Sullivan and Glanz (2010) stated, the major finding that emerged from their research was that certain leadership and implementation practices promoted the successful implementation of alternative approaches to supervision, such as mentoring, peer coaching, peer assessment, portfolios, and action research. The proper use of various approaches to supervision can enhance teacher’s professional development and improve instructional efficiency.

The following review differentiates between both traditional and alternative approaches to supervision that can be considered most effective for staff development and teacher effectiveness. These include clinical supervision, developmental approach, collaborative development, self-directed or reflective development, portfolios, and professional growth plans. Administrative monitoring is included in the review, but cannot be considered as an option for teachers. Implementing of different models of supervisory practices is intended not only to give choices to the teachers; it is also designed to provide choices to the administrators and schools (Glatthorn, 2014).

#### 2.2.4 Clinical Supervision Model of Mentorship

Clinical supervision model of mentorship is a systematic, sequential, and cyclic supervisory process that involves the interaction between the supervisors and teachers. Goldhammer et al. (2013) stated that clinical supervision means that there is a face-to-face relationship of supervisors with teachers, though in the past it has been conducted at a distance, with little or no direct teacher contact. Methods of clinical supervision can include group supervision between several supervisors and a teacher, or a supervisor and several teachers (Pajak, 2012). One of the first advocates of clinical supervision, Cogan (2013) defined clinical supervision as:

*The rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve the students' learning by improving the teachers' classroom behaviour. (p. 9)*

Clinical supervision, or intensive development (Glatthorn, 2010), has also been defined as “that phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face (or other associated) interaction between the supervisor and teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviors and activities for instructional improvement” (Goldhammer *et al.*, 2010, pp. 19-20). This form of supervision has been traditionally viewed as an intensive skill-focused process that incorporates a five-step cycle. Researchers (e.g., Goldhammer *et al.*, 2013; Tanner & Tanner, 2007) provided a structure of clinical supervision that includes pre-observation conference, classroom observation, analysis and strategy, supervision conference, and

post conference analysis. Clinical supervision can be used with inexperienced beginning teachers, teachers who are experiencing difficulties, and experienced teachers looking to improve their performance.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2008) described clinical supervision as typically more formative than summative in its evaluative approach to the practices of beginning teachers. The goal of clinical supervision is not aligned with traditional evaluative measurement procedures intended to make summative statements about the worth of a person's teaching for purposes of quality control. On the contrary, clinical supervision focuses on a teacher's professional growth in terms of improving classroom instruction and relies on more teacher-directed actions as opposed to bureaucratic, hierarchical actions of control by supervisors. Clinical supervision, as a result, becomes less formal and less attached to the teacher's achievement of some preconceived criteria or outside standards.

It becomes a process that includes the ideas and voice of the teacher as he or she strives to meet his or her own educational goals in teaching and centers on self- and collegial evaluation, including input from students. Finally, the point of supervision from a clinical standpoint is not quality control for the protection of students and the public from incompetent teaching, rather the point of clinical supervision is the professional improvement of the teacher that "guarantees quality teaching and schooling for students and the public" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2008, p. 230). Supervision should be a relationship that develops between a supervisor and a teacher that is built on mutual trust, through the setting of mutual goals and objectives; through professionalism, harmonious interaction; and through a certain human autonomy which enhances freedom for both the

teacher and supervisor to express ideas and opinions about how the method of supervision should be implemented to best improve teaching (Goldhammer *et al.*, 2013).

For clinical supervision to be effective, there are some commonalities that are evident. These themes include (a) the development of a collegial relationship between teachers and supervisors based on trust, respect, and reciprocity; (b) teachers control over the products of supervision; (c) teachers retain control over decisions that impact their teaching practices; (d) there is continuity in the supervisory process over time; (e) supervisors provide teachers with non-judgmental observational data; and (f) both teachers and supervisors engage in reflective practice (Nolan, Hawkes, & Francis, 2013). Supervisors who employ clinical supervision should consider the perceptions of teachers.

According to Beach and Reinhartz (2010), teachers tend to favour individualized, close and supportive supervision, which addresses their individual needs. Teachers also agree on the basic assumptions and effectiveness of clinical supervision, accepting recommendations for change, which they believe is possible in their classroom behaviour. Thus, clinical supervision is not the means of improving supervisors' skills. For Tanner and Tanner (2007), the focus of clinical supervision "on actual classroom practices ensures that the process is of practical significance to the teacher" (p.183). This intensive development is a way of promoting teacher growth in self-direction and self-confidence by encouraging teachers to make instructional decisions.

### **2.2.5 Developmental Supervision Model of Mentorship**

Another process of supervisory practice is referred to as developmental supervision (Glickman *et al.*, 2008). "Developmental supervision encompasses a number



of tasks and skills that promote instructional dialogue and learning and teacher professional growth and development” (Reiman & Thies-Sprinthall, 2008, p. 12). This model views teachers as individuals who are at various levels of professional growth and development. The supervisors are seen appropriately employing different leadership styles with different teachers and according to different circumstances. Within this framework, supervisors (as they interact with teachers) seek to foster thinking skills, which help in the analysis of classroom instruction and make teachers more aware of the many options for change (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). For Glickman *et al.*, (2008), “instructional improvement takes place when teachers improve their decision making about students, learning content, and teaching” (p. 51), which is largely a process of adult learning through supervision.

Developmental supervision is built on the premises that human development is the purpose of education. This model presupposes that as supervisors work with the teachers, they need to match their assistance to teachers’ conceptual levels, and they also need to allow teachers to take charge of their own improvement. In addition, supervisors must be knowledgeable about and responsive to the development stages and life transitions of teachers. As Tanner and Tanner (2007) noted, in this approach supervisors would employ three leadership orientations with teachers, namely directive, collaborative, and nondirective. Glickman *et al.* (2008), however, in describing the developmental process, identified four styles supervisor may employ: directive control, directive informational, collaborative, and non-directive.

The *directive control style* includes the following kinds of supervisory behaviours: directing, standardizing, and reinforcing consequences. The result of this

orientation is the mutually agreed-upon plan of action between the supervisor and the teacher. The directive supervisor judges the most effective way to improve instruction by making tasks clear, reassessing the problems and possible solutions, and showing teachers what is to be done. It implies that the supervisor is more knowledgeable in the matter and his or her decisions are more effective for improving the instruction. In the *directive informational style*, the supervisor standardizes and restricts choices during the meetings, with the result of a supervisor-suggested plan of action. This orientation is used to direct teachers to consider and choose from clearly delineated alternative actions. Such an approach is useful when the expertise, confidence, and credibility of the supervisor clearly outweigh the teachers' own information, experience, and capabilities (Glickman *et al.*, 2008).

The *collaborative style* is premised on participation by equals in instructional decision making process. This orientation includes the following behaviours: listening, presenting, problem solving, and negotiating, which lead to a development of a contract between the teacher and the supervisor. Collaboration is appropriate when teachers and supervisors have and are aware of similar levels of expertise, involvement, and concern with a problem. Equality is the major issue in this orientation. The result is a contract, mutually agreed upon and carried out as a joint responsibility. In a *non-directive style*, supervisors view teachers as capable of analyzing and solving their own instructional problems.

Non-directive behaviours include listening, reflecting, clarifying, encouraging, and problem solving. The purpose of this type of supervision is to provide an active sounding board for thoughtful professionals (Glickman *et al.*, 2008). The outcome is

generated by the teacher, who determines the plan of action. In general, developmental supervision provides the supervisor with the way to connect the teacher's levels of professional development with the appropriate supervisory style. As Tanner and Tanner (2007) indicated, "if teachers are to grow in their professional commitment for solving problems, a growth of developmental model of supervision is required" (p. 187).

### **2.2.6 Collaborative Supervision Model of Mentoring**

Collegiality and collaboration are very important in modern schools. Fullan and Hargreaves (2016) observed that teachers in schools with collaborative cultures have greater confidence and commitment to improvement and professional growth. "Interns, beginning teachers, and individuals who are new to a school or teaching assignment may require a considerable amount of support from their more experienced colleagues" (STF, 2012, p. 11). These colleagues have a professional and ethical responsibility to lend appropriate types of support upon request. Partnerships, collegial and collaborative relationships, coaching and mentoring are names that are also given to the supervision process in which learning, growing, and changing are the mutual focus for supervisors and teachers (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). Such approaches are developed for teachers and supervisors "to be better equipped to change the culture of teaching from a hierarchical, isolating atmosphere to collaborative culture that promotes learning and growth for everyone involved" (Arredondo *et al.*, 2015, p. 74).

Collaborative approaches are based on a process of "critical friend" (Costa & Kallick, 2013). A critical friend provides an assessment feedback to an individual - a student, a teacher, or an administrator - or to a group. A critical friend is a trusted person who asks provocative questions, provides data to be examined through another lens, and

offers critique of a person's work as a friend. "A critical friend takes the time to fully understand the context of the work presented and the outcomes that the person or group is working toward" (p. 50) and is an advocate for the success of that work. Reflective practices lie at the core of all collaborative approaches to supervision.

### **2.2.7 Peer coaching**

One of the approaches of collaborative supervision is peer coaching (Showers & Joyce, 2016). Glatthorn (2010), observed that peer coaching seemed to be the most intensive process among all cooperative development models. The coaching approach uses cohorts and is often coupled with clinical supervision. As teams work together, their emphasis is on asking questions, which serve to clarify their own perceptions about instruction and learning. Peer coaching provides opportunities to refine teaching skills through immediate feedback and through experimentation with alternate strategies as a result of the informal evaluation (Bowman & McCormick, 2010). During peer coaching, beginning teachers collaborate to develop a shared language, forums to test new ideas about teaching, and, ultimately, expertise (Glickman *et al.*, 2008).

Hosack-Curlin (2013), observed that coaching "which is built upon a collaborative relationship between observer and teacher, significantly increases classroom utilization of newly acquired skills..." (p. 231). Peer coaching can utilize teams of teachers who provide daily support and encouragement to each other. The supervisor is seen as a facilitator working with cohorts of teachers. Coaching emphasizes professional action by peers, and is usually used along with clinical supervision. Teachers participate in small group sessions, where they ask questions to clarify their perceptions of teaching and supervision. The value of analysis and feedback, which enhance the

supervision process (Starling & Baker, 2010) cannot be underestimated. Beach and Reinhartz (2010) stated, “through analysis and feedback, supervisors (along with cohort members) find out the reasons for teacher’s decision and coach the teacher on the job by translating research on effective planning and teaching into classroom practice” (p. 141).

Peer coaching is really important for beginning teachers. Hosack-Curlin (2013) stated that findings in this area showed that the beginning teachers rated experienced teachers who coached them as highly competent and the process itself as very necessary. Teachers have to be ready to take the challenge of peer coaching, choose the partners for the teams, and commit to learning and growing professionally. Ebmeier and Nicklaus (2009) stated that peer coaching programs reduced the time burden on principals of both regular and collaborative supervision while increasing collaboration among teachers. Peer coaching can be very effective for all participants because both parties profit from the exchange. Showers and Joyce (2016) stated that peer coaching helped nearly all participants; furthermore “teachers introduced to the new models could coach one another...” (p.14).

### **2.2.8 Cognitive coaching**

Similar to peer coaching is the cognitive coaching approach (Costa & Garmston, 2014). The difference between these two approaches, as Showers and Joyce (2016) stated, lies in that peer coaching focuses on innovations in curriculum and instruction, whereas cognitive coaching aims more at improving existing practices. Cognitive coaching may pair teacher with teacher, teacher with supervisor, or supervisor with supervisor, but when two educators in similar roles or positions, the process is called peer supervision (Beach & Reinhartz, 2000). According to Costa and Garmston (2014),

“cognitive coaching is a non-judgmental process built around a planning conference, observation, and a reflecting conference” (p. 2). For Garmston *et al.*, (2013) cognitive coaching is a process during which teachers explore the thinking behind teacher practices. Cognitive coaching can help teachers expand their repertoire of teaching styles, exploring untapped resources within themselves.

Costa and Garmston (2014) outlined three major goals of cognitive coaching, which include: (1) developing and maintaining trusting relationship; (2) promoting learning; and (3) fostering growth toward both autonomous and interdependent behaviour (also called holonomy). The cognitive coaching process is built on a foundation of trust, which is fundamental to success (Beach & Reinhartz, 2010). As teachers work with teachers or supervisors in a coaching interaction, learning is the ultimate goal. They have the opportunity to learn more about themselves, each other, and the teaching-learning process. As the result of the coaching process, teachers are encouraged to reach autonomy – the ability to self-monitor, self-analyze, and self-evaluate – which is another ultimate goal of cognitive coaching (Garmston *et al.*, 2013). At the same time, teachers have to realize their interdependence as a part of a greater whole within their school.

Cognitive coaching consists of three components: the planning, the lesson observation, and the reflection (Beach & Reinhartz, 2010). Each of the components needs sufficient time to be successful. Making time means providing another way to support professional growth and change in teachers through reflective discussions and analyses of the instructional behaviour in class (Blase & Blase, 2008).

Over the past decade, reports and related research have come out advocating the enhanced use of mentoring to assist novice teachers within their first years of teaching. Smith (2012) stated that traditionally, many beginning teachers entered the classroom with only minimal opportunity to interact with students and more importantly, learn from master teachers. But recent research projects and publications have addressed mentoring in teacher professional development. Reiman and Thies-Sprinthall (2008) in their book described the connection between mentoring, supervision and professional development. Mentoring can serve to augment the succession planning and professional development of schools. Mentors can model a culture of collaboration and collegiality in which best thinking occurs through collective judgment, which is considered to be the best way teachers learn (Hopkins-Thompson, 2000).

Mentoring, as described in the literature, involves interacting with the protégé (Beach & Reinhartz, 2010). Mentoring is a process that facilitates instructional improvement wherein an experienced educator (mentor) works with a novice or less experienced teacher (protégé) collaboratively and nonjudgmentally to study and deliberate on ways instruction in the classroom may be improved (Sullivan & Glanz, 2010b). Mentors support the being of their protégés, providing advocacy, counseling, help, protection, feedback, and information that they would otherwise not have. Main mentoring functions described in the literature are: teaching, sponsoring, encouraging, counseling, and befriending. Beach and Reinhartz (2010) stated that the main roles of mentors are to support, assist, and guide, but not evaluate protégés. Mentors should be respected teachers and administrators highly skilled in communicating, listening, analyzing, providing feedback, and negotiating. They have to be trustworthy and

committed to the process. They need to believe in personal and professional development and be adept at adjusting their expectations of the protégés (Hopkins Thompson, 2010). Supportive and trusted relationships are “paramount to successfully assist novice teachers in adjusting to teaching requirements” (Smith, 2012, p. 47).

### **2.2.9 Administrative Monitoring**

Administrative monitoring (Glatthorn, 2014) is a process by which the supervisor monitors the staff through brief unannounced visits, simply to ensure that the teachers’ responsibilities are carried out properly. While the majority of books on supervision emphasized the inefficiency of this approach, Glatthorn (2014) argued “there is persuasive evidence that such monitoring is a key aspect of principal’s role in instructional leadership” (p. 5). This approach to supervision is viewed by scholars as the remnant of inspectorial supervisory practices. This method is widely used by school administrators in teacher evaluation, and is considered necessary for beginning teachers to measure their success and growth. Administrative monitoring gives the principal information about what is happening in the school, and enables him or her to be aware of any problems. Teachers see the principal as actively involved and concerned. The administrative method is successful when there exists a mutual trust between the teachers and administrator, and when performed by a sensitive and trusted leader.

### **2.3. The Concept of Teaching Practice**

Teaching practice has been an integral component of teacher training since time immemorial. It gives student teachers experience in the actual teaching and learning environment (Blake & Landsdell, 2010; Frick, Carl & Beets, 2010). It serves as an introduction to the realities of the situation in the teaching profession. The experience



also allows the student teacher an opportunity to determine whether he or she has made an appropriate choice. During the practicum, student teachers get the opportunity to try the art of teaching before actually getting into the real world of the teaching profession (Frick, Carl & Beets, 2010). Thus it can be concluded that teaching practice provides for the real interface between student hood and membership of the teaching profession. As such, teaching practice creates a mixture of anticipation, anxiety, excitement and apprehension in the student teachers as they commence their teaching practice (Howe, 2012; Frick, Carl & Beets, 2010).

Teaching practice is the practical component of all teachers training and development programmes the world over. It is, however, known by different but related terms. Some of such terms include: the practice teaching, student teaching, teaching practice, field studies, infield experience, and school based experience, practicum or internship (Kaplan, 2008). Thus teaching practice covers all the learning experiences of student teachers in their host schools. The term has three major connotations: the practicing of teaching skills and acquisition of the role of a teacher; the whole range of experiences that students go through in schools; and the practical aspects of the course as distinct from theoretical studies (Kaplan, 2008). Thus, as observed by Tomlinson (2005), teaching practice represents the whole range of experiences to which student teachers are exposed when they work in classrooms and schools.

Tomlinson, (2005) argues that teaching practice is a challenging but important part of teacher training, especially in developing countries, where the effectiveness of the teaching practice can be diminished or eroded by a range of challenges, such as geographical distance, low and uneven levels of teacher expertise, a wide-ranging lack of

resources as well as a lack of discipline among a wide cross-section of learners and educators. These challenges, if not addressed, may affect student teachers' performance during teaching practice and may in the long run affect their perception of the teaching profession (Tomlinson, 2005).

The aims of teaching practice are to provide opportunities for student teachers to integrate theory and practice and work collaboratively with and learn from experienced teachers. In the ideal situation student teachers observe subject teachers at work so as to learn about teachers' skills, strategies and classroom achievements. These student teachers also evaluate their own teaching experiences through discussions with teachers and lecturers; and through self-reflection and implementation of a variety of approaches, strategies and skills. All this is done so as to bring about meaningful learning. This results in student teachers gaining experience in managing and evaluating class work; in maintaining discipline and order in the classroom; find their own teaching style and personality and become acquainted with school organisation and administration.

Sempowicz (2012) notes that there has been a shift in the literature from the concept of traditional teaching practice (associated with an apprenticeship model) to the concept of field/school experience (associated with an experiential model). Robinson (2001) points out that however way it may be envisaged, the notion of teaching practice is entrenched in experience-based learning initiated by Vygotsky (1978, cited by Robinson (2001) social cognitive theory, and founded in the premise of situated learning. Consequently as suggested by Robinson (2001), teaching practice is meant to provide for the authentic context within which student teachers are exposed to experience the

complexities and richness of the reality of being a teacher. This brings us to the concept of mentoring, in this case school based supervision.

Teaching practice refers to the opportunity given to the trainee to develop and improve his / her professional practice in the context of the real classroom, usually under some form of guidance and supervision. Hudson (2010) says that teaching practice refers to the period of time in which a student teacher gains firsthand experience in working with a particular group of children. In Ghana, teaching practice involves the student teacher working under the direct and continuing supervision of experienced teacher. During the period of teaching practice the student teachers are able to observe the entire work of the school and to participate actively in all the important professional activities of a teacher both in and out of the classroom (Hudson, 2010). Teaching practice contributes not only to the development of professional norms of teaching but also to learning classroom techniques.

Teaching Practice aim to provide student teachers with practical experience in teaching and to enhance student teachers' abilities to further develop their knowledge and skills in the areas studied in their education courses, and to apply these in teaching pupils in school. Student teachers will be able to draw on a given scheme of work to produce lesson plans for all activities they plan and lead themselves (Tomlinson, 2005). During Teaching Practice, student teachers will be able to work with individual pupils, and will also organize and teach groups and whole classes to facilitate learning in pupils. Student teachers will be able to monitor and evaluate the work produced by the pupils, adjusting teaching and future planning in the light of this information (Kaplan, 2008).

Student teachers will be able to evaluate each lesson taught, reflecting on their own professional development and demonstrating a sound understanding of the role of the teacher. Teaching Practice experience consists of an extensive period of school-based activities such as observations, discussions, planning, teaching, assessing, evaluating and reflecting. All of these activities are undertaken in a supervised working through mentoring. The initial days of the Teaching Practice at school could be utilized by the student teacher to observe a range of teaching and learning situations, to familiarize him or herself with school routines and activities, to gather information needed for teaching tasks, and to plan and discuss lessons with practising teachers (Kaplan, 2008).

#### **2.4 The Concept of Supervision**

Supervision is an activity undertaken by someone occupying a formal role within an organization that has (more or less) explicit expectations and accountabilities to both the person being supervised, and the organization which provides the context for the supervisory relationship (Kadushin, 2012). The relationship is ultimately defined by the organization. The position is occupied by a person approved by the organization who can be removed from or replaced in that role under conditions specified by the organization. The organization is responsible for the quality control of the supervisory relationship through whatever mechanisms the organization has in place (Kadushin, 2012). Because it is an organizational position, the expectations of both the supervisor and the student should be explicit (even if only in a minimal way) and comply with the norms of the organization (e.g., student or faculty code of conduct). There are serious imbalances in the power relationship between supervisors and students. Generally, therefore, the

“rules” of the relationship must either favour the interests of the student or at least not disadvantage the student. While graduate supervision is based on a contractual relationship between a supervisor and a student, its function is to achieve the academic goals of the university to prepare advanced level researchers or practitioners. Sushila (2004) notes that student’s teachers are being expected to complete their degrees in minimum time and meet new demands for developing a broader skill set for future employment, which is increasingly likely to be outside universities.

To summarize, mentoring and supervision both have a role in the academy in relation to postgraduate student learning. Mentoring focuses on personal growth; supervision focuses on the execution of organizationally determined educational goals. The joint aim of postgraduate research supervision and mentoring is to enhance, monitor, and evaluate the student’s learning experience (Sushila, 2004).

## **2.5 Supervisory Skills for Effective Supervision**

Certain skills are essential in making instructional supervision effective. For a start, instructional supervision is about the improvement of teaching and learning; a supervisor must therefore possess skills to analyse teaching and learning styles and in addition have curriculum and teaching expertise (Duke, 2007); Chell, 2005). Secondly, effective supervision has been identified as collaborative; this involves interacting with teachers or what Brown & Bourne, 2015) refer to as being 'heavily dependent on the exchange of ideas among individuals working in conjunction with each other'. Gensante (2014) identifies the knowledge, skills and attitudes that an instructional supervisors should possess.

These are: relevant knowledge in communication, human relations, group relations and conflict resolutions. In addition, 'listening, speaking, writing, creating opportunity for professional dialogue are skills that the supervisors should have. In terms of attitudes, being responsive, encouraging mutual trust, open and approachable, and accepting diverse points of views' are seen as positive attributes that supervisors should possess. Similar views are held by many commentators such as Blase & Blase (2008) and Duke (2007). The knowledge, attitudes and skills that Gensante (2004) attributes to supervision are indicators of a supervisor who uses collaboration, motivates and promotes professional and personal growth by building a relationship that would make teachers desire supervision as they perceive it as helpful and the supervisor as a facilitator interested in the teachers' and pupils' well being.

## **2.6 Supervisory Skills needed by the Principals in Teachers' Supervision**

Kadushin (2002) notes that in education, the term supervision is used to describe those activities which are primarily directed towards improvement of conditions surrounding the growth of both pupils and teachers; therefore, the role of the supervisor is to improve, stimulate, coordinate and make teachers self-directed and cooperative toward personal and institutional goal achievement. According to Kadushin (2002) school head teachers are key to successful management of their schools.

Kadushin (2002) further observes that heads of schools are appointed from serving teachers, most of whom had no prior training or skills in educational administration or supervisory management. Apparent lack of supervisory training adversely affects effective management of schools. In view of this, Sushila (2004) asserts

that in order to provide effective supervisory service, supervisors must acquire three basic skills, namely, conceptual skills, technical skills and human relation skills:

### **2.7 Conceptual Skill**

According to Sushila (2004), it is the ability to acquire, analyze and interpret information received from various sources and to make complex decisions that help in achieving the school's goals in a logical manner. Conceptual skill allows the principals to think through and work with ideas. Supervisors or school principals with conceptual skills are good at thinking through the ideas that form an organization and its vision for the future, expressing these ideas in verbal and written forms, and understanding the principles underlying their organization's effectiveness. These leaders are comfortable asking "what if" or hypothetical questions (Guynm, 2004). Sergiovanni (2009) argues that principals need to further develop their conceptual skills to think strategically, that is, to take a broad long term view especially in the area of Teachers' Professional Development. This will enable principals to see what goes on in their work environment and help teachers to act appropriately and reflectively to situations as they arise.

### **2.8 Technical Skill**

According to Sushila (2014), technical skill is the capability to apply knowledge, experience, techniques and methods to perform specific tasks with the aid of appropriate machines and equipment. Technical skill is concerned with understanding and being able to perform specific tasks and processes, practices and techniques required of specific jobs in an institution effectively (Harden, 2008). Although the head teachers may not be

required to have all technical answers to problems but they need to have knowledge about their supervisory role in school. School heads need to understand the behaviour needed to perform the job and master the skills involved in performing their role especially in the supervision of teachers.

## **2.9 Human Relation Skill**

Human relation skill is the ability to motivate, inspire, guide and bring people together and develop them into effective work force as well as improve the wellbeing of individuals and working groups so as to make the best contribution to the success of the school (Harden, 2008). According to Obanya (2005) it is the ability to understand the teachers and to interact effectively with them. This involves being concerned about teachers and their problems, giving full consideration to their ideas and suggestions, creating the type of staff meeting in which each teacher has an opportunity to make his or her opinion known as encouraging socializing activities that build cordial environment. It is important for head teachers to maintain and strengthen interpersonal relations. This can be through listening to teachers when they have emotional difficulty in their personal life and striving to understand them so as to avoid applying general rule that may not be applicable to every teacher in every situation (Harden, 2008).

## **2.10 Evaluation Skill**

This is another crucial skill needed by the principals in his/her supervisory function. Ornstein (2011) explains that evaluation skill in education involves the ability to define goals and establish standards by which to judge the amount of change already



taken place; making judgment about the worth and value of change. The school head should establish a standard of appraisal to review teachers' performance in the light of their task as well as the context in which teachers are working. Without principals' skill of evaluation, most teachers will be forced to rely on guess work rather than on systematic evidence of teaching-learning situation. The head teachers should assist each teacher to form a self-rating check which has a set of criteria by which they can judge their work. The teachers should evaluate themselves to know the progress they are making and which procedures decreases or increases their effectiveness (Sergiovanni, 2009).

## **2.11 Skills and Attributes of the Headteacher as Instructional Supervisor**

There is a growing body of research that discusses what attributes or skills are perceived as necessary for a head teacher as instructional supervisor to be effective (Fullan, 2005; Blase & Blasé, 2008; Brown & Bourne, 2005 and McEwan, 2013).

### **2.11.1 Communication Skills**

Flath (2009) describes the importance and value of relationship and communication skills in an environment that involves students, parents, teachers and other professionals. Being an effective communicator, acting as a good role model or supervisor and managing time effectively were considered to be the major ways supervisors could fulfill such responsibilities (Moore, 2010). When a head teacher demonstrates open and honest two-way communication skills, models effective time management, and provides teachers with an overall positive role model it goes a long way to set the tone and direction of the work climate (Sergiovanni, 2009).

Communication that is open and two-way can lead to clarity of meaning and building of trust (Hargreaves & Fink, 2016; Kouzes & Posner, 2013). Just as communication skills can be learned, so too can interpersonal skills, and both skill sets need to be practiced to create better and more satisfying relationships (Kouzes & Posner, 2013; Oliva & Pawlas, 2011). In contrast, an unhealthy, negative workplace can be described as being rife with poor two-way communication, divisiveness, conflict, and low teacher's morale (Oliva & Pawlas, 2011). When teachers are given open, honest, and regular feedback, teachers feel respected and valued (Kouzes & Posner, 2013).

## **2.12 Conflict Management**

The skills for managing and resolving conflict are essential for supervisory practices to be successful (Oliva & Pawlas, 2011). Effective two-way communication through trust, understanding, and valuing another person's perspective, is a necessary component of empathy and managing conflict (Oliva & Pawlas, 2011; Hargreaves & Fink, 2016).

### **2.12.1 Building Interpersonal Connections**

Head teachers who recognise the importance of developing relationships with others and accepting diversity in people are often able to foster teachers' involvement and are more successful with teachers "buying into" an idea or initiative (O'Hanlon & Clifton, 2004; Oliva & Pawlas, 2011; Wiles & Bondi, 2010). Such head teachers tend to act in an authentic and transparent manner with a view to developing an atmosphere of trust. Building relationships with teachers can help these teachers feel supported and may result in the teachers becoming more involved. Lacking trust, teachers may not be motivated to invest their time.

### **2.12.2 Collaboration**

The importance of creating a climate of collaboration in the workplace is highlighted in the available literature (Fullan, 2015; Kouzes & Posner, 2013; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2015; McEwan, 2013). McEwan argues that a support network of peer coaching and a mentor system is beneficial for teachers and administrators. While other studies on professional collaboration indicate the importance of establishing a climate of trust and helping teachers to develop proficiency in consensus-building, decision-making, and to deal with conflict resolution (Fullan, 2015; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Oliva & Pawlas, 2011), issues such as a lack of a lifelong learning edict, lack of co-operation, time constraints, and isolation were noted to impede collaboration (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2015).

### **2.12.3 Self-Awareness**

Oliva & Pawlas (2011) suggest that great supervisory practice works through the emotions. Their research suggests that self-awareness is required to demonstrate resonant or positive supervisory practice. Self-awareness is the building block for social awareness, for without self-awareness we are poor at managing our own feelings and less capable of understanding feelings in others (Oliva & Pawlas, 2011).

### **2.12.4 Self-Reflection**

The value of having a head teacher who employs reflective practice skills is reinforced in the extant research (McEwan, 2013; O'Hanlon & Clifton, 2014; Ramsey, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2005; Wiles & Bondi, 2010). Through the use of reflective practice, teachers can better understand their leadership roles (Sigford, 2006). By examining perceptions, inherent biases, and world views, head teachers have the opportunity to

understand and enhance their effectiveness as instructional supervisor. Ramsey (2006) found that experienced head teachers demonstrated a higher level of reflection and competence in their supervisory roles. In the available literature there are many self-reflective frameworks or checklists to identify the various stages and components of a good head teacher (Gray, & Streshly, 2008; Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005).

Self-reflective process helps head teachers examine strengths and limitations, set professional goals, and plan professional development experiences. The importance of reflection in teaching is particularly useful because learning is grounded in reflection, the purpose of reflection is to improve practice to become better teachers and set the stage for lifelong learning (Kouzes & Posner, 2013; Ramsey, 2006).

#### **2.12.5 Trustworthiness**

Supervisory relationship is possible only if head teachers are trusted to have their own emotions under control (Byrk and Schneider, 2013; Sergiovanni, 2005). If a head teacher does not act ethically and build trust through their own reliability and authenticity, then teachers will learn to mistrust (Hargreaves and Fink, 2006). Trust is valuable in establishing that teachers are "on board" with the vision and generating involvement of the group (Byrk and Schneider, 2013; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006). The mistakes that leaders tend to make are usually classified under the category of poor human relations skills (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). What separates effective leaders from the other leaders seems to involve the ability to value and nurture relationships through the ranks (Fullan, 2005; Sergiovanni, 2005). Trust and rapport appear to be necessary for

development of cultures of learning (Fullan, 2005; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Sergiovanni, 2005; Wiles & Bondi, 2000).

### **2.13 Supervisory Practices and Procedures**

This section reviews practices and procedures of instructional supervision that have received a great deal of treatment in the education literature. The major ingredients and relevant perspectives associated with these practices and procedures are highlighted and discussed. A survey of the literature reveals a variety of practices and procedures that instructional supervisors, such as school head teachers, may employ as they work with teachers. According to Beach and Reinhartz (2010), supervisory practices refer to specific procedures and techniques that [instructional] supervisors use when working with teachers and these procedures and techniques are essential to supervisors in the observation and documentation of teaching-learning behaviours and contribute to the overall effectiveness of the instructional supervision process.

Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, (2011) suggested that supervisors should use different supervisory practices that come from their own philosophies and beliefs. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2012), concurring with Beach and Reinhartz (2010), noted that the choice of particular supervisory practices will depend on the kinds of teachers with whom supervisors work in their schools. In their view, instructional supervisors should match their supervisory practices with teachers' stages and levels of concerns, abilities in abstract thinking, level of cognitive complexity, learning styles, and motivational needs. Instructional supervisors may work with teachers in the following two broad ways that

significantly affect teacher instruction and, as a result, student learning (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2012):

**Direct Supervision Practices:** Direct instructional leadership practices include the immediate interactions with teachers and other personnel to address classroom, teaching, and student performance and curricular concerns. Direct supervisory practices can be grouped into two broad categories relative to supervision: curriculum supervision and instructional supervision (Jesse, 2009; Ornstein, 2011).

#### (i) Curriculum Supervision

According to Oliva and Pawlas (2011), curriculum includes (a) all in-school experiences, including classroom, learning experiences, student activities, use of the learning resource center, assemblies, use of the cafeteria, and social functions; and (b) out-of-school learning experiences directed by the school, including homework, field trips, and the use of community resources.

The following are the major direct instructional leader's responsibilities associated with curriculum supervision (Oliva & Pawlas, 2011; Robbins & Alvy, 2013): (a) providing the forum or setting to facilitate teacher curriculum and program discussions, either individually or in groups; (b) ensuring curriculum implementation; (c) facilitating curriculum needs assessment involving parents, teachers, and students; (d) coordinating the curriculum (e.g., by translating the curriculum knowledge into meaningful curricular programs, by matching instructional objectives with curriculum materials and standardised tests, and by ensuring curriculum continuity; and (e) promoting the coverage of syllabus content (e.g., by ensuring that the content of specific courses is covered in class and extended outside of class by developing and conforming homework policies.

## (ii) Instructional Supervision

Drake and Roe (2009) defined supervision of instruction as the process through which the headteacher attempts to work with teachers and other staff members cooperatively to improve teaching and learning in the school. Used in this sense, supervision of instruction, by design, is a developmental process through which instructional leaders can reinforce teaching practices that improve student learning. The following are the major direct instructional supervisory functions of the instructional leader (Murphy, 2000): (a) making frequent visits to classrooms, observing, soliciting and giving feedback to teachers on instructional methods and materials; (b) assessing the instructional program; (c) promoting quality instruction by ensuring and coordinating instructional programs and defining recommended methods of instruction; (d) supervising and evaluating instruction (e.g., by ensuring that school goals are translated into practice at the classroom level and monitoring classroom instruction); and (e) allocating and protecting instructional time (e.g., by providing teachers with uninterrupted blocks of instructional time and ensuring that basic skills and academic subjects are taught).

**Indirect Supervisory Practices:** According to Kleine-Kracht (2003), indirect supervisory activities are concerned with the school's internal and external environments, physical and internal contexts of the classrooms, teaching, curriculum, and the meaning of the instructional supervisor's actions for teachers. Instructional supervisors involved in indirect supervisory practices facilitate leadership in other personnel in the schools (e.g., teachers and departmental heads) in the following major ways (Daresh & Liu, 2005; Nothern & Bailey, 2011; Peterson, 2009): (a) improving teaching and learning conditions

(e.g., by ensuring clean, safe, healthy, and productive learning environments, being aware of and dealing with minor problems and issues before they become major problems, and providing teaching and learning resources, materials, and incentives to pursue new ideas and create new options); (b) helping them to set school-level instructional standards; and (c) understanding teachers' instructional concerns and classroom conditions and offering needed assistance to address them.

#### **2.14 Focuses of Instructional Supervision**

Beach & Reinhartz (2010) suggest instructional supervisors may focus on a variety of issues and concerns during their supervision process. The focuses of the supervision process may vary from one supervisor to another, depending on the purposes that supervision is expected to achieve. For example, during classroom observation the supervisor may focus on (a) the aspects of the teaching-learning process, such as contributions of students, individually and collectively, in answering questions, listening, performing tasks, and helping each other (Bollington, Hopkins, & West, 2010; Poster & Poster, 2013); (b) the teacher's movement in the classroom; and (c) the use of classroom artifacts of teaching, such as overhead transparencies, illustrations, demonstration set-ups, and unit and lesson plans (Pyle, 2008)

Other focuses of instructional supervision, according to Sullivan & Glanz (2005) and Tanner & Tanner (2007) work, include (a) teachers' knowledge of the subject matter; (b) teaching techniques and instructional skills; (c) teachers' work habits, dependability, and record-keeping; (d) teachers' personal characteristics, such as personality, tact, voice, cooperation, sense of humor, initiatives, enthusiasm, and good grooming; (d) teachers'



personal fitness; (e) teachers' human relationship with pupils, parents, and other members of the staff, administration, and the community; (f) teachers' professional conduct and ethics; (g) classroom environment; (h) teachers' involvement on non-instructional activities; (i) teachers' management of instructional time; and (j) teachers' management of student behaviour.

## **2.15 Head Teachers Supervisory Activities**

Supervisory activities can be considered as strategies employed by any institution to realize teachers' professional competence. The school principals engage in a number of supervisory activities which include but not limited to the following: classroom visits, checking of teachers' professional records, planning, organizing, and coordination of supervision activities (Oliva & Pawlas, 2011).

### **2.15.1 Classroom visits**

The aim of classroom visit is to encourage teachers to be keen on their work and by being able to detect problems in the course of supervision teachers are motivated to develop problem-solving skills (Oliva & Pawlas, 2011). Ogunu (2005) asserts that head teachers need to observe their teachers formally on a regular basis, make notes in the classroom and work with a clear commitment to discuss their observations with teachers promptly in order to provide for in-school professional development.

According to Kadushin (2012), supervision of teachers through classroom visits may include: walk-through, informal class observations and formal class observation. For him, walk-through refers to an observation interlude lasting a minute or two which

provides a quick look at teacher performance and environmental factors in the classroom. Informal visit is an announced visit lasting more than ten minutes. During such visit, the teacher's practices are observed and documented. A formal visit is an announced visit lasting within an agreed upon amount of time. Fullan (2011) notes that formal visit consists of pre and post conference sessions where the supervisor and the teacher hold discussion on the lesson.

### **2.16 Checking of Teachers' Professional Records**

Record keeping is an important component in the running of the school. Teachers are required to make and maintain records such as the scheme of work, lesson plan, records of work, progress record book, attendance register among others (Glickman, 2010). According to Glickman (2010), a scheme of work is an action plan made by teachers as part of preparation to teach. It is a breakdown of the topics in the syllabus into teachable units. It shows what is to be taught at any particular time and the relevant learning activities for the lesson. It is therefore imperative on the school principal to check whether teachers adhered to the syllabus in terms of scope, depth appropriateness of learning resources and the learners' intellectual level.

The lesson plan is an indication of teacher's level of preparedness and his/her effort in gathering information relevant to the lesson. O'Hanlon & Clifton (2014) note that supervision of the lesson plan should be based on the clarity and appropriateness of the learners' behavioural objectives; appropriate selection of teaching-learning resources; appropriate selection of evaluation techniques to determine the achievement of objectives and the relevance of the lesson notes. Attendance register is an official list of the learners

which act as a legal evidence of learners' absence or attendance. The school head teacher should ensure that attendance register is marked as per Ministry of Education (MoE) regulations (O'Hanlon & Clifton, 2014). A record of work book is a book which shows accurate record of what has been covered and when it was covered. It assists the teachers when referring to what was taught and what teaching/learning strategies were applied. It is upon the principal to supervise the keeping, maintenance and updating of records of work on regular basis (Glickman, 2010).

### **2.16.1 Induction of Teachers**

Pyle (2008) refers induction as placement. It is “the process of matching a teacher or educational personnel to both the content and context of the job when an employment offer has been made” (p. 78). Induction could be for a new staff, transferred staff or old staff, depending on the purpose of the programme. A study carried out by Pyle (2008) on the key to quality teaching acknowledged that induction is a vital step in the professional growth and development of a teacher because it acts as a bridge between pre-service training and the actual teaching job. Pyle (2008) further emphasised that induction therefore helps newly trained teachers to quickly adjust to the academic, social, and sometimes political environment in the new job with the guidance of the more experienced mentors.

Jesse (2009) explains that the need for induction is obvious especially as teachers at work-place face challenges such as work over-load, inadequate professional support, culture shock and inadequate resources. The response to these challenges by the school principals through induction course can help boost teachers' self-confidence and

knowledge at their assigned teaching duties. Sullivan & Glanz (2005) conducted a study on induction needs of beginning teachers and showed that beginning teachers should be inducted in the following areas: knowledge of school policies; how to adapt rapidly in new work environment, classroom management; operation of team work and time management. It was also found out that there was need to hold induction seminars regularly and enhance consultations and designation of experienced teachers as mentors to the beginning teachers.

Based on the findings of the study, it was concluded that induction needs of beginning teachers were many and needed to be addressed through seminars and mentoring sessions. The study recommended that experienced teachers should work as a team; mentors to have regular consultations and the MoE to restructure the school system to cater for individual needs of beginning teachers through effective induction programme (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005).

Consequently, there is need for head teachers or the teacher who has been delegated for this role to assist teachers go through a well-designed induction programme. This will help the newly teachers to settle down on the job as smoothly as possible. Sullivan & Glanz(2005) observes that an induction programme should provide systematic and sustained assistance to the beginning teachers. Such programme of induction can only be properly formulated and achieved when the induction needs of beginning teachers are identified and met through the supervisory role of the principals. Thus, the school principals need to ensure that induction courses are designed to help retain teachers; stimulates their need for development and enable them to be integrated into the educational institution (Sullivan & Glanz, 2005).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1. Introduction**

This chapter mainly focused on providing a description of the research methodology adopted by the researcher for the study. The chapter describes the research design, the population from which the sample was drawn, the sampling techniques used, the data collection instruments, validity and reliability of the instruments, data collection procedure and the mode of data analysis.

#### **3.2. Research Design**

The study utilized descriptive survey design which according to Bryman (2001) is that branch of social scientific investigations which studies large and small populations or universe by selecting and studying samples chosen from the population to discover the relative incidence, distribution and interrelations. The implication is that it was not possible to reach the entire population hence the need for choosing a representative sample. This study employed this design to determine the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students in the Kumasi Metropolis. Given that the intent of this study was to provide an accurate description and interpretation of the activities, objects, processes and persons (Babbie, 2007) relating to the roles of teachers and head teachers on the supervision among students teachers off-campus teaching practice of pre-service teachers in the University of Winneba- Kumasi Campus, the descriptive survey would be the most appropriate and convenient research design to adopt. The purpose of this descriptive survey was therefore to determine the roles of teachers and head teachers on the supervision among students teachers off-campus

teaching practice from the perspective of teachers and head teachers. In terms of research approach, the study employed quantitative approach. The use of the quantitative method made it possible to provide a more comprehensive and in-depth approach to the analysis of the issues identified in the study. It also helped to provide a better understanding of the roles of teachers and head teachers on the supervision among students teachers on off - campus by converging numeric trends from quantitative data. The use of this method also provided a better view of the issues under research from several angles rather than to look at it from a single perspective.

### **3.4. Target Population**

A study population therefore refers to the entire group of people to whom researchers wish to generalize the findings of a study, including persons who did not participate in the study (Babbie & Mouton, 2002). The population of the study was made up of all School-based teachers and head teachers assigned to supervise the student teachers. The study was conducted in 20 partner Junior High schools with teacher mentors population of 140 with 20 head teachers. The total number of the respondents was 160.

### **3.4. Sampling Size and Sampling Procedure**

The purposive sampling technique is a type of non-probability sampling that is most effective when one needs to study a certain cultural domain with knowledgeable experts within. Purposive sampling may also be used with both qualitative and quantitative research techniques. Purposive sampling technique was used to select all the

160 respondents for the study. Purposive sampling technique was employed. This involves collecting data from all individuals in the target population due to the small nature of the population. To Bryman (2008), there are advantages to using a purposive sample to study a population:

- provides a true measure of the population (no sampling error)
- benchmark data may be obtained for future studies
- detailed information about small sub-groups within the population is more likely to be available

A sample size of 160 school-based head teachers and teacher mentors were used to collect quantitative data.

### **3.5. Data Collection Instrument**

The instruments used for this research was questionnaire. The researcher used questionnaire because of its advantages like; easy to administer on a large population which is largely literate. Questionnaires required less time and money compared to other methods like focus group discussions (Creswell, 2014). The questionnaires contained items on a Likert-type scale. All of the questions were closed-ended. Questionnaire for the respondents had two sections, i.e., section A and B. Section A collected data on respondents background information. Section B collected data based on the three objectives. This section had 18 items. Within this, items 1 to 6 measured teacher mentor supervisory roles, items 7 to 12 measured teacher mentor supervisory skills, while items

13 to 18 also measured teacher mentor supervisory activities. All of the questions were of 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

### **3.6. Trustworthiness**

To ensure trustworthiness and increase the degree to which the results of my study could hold true as well as inform other studies, I undertook the following measures: First, I provided a detailed description of the research setting such as participants' demographics. Similarly, an attempt was made to describe the findings of this study exhaustively. The intention was to provide information, which could inform other audiences and help in determining whether the study results are applicable to their situations. By describing a phenomenon in sufficient detail, one can begin to evaluate the extent to which the conclusions drawn are transferable to other times, settings, situations, and people (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Secondly I discussed the emerging data and its interpretation with a well-informed critical friend who consistently commented on my study since its formulation. Her feedback was valuable in shaping my field activities as well as data interpretation.

### **3.7. Pre-Testing of Questionnaires**

A pre-test was conducted to ascertain any need for revisions. The pre-test involved administration of the questionnaires to 23 school – based mentors. Participants of the pre-test were asked to complete the questionnaires and to provide comments or suggestions for revising any ambiguous items. The final instruments for the study were produced after subsequent revisions in the wording of a few items. The reliability of the



instruments was determined using Cronbach's alpha analysis. The pre-test was conducted at the selected schools.

### **3.8. Testing Validity and Reliability of the Instrument**

#### **(i) Validity**

The validity of research instruments was ensured by assessing the questionnaire items during their construction. Questions were discussed with the supervisor for verification. This was to clear any lack of clarity and ambiguity. The content related validity of the questionnaire was determined and strengthened through an extensive review of the literature. Validity is the extent to which the instruments used during the studies to measure the issues they are intended to measure (Amin, 2015). To ensure validity of instruments, the instruments would be developed under close guidance of the supervisor. After the questions are designed, they were pre-tested to 10 respondents at the selected schools. This helped to identify ambiguous questions in the instruments and be able to re-align them to the objectives.

#### **(ii) Reliability**

Reliability refers to the consistency of the instruments in tapping information from more than one respondent (Creswell, 2009). The results obtained were entered into the computer and reliability analysis was run. Reliability is the degree to which a survey instrument is considered reliable if its repeated application results in consistent scores (Joseph et al. 2010). That is, this reliability refers to whether “the measurement obtained from variables of interest is constant”. In this research, reliability would be achieved by

first pre-testing structured questionnaires with seven respondents from the target population and experts in the field to obtain consistency and accuracy. Their comments and corrections would be incorporated in data collection instruments and re-tested prior the use in the field.

### **3.9 Data Collection Procedures**

A permission letter from the Director of Education was obtained to enable the researcher source any information from the respondents. Upon receiving the letter the researcher formally informed the Directorate to offer their co-operation for the success of the study. This procedure was followed in order to conform to pre field work ethical issues. Creswell (2014) advises that researchers should not assume that because they may be doing their research among their people it will be smooth sailing. After this, the researcher handed the questionnaire to the selected teachers and collected the questionnaire later when he was informed about the completion of the instrument.

### **3.11. Data Analysis Procedure**

After sorting out the questionnaires, the data was computed and analyzed using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. The statistical tools such as frequencies and percentages, mean were used to analyse the questionnaire.

### **3.12. Ethical considerations**

According to Bryman (2012) ethics is a set of moral principles which are suggested by an individual or group, are subsequently ideally accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural explanations about the most correct conduct towards the

experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students. Ethical guidelines serve as standards about the foundation upon which each researcher ought to assess his or her own conduct. The researcher minded ethical considerations throughout this study as they are principles which guide the research from the beginning. The following illustrates some of the ethical considerations which were complied with.

Throughout the study, the researcher ensured that a healthy relationship with the participants was maintained. The researcher informed the participants about the purpose of the research so as to allow them the opportunity to decide whether to participate or not to participate. The potential risks that they might be subjected to were also explained (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). According to De Vaus (2001) the anonymity of the participants must be maintained and all the participants must be given the assurance that the data collected from them will be treated as confidential. In the opinion of Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2007) confidentiality entails that the information is handled in a confidential way. Research records that may indicate the participants' identities must be removed as a means of ensuring that confidentiality is maintained throughout the investigation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007).

Informed consent denotes that sufficient information on the goals of the research as well as procedures that were followed in the study is provided to the participants (Best & Kahn, 2001). Creswell (2008) maintains that researchers should use a language that is best understood by the participants so as to obtain their relevant informed consent. Throughout the use of such language, the participants are informed of the nature of the research, the freedom they have to participate, and the freedom to withdraw from the

research (Ghauri & Gronhaug, 2005). The researcher adhered to the above-mentioned requirements. The researcher used the language that the sampled participants understood so as to explain the purpose, advantages and disadvantages; as well as to obtain their informed consent. The researcher explained to the participants that their participation was voluntary and that they were free to withdraw from participating. After this explanation the participants were requested to take part in the study. The researcher informed the respondents that they were selected because they met the criteria set for the research study.

Bryman (2004) maintains that privacy is that which is not intended for others to observe or analyze. The researcher took the necessary precautionary measures by giving all the participants the right to decide for themselves to what extent their attitudes, beliefs and behaviour would be exposed (Bryman, 2004).

## CHAPTER FOUR

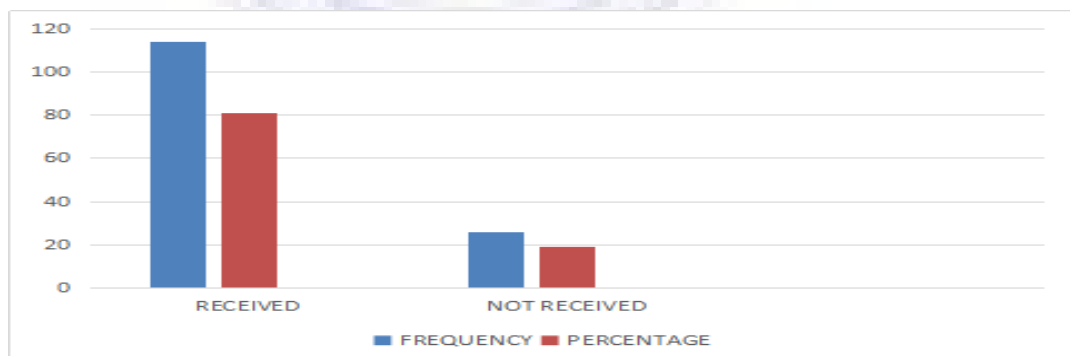
### RESULTS OF THE STUDY

#### 4.0 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students in the Kumasi Metropolis. The analysis of the study was guided by the following objectives: a) determining supervisory roles teachers and head teachers exhibit during the student's teachers teaching practice, b) assessing the supervisory skills needed by the teachers and head teachers in supervision of students teachers during the students teachers teaching practice, c) evaluating the extent to which teachers and head teachers supervision contribute to the professional development of students' teachers during teaching practice.

#### 4.1 Response rate of the Questionnaires

The researcher administered 160 questionnaires teachers and head teachers, out of the which 114 questionnaires were properly answered and returned/received, while 46 questionnaires were not returned. Therefore, the analyses of the teachers and head teacher's questionnaires were based on 71% response rate as shown in Figure 4.1.



**Figure 4.1: Response rate**

Source: Field survey, 2018

## 4.2 Demographic information of Respondents

Table 4.1 indicates the demographic characteristics of the head teachers and teachers.

**Table 4.1: Demographic information of the respondents**

Gender	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	39	34.2
Female	75	65.8
Total	114	100
<b>Age category</b>		
Less than 30 years	31	27.2
31- 40 years	26	22.8
41- 50 years	30	26.3
Above 51 years	27	23.7
Total	114	100
<b>Educational qualification</b>		
Diploma	48	42.1
Bachelor's degree	57	50
Masters degree	9	7.9
Total	114	100
<b>Teaching experience</b>		
6-10 years	39	34.2
11-15 years	45	39.5
Above 16 years	30	26.3
Total	114	100

**Source: Field survey, 2018**

Table 4.1 shows that the majority (65.8%) were females while 39 respondents representing 34.2% were males. Moreover, 31 respondents representing 27.2% were less

than 30 years old, 30 respondents representing 26.3% were between the age category 42-50 years, 27 respondents representing 23.7% were above 51 years, while 26 respondents representing 22.8% were between the age categories 32-40 years. Furthermore, 57 respondents representing 50% were holding Bachelor's degrees as their highest academic qualification, 48 respondents representing 42.1% were Diploma in Education holders, while 9 respondents representing 7.9% were holding Masters degrees as their highest academic qualifications. Also, 45 respondents representing 39.5% indicated that they have 11-15 years working experience, 39 respondents representing 34.2% have 6-10 working experience, while 30 respondents representing 26.3% have more than 16 years working experience. This implies that the respondents have significant teaching experience in the teaching profession.

#### **4.3 Supervisory roles teachers and head teachers play during the students teachers teaching practice**

Table 4.2 shows the supervisory roles teachers and head teachers exhibit during the student's teachers teaching practice.

**Table 4.2 Teachers Supervisory Role**

Teachers Supervisory Role	1	2	3	4	5	Total
	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)
Giving guidance to teacher mentees and ensure that their teaching work is not impaired in any way	50(43.9)	33(28.9)	16(14)	12(10.5)	3(2.7)	114(100)
Supervising the teaching work done by the teacher mentees regularly and in actual situations	0	87(76.3)	8(7)	10(8.8)	9(7.9)	114(100)
Discussing any defects found in teaching with teacher mentees	27(23.7)	60(52.6)	6(5.3)	21(18.4)	0	114(100)
Meeting with teacher mentees prior to classroom observation	0	55(48.2)	24(21.1)	35(30.7)	0	114(100)
Conducting conferences with teacher mentees soon after observing teachers	19(16.7)	66(57.9)	8(7)	21(18.4)	0	114(100)
Making sure all teacher mentees receive supervisory feedback	0	79(69.3)	20(17.5)	15(13.2)	0	114(100)

Source: Field survey, 2018

Keys: 1=Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Neutral, 4=Disagree, 5=Strongly Disagree

Table 4.2 indicates that 50 respondents representing 43.9% strongly agreed that they gave guidance to mentees and ensured that their teaching work is not impaired in any way, 33 respondents representing 28.9% agreed, 16 respondents representing 14% were neutral, 12 respondents representing 10.5% disagreed, while 3 respondents representing 2.7% strongly disagreed. Also, 87 respondents representing 76.3% agreed that they supervised the teaching work done by the mentees regularly and in actual situations, 10 respondents representing 8.8% disagreed, 9 respondents representing 7.9% strongly disagreed while 8 respondents representing 7% were neutral. Moreover, 60 respondents representing 52.6% agreed that they discussed any defects found in teaching



with teacher mentees, 27 respondents representing 23.7% agreed, 21 respondents representing 18.4% disagreed while 6 respondents representing 5.3% were neutral.

Furthermore, 55 respondents representing 48.2% agreed that they met with mentees prior to classroom observation, 35 respondents representing 30.7% disagreed, while 24 respondents representing 21.1% were neutral. To add more, 66 respondents representing 57.9% agreed that they conduct conferences with mentees soon after observing teachers, 21 respondents representing 18.4% disagreed, 19 respondents representing 16.7% agreed while 8 respondents representing 7% were neutral. The study results 79 respondents representing 69.3% agreed that they make sure all mentees receive supervisory feedback, 20 respondents representing 17.5% were neutral, while 15 respondents representing 13.2% disagreed.

#### **4.4 The supervisory skills needed by the teachers and head teachers in supervision of students teachers during the student's teachers teaching practice**

Table 4.3 assessed the supervisory skills needed by the teachers and head teachers in supervision of student's teachers during the students teachers teaching practice.

**Table 4.3 Head Teachers and Teachers Supervisory Skills**

Teachers Supervisory Skills	1	2	3	4	5	Total
Successful teachers need the skill to:	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)	n(%)
Assist teacher mentees to develop interpersonal relations	14(12.3)	52(45.6)	23(20.2)	25(21.9)	0	114(100)
Build upon strengths of teacher mentees (motivational skills)	51(44.7)	49(43)	8(7)	6(5.3)	0	114(100)
Provide opportunities for teacher mentees to meet and share ideas about instruction (democratic skills)	0	80(70.2)	18(15.8)	16(14)	0	114(100)
Bring teacher mentees together to discuss issues concerning effective teaching (teamwork)	0	85(74.6)	20(17.5)	9(7.9)	0	114(100)
Assist teacher mentees to interact with teachers in the school (interpersonal communication skills)	29(25.4)	52(45.6)	19(16.7)	0	14(12.3)	114(100)
Engage teacher mentees in mutual dialogue about ways to improve teaching (communication skills)	0	50(43.9)	17(14.9)		47(41.2)	114(100)

Source: Field survey, 2018

Keys: 1=Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Neutral, 4=Disagree, 5=Strongly Disagree

Table 4.3 shows that 52 respondents representing 45.6% believe the head teachers and teachers were able to assist the teacher mentees to develop interpersonal relations, 25 respondents representing 21.9% disagreed, 14 respondents representing 12.3% strongly agreed while 23 respondents representing 20.2% were neutral. Moreover, 51 respondents representing 44.7% strongly agreed that they are able to build upon strengths of teacher

mentees, 49 respondents representing 43% agreed, 8 respondents representing 7% were neutral, while 6 respondents representing 5.3% disagreed. Also, 80 respondents representing 70.2% agreed that they provide opportunities for teacher mentees to meet and share ideas about instruction, 18 respondents representing 15.8% were neutral, while 16 respondents representing 14% were neutral.

Furthermore, 85 respondents representing 74.6% agreed that they are able to bring teacher mentees together to discuss issues concerning effective teaching, 20 respondents representing 17.5% were neutral, while 9 respondents representing 7.9% disagreed. Moreover, 52 respondents representing 45.6% agreed that they are able to assist teacher mentees to interact with teachers in the school, 29 respondents representing 25.4% strongly agreed, 19 respondents representing 16.7% were neutral while 14 respondents representing 12.3% disagreed. Also, 50 respondents representing 43.9% agreed that they mostly engage teacher mentees in mutual dialogue about ways to improve teaching, 47 respondents representing 41.2% strongly disagreed, while 17 respondents representing 14.9% were neutral.

#### 4.5 The extent to which teachers and head teachers supervision contribute to the professional development of students' teachers during teaching practice

Table 4.4 evaluated the extent to which teachers and head teachers supervision contribute to the professional development students' teachers during teaching practice

**Table 4.4 Teachers Supervision and Professional Development of Student Teachers**

Teachers Supervision and Professional Development of Student Teachers	1 n(%)	2 n(%)	3 n(%)	4 n(%)	5 n(%)	Total n(%)
My supervision has improved students teachers pedagogical content knowledge	41(36)	68(59.6)	5(4.4)	0	0	114(100)
My supervision has improved student teachers teaching behaviors intended to facilitate students learning	0	70(61.4)	11(9.6)	33(28.9)	0	114(100)
My supervision has improve student teachers teaching methods	0	98(86)	16(14)	0	0	114(100)
My supervision has improve student teachers classroom management skills	25(21.9)	80(70.2)	9(7.9)	0	0	114(100)
My supervision has made students teachers adapt to the learning needs of students	62(54.4)	45(39.5)	7(6.1)	0	0	114(100)
My supervision has improved student teachers - learners classroom interactions	28(24.6)	72(63.2)	4(3.5)	10(8.8)		114(100)

Source: Field survey, 2018

Keys: 1=Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Neutral, 4=Disagree, 5=Strongly Disagree

Table 4.4 reveals that 68 respondents representing 59.6% agreed that their supervision had improved students teachers pedagogical content knowledge, 41 respondents representing 36% strongly agreed, while 5 respondents representing 4.4% were neutral. Moreover, 70 respondents representing 61.4% agreed that their supervision had improved student teachers teaching behaviors intended to facilitate students learning, 33 respondents representing 28.9% disagreed, while 11 respondents representing 9.6%

were neutral. Also, 98 respondents representing 86% agreed that their supervision had improved student teachers teaching methods, while 16 respondents representing 14% were neutral. Moreover, 80 respondents representing 70.2% agreed that their supervision had improved student teachers classroom management skills, 25 respondents representing 21.9% strongly agreed, while 9 respondents representing 7.9% were neutral.

Furthermore, 62 respondents representing 54.4% strongly agreed that their supervision had made students teachers adapt to the learning needs of students, 45 respondents representing 39.5% agreed, while 7 respondents representing 6.1% were neutral. The study result held that 72 respondents representing 63.2% agreed that their supervision had improved student teachers - learners classroom interactions, 28 respondents representing 24.6% strongly agreed, 10 respondents representing 8.8% disagreed, while 4 respondents representing 3.5% were neutral.

#### **4.6 Teachers Mentoring Supervisory Practices**

Table 4.5 shows the teachers mentoring supervisory practices.

**Table 4.5 Teachers Mentoring Supervisory Practices**

Teachers Mentoring Supervisory Practices	1 n(%)	2 n(%)	3 n(%)	4 n(%)	5 n(%)	Total n(%)
Supporting my mentees and other staff and guide the mentees professional growth	34(29.1)	53(45.3)	17(14.9)	10(8.8)	0	114(100)
Mentees accept my professional guidance and I vet mentees lesson plans	56(49.1)	38(33.3)	10(8.8)	0	10(8.8)	114(100)
Organising pre conference meetings with mentees together with post conference meetings to discuss mentees observations	45(39.5)	54(47.4)	5(4.4)	10(8.8)	0	114(100)
Involving mentees in on-line discussions with other trainees about the various issues they experience in teaching practice.	0	51(44.8)	18(15.8)	45(39.5)	0	114(100)
Being punctual at school to support mentees and supervise them	0	78(68.4)	19(16.7)	17(14.9)	0	114(100)
Motivating mentees to use technology in preparing for their teaching practice (e.g. Online lessons plans, activities etc.)	31(27.2)	59(51.8)	11(9.6)	13(11.4)	0	114(100)
Supporting mentees to establish a link between teaching practice and real life teaching experience.	0	60(52.6)	18(15.8)	20(17.6)	16(14)	114(100)
Assisting mentees to keep notes, diary, journal or portfolio on their teaching practice experience	0	49(43)	20(17.5)	45(39.5)	0	114(100)
Observing that TLMs were appropriately used to enhance teaching.	0	65(57)	12(10.5)	37(32.5)	0	114(100)

Source: Field survey, 2018

Keys: 1=Strongly Agree, 2=Agree, 3=Neutral, 4=Disagree, 5=Strongly Disagree

Table 4.5 shows that 53 respondents representing 45.3% agreed that they support their mentees and other staff and guide the mentee's professional growth, 34 respondents representing 29.1% strongly agreed, 17 respondents representing 14.9% were neutral, while 10 respondents representing 8.8% disagreed. Also, 56 respondents representing

49.1% strongly agreed that their mentees accept their professional guidance and they also vet mentees lesson plans, 38 respondents representing 33.3% agreed, 10 respondents representing 8.8% disagreed and were neutral respectively. The study reveals that 54 respondents representing 47.4% agreed that they organise pre conference meetings with mentees together with post conference meetings to discuss mentees observations, 45 respondents representing 39.5% strongly agreed, 10 respondents representing 8.8% disagreed, while 5 respondents representing 4.4% were neutral.

Furthermore, 51 respondents representing 44.8% agreed that they involve mentees in on-line discussions with other trainees about the various issues they experience in teaching practice, 45 respondents representing 39.5% disagreed, while 18 respondents representing 15.8% were neutral. Moreover, 78 respondents representing 68.4% agreed that they are regular at school to support mentees and supervise them, 19 respondents representing 16.7% neutral, while 17 respondents representing 14.9% disagreed. Also, 59 respondents representing 51.8% agreed that they motivate mentees to use technology in preparing for their teaching practice (e.g. Online lessons plans, activities etc.), 31 respondents representing 27.2% strongly agreed, 13 respondents representing 11.4% disagreed, while 11 respondents representing 9.6% were neutral. Furthermore, 60 respondents representing 52.6% agreed that they supported mentees to establish a link between teaching practice and real life teaching experience, 20 respondents representing 17.6% disagreed, 18 respondents representing 15.8% were neutral while 16 respondents representing 14% strongly agreed.

The study result indicate that 49 respondents representing 43% agreed that they assisted mentees to keep notes, diary, journal or portfolio on their teaching practice

experience, 45 respondents representing 39.5% disagreed, while 20 respondents representing 17.5% were neutral. Also, 65 respondents representing 57% agreed that they observed that TLMs were appropriately used to enhance teaching, 37 respondents representing 32.5% disagreed, while 12 respondents representing 10.5% were neutral.





## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

#### 5.0 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students in the Kumasi Metropolis. The analysis of the study was guided by the following objectives: a) determining supervisory roles teachers and head teachers exhibit during the student's teachers teaching practice, b) assessing the supervisory skills needed by the teachers and head teachers in supervision of students teachers during the students teachers teaching practice, c) evaluating the extent to which teachers and head teachers supervision contribute to the professional development of students' teachers during teaching practice. The discussions of the study were based on these research objectives.

In terms of supervisory roles teachers and head teachers exhibited during the students teachers teaching practice, the study indicated that most of the respondents agreed that they gave guidance to teacher mentees and ensured that their teaching work is not impaired in any way. Moreover, they supervised the teaching work done by the teacher mentees regularly and in actual situations. Furthermore, they discussed any defects found in teaching with teacher mentees. In addition, they met with teacher mentees prior to classroom observation. Also, they conduct conferences with teacher mentees soon after observing teachers and finally, they made sure all teacher mentees received supervisory feedback.

These results concur with Kadushin (2002), who noted that in education, the term supervision is used to describe those activities which are primarily directed towards

improvement of conditions surrounding the growth of both pupils and teachers; therefore, the role of the supervisor is to improve, stimulate, coordinate and make teachers self-directed and cooperative toward personal and institutional goal achievement. According to Kadushin (2002) school head teachers are key to successful management of their schools. Kadushin (2002) further observes that heads of schools are appointed from serving teachers, most of whom had no prior training or skills in educational administration or supervisory management. Apparent lack of supervisory training adversely affects effective management of schools.

In terms of the supervisory skills needed by the teachers and head teachers in supervision of students teachers during the student's teachers teaching practice, the study revealed that they assisted the teacher mentees to develop interpersonal relations. Moreover, they are able to build upon strengths of teacher mentees. Also, they provided opportunities for teacher mentees to meet and share ideas about instruction. Furthermore, they were able to bring teacher mentees together to discuss issues concerning effective teaching. Moreover, they were able to assist teacher mentees to interact with teachers in the school. Also, they mostly engage teacher mentees in mutual dialogue about ways to improve teaching. These means that the head teachers and teachers regularly visit the mentees in the classrooms to supervise their performance.

These results were in agreement with Oliva and Pawlas, (2011), they indicated that the aim of classroom visit is to encourage teachers to be keen on their work and by being able to detect problems in the course of supervision teachers are motivated to develop problem-solving skills. Ogunu (2005) asserts that head teachers need to observe their teachers formally on a regular basis, make notes in the classroom and work with a

clear commitment to discuss their observations with teachers promptly in order to provide for in-school professional development.

According to Kadushin (2012), supervision of teachers through classroom visits may include: walk-through, informal class observations and formal class observation. For him, walk-through refers to an observation interlude lasting a minute or two which provides a quick look at teacher performance and environmental factors in the classroom. Informal visit is an announced visit lasting more than ten minutes. During such visit, the teacher's practices are observed and documented. A formal visit is an announced visit lasting within an agreed upon amount of time. Fullan (2011) notes that formal visit consists of pre and post conference sessions where the supervisor and the teacher hold discussion on the lesson.

In terms of the extent to which teachers and head teachers supervision contributed to the professional development of students' teachers during teaching practice, the study results revealed that majority of the respondents agreed that their supervision improved students teachers pedagogical content knowledge. Moreover, their supervision improved student teachers teaching behaviors intended to facilitate students learning. Also, their supervision improved student teachers teaching methods. Moreover, their supervision improved student teachers classroom management skills. Furthermore, their supervision made students teachers adapt to the learning needs of students. The study result held that their supervision improved student teachers - learners classroom interactions.

Moreover, Tomlinson, (2005), revealed that teaching practice aim to provide student teachers with practical experience in teaching and to enhance student teachers' abilities to further develop their knowledge and skills in the areas studied in their

education courses, and to apply these in teaching pupils in school. Student teachers will be able to draw on a given scheme of work to produce lesson plans for all activities they plan and lead themselves. During Teaching Practice, student teachers will be able to work with individual pupils, and will also organize and teach groups and whole classes to facilitate learning in pupils. Student teachers will be able to monitor and evaluate the work produced by the pupils, adjusting teaching and future planning in the light of this information (Kaplan, 2008).

With regards to the head teachers and teachers mentoring supervisory practices the study findings showed that they supported their mentees and other staff and guide the mentees professional growth. Also, their mentees accepted their professional guidance and they also vetted mentees lesson plans. The study revealed that they organised pre conference meetings with mentees together with post conference meetings to discuss mentees observations. Furthermore, they involved mentees in on-line discussions with other trainees about the various issues they experience in teaching practice. To add more, they are regular at school to support mentees and supervise them. Also, they motivated mentees to use technology in preparing for their teaching practice (e.g. Online lessons plans, activities etc.). Furthermore, they supported mentees to establish a link between teaching practice and real life teaching experience. The study results indicated that they assisted mentees to keep notes, diary, journal or portfolio on their teaching practice experience. Also, they observed that TLMs were appropriately used to enhance teaching.

These results were in agreement with Hudson (2010), he indicated that teaching practice refers to the opportunity given to the trainee to develop and improve his / her professional practice in the context of the real classroom, usually under some form of

guidance and supervision. Hudson (2010) says that teaching practice refers to the period of time in which a student teacher gains firsthand experience in working with a particular group of children. In Ghana, teaching practice involves the student teacher working under the direct and continuing supervision of experienced teacher. During the period of teaching practice the student teachers are able to observe the entire work of the school and to participate actively in all the important professional activities of a teacher both in and out of the classroom (Hudson, 2010). Teaching practice contributes not only to the development of professional norms of teaching but also to learning classroom techniques.

Student teachers will be able to evaluate each lesson taught, reflecting on their own professional development and demonstrating a sound understanding of the role of the teacher. Teaching Practice experience consists of an extensive period of school-based activities such as observations, discussions, planning, teaching, assessing, evaluating and reflecting. All of these activities are undertaken in a supervised working through mentoring. The initial days of the Teaching Practice at school could be utilized by the student teacher to observe a range of teaching and learning situations, to familiarize him or herself with school routines and activities, to gather information needed for teaching tasks, and to plan and discuss lessons with practising teachers (Kaplan, 2008).

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **6.0 Introduction**

This chapter contains the summary of findings, conclusion, recommendations and suggestions for further research.

#### **6.1 Summary of Findings**

The purpose of this study was to determine the roles of teachers and head teachers in the supervision of teaching practice students in the Kumasi Metropolis. The study utilized descriptive survey design. Quantitative research approach was used for the study. The population of the study was made up of all 160 School-based teachers and head teachers assigned to supervise the student teachers. A census sampling technique was employed to all the 160 respondents. The instruments used for this research was questionnaires. Statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) version 20 was used to generate the results of the study.

#### **6.2 Major findings of the Study**

In terms of supervisory roles teachers and head teachers exhibit during the students teachers teaching practice, the study indicated that most of the respondents agreed that they gave guidance to teacher mentees and ensured that their teaching work is not impaired in any way. Moreover, they supervised the teaching work done by the teacher mentees regularly and in actual situations. Furthermore, they discussed any defects found in teaching with teacher mentees. To add more, they met with teacher

mentees prior to classroom observation. Also, they conduct conferences with teacher mentees soon after observing teachers and finally, they made sure all teacher mentees receive supervisory feedback.

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With regards to the head teachers and teachers mentoring supervisory practices the study findings show that they supported their mentees and other staff and guide the mentees professional growth. Also, their mentees accepted their professional guidance and they also vetted mentees lesson plans. The study revealed that they organised pre conference meetings with mentees together with post conference meetings to discuss mentees observations. Furthermore, they involved mentees in on-line discussions with other trainees about the various issues they experience in teaching practice. To add more, they are regular at school to support mentees and supervise them. Also, they motivated mentees to use technology in preparing for their teaching practice (e.g. Online lessons plans, activities etc.). Furthermore, they supported mentees to establish a link between teaching practice and real life teaching experience. The study results indicated that they assisted mentees to keep notes, diary, journal or portfolio on their teaching practice experience. Also, they observed that TLMs were appropriately used to enhance teaching.

### **6.3 Conclusion**

The study concluded that mentees made adequate preparation for teaching with their mentor's support. Also, with the help of their mentors they are able to complete evaluation forms on their teaching experience. Moreover, mentors encouraged mentees to give enough exercises to pupils. Furthermore, mentors encouraged mentees to manage their class well. To add more, mentees have developed interest in teaching all the subjects assigned them. Also, mentors encouraged mentees to use technology in teaching lessons if available. The mentors assisted the mentees to consult different references to find solutions for encountered teaching practice problems. Also, mentors encouraged mentees



to try out new teaching techniques. Mentees are taught to use the required syllabus to teach pupils. Moreover, mentors encouraged mentees to use and design additional materials and activities for teaching. To add more, mentees are mentored to mark all exercises given to pupils.

The study concluded that mentees enjoy the support of their mentors and other staff. Furthermore, mentees accepted the guidance given to them by their mentors. To add more, the mentors vetted mentees lesson plans. The mentors organised periodic pre conference meetings with mentees to teach them the new methods used to impart knowledge. The mentors do not use the latest Information and Communication Technology (ICT) to disseminate information about the various issues mentees experience in teaching practice. Moreover, mentors were always available in school to supervise and support mentees. The mentors helped the mentees to establish a link between teaching practice and real life teaching experience. The mentors made mentees to keep notes, diary, journal or portfolio on their teaching practice experience and the mentors guided mentees professional growth.

#### **6.4 Recommendations**

According to the conclusions of the study, the researcher recommended that,

1. The Government of Ghana, through the District Education Directorate should supply adequate teaching and learning materials (TLMs) to facilitate teaching and learning and enhance the mentorship programme.

2. The Ghana Education Service through the District Education Directorate should organise periodic seminars, conferences, lectures, in-service training programmes to improve mentors expertise regarding the use of Information Communication Technology in mentoring mentees.
3. The District Assembly Common Fund should be properly utilised to support the mentorship programme.

### **6.5 Suggestions for Further Study**

Based on the limitations of the study, the researcher suggested that a similar study should be conducted to assess the effects of teaching and learning materials (TLMs) on student's academic performance.

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## APPENDIX A

### QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Dear Respondent,

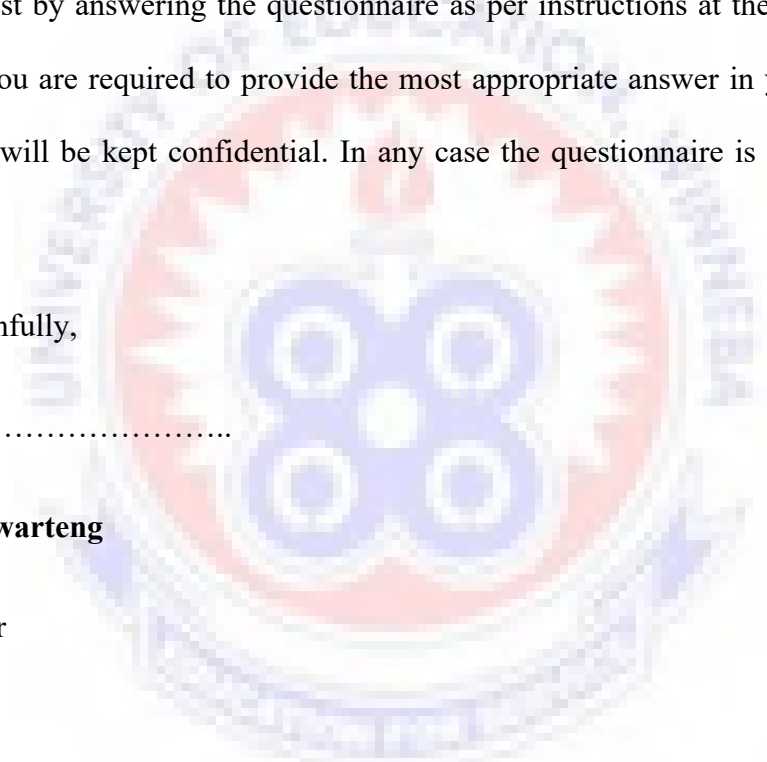
I am carrying out a study on the topic *“The Role of Teachers and Head Teachers in the Supervision of Teaching Practice Students”*. You have been randomly selected to participate in the research by completing the questionnaire. It would thus be very helpful if you assist by answering the questionnaire as per instructions at the beginning of each section. You are required to provide the most appropriate answer in your opinion. Your responses will be kept confidential. In any case the questionnaire is anonymous. Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

.....

**Evelyn Kwarteng**

Researcher



## SECTION A

### TEACHERS BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Please help us classify your response by supplying the following facts about yourself and your opinion on the raised issues by ticking an appropriate box. There is no right wrong answer therefore no particular response is targeted.

1. Age: Less than 30[  ] 31- 40[  ],41 - 50[  ] 51+ [  ]
2. Sex: Male [  ]. Female [  ]
3. Educational Status: First Degree [  ] Second Degree [  ]
4. Teachers Rank: Principal Superintendent [  ] Assistant Director 11 [  ] Assistant Director 1 [  ]
5. Teaching Experience: 1 – 5 yrs [  ] 6 – 10yrs [  ] 11 – 15yrs [  ] 16+yrs [  ]

**SECTION B****TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 5-point scale using the following keys: 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3=Neutral (N), 2=Disagree (D), 1=Strongly Disagree (SD) as sincerely as possibly.

<b>Statements</b>	<b>Strongly Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Neutral</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>
<b>Teachers Supervisory Role</b>					
1. giving guidance to teacher mentees and ensure that their teaching work is not impaired in any way					
2. supervising the teaching work done by the teacher mentees regularly and in actual situations					
3. discussing any defects found in teaching with teacher mentees					
4. meeting with teacher mentees prior to classroom observation					
5. conducting conferences with teacher mentees soon after observing teachers					
6. making sure all teacher mentees receive supervisory feedback					
<b>Teachers Supervisory Skills</b>					
7. assisting the teacher mentees to develop interpersonal relations					

8. building upon strengths of teacher mentees					
9. providing opportunities for teacher mentees to meet and share ideas about instruction					
10. bringing teacher mentees together to discuss issues concerning effective teaching					
11. assisting teacher mentees to interact with teachers in the school					
12. engaging teacher mentees in mutual dialogue about ways to improve teaching					
Teachers Supervision and Professional Development of Student Teachers					
13. My supervision improved students teachers pedagogical content knowledge					
14. My supervision improved student teachers teaching behaviors intended to facilitate students learning					
15. My supervision improve student teachers teaching methods					
16. My supervision improve student teachers classroom management skills					
17. My supervision made students teachers adapt to the learning needs of students.					



18. My supervision improved student teachers - learners classroom interactions					
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**Section C: Teachers Mentoring Supervisory Practices**

Please, respond to the statements by ticking the number of the 5-point scale using the

following keys: 5=Strongly Agree (SA), 4=Agree (A), 3=Neutral (N), 2=Disagree (D),

1=Strongly Disagree (SD) as sincerely as possibly.

**Please tick as appropriate**

Statement	SD	D	N	A	SA
Supporting my mentees and other staff.					
Guiding my mentees professional growth					
Mentees accept my professional guidance					
Vetting mentees lesson plans.					
Organising pre conference meetings with mentees.					
Holding post conference meetings to discuss mentees observations					
Involving mentees in on-line discussions with other trainees about the various issues they experience in teaching practice.					
Staying in school to supervise mentees.					
Being punctual at school to support mentees.					
Motivating mentees to use technology in preparing for their teaching practice (e.g. Online lessons plans, activities etc.)					
Supporting mentees to establish a link between teaching practice and real life teaching experience.					
Assisting mentees to keep notes, diary, journal or portfolio on their teaching practice experience					
Observing that the following TLMs were appropriately used to enhance teaching.					

**Thanks for your cooperation**